



*Routledge Studies in Gender and Economics*

# **THE ECONOMICS OF GENDER EQUALITY IN THE LABOUR MARKET**

**POLICIES IN TURKEY AND OTHER  
EMERGING ECONOMIES**

Edited by

Meltem İnce Yenilmez and Gül Ş. Huyugüzel Kışla



# The Economics of Gender Equality in the Labour Market

This book evaluates the global labour market in the context of gender equality, and the associated policies and regulations, particularly in developing markets, to recommend measures for encouraging gender equality. It exposes the barriers that women employees encounter as well as some of the societal and workplace policies they, specifically, are subject to. Important themes within this topic include participation rates, the looming gap in hourly pay, availability of part-time and full-time positions, value and social status associated with jobs held by men and women.

The book examines how global gender policy objectives, such as gender equality in careers, gender balance in decision making and gender dimensions in research, can be incorporated into policy frameworks. The book analyzes the gendered nature of assumptions, processes and theories. The juxtaposition between family and work, tradition and modernity, and dependency and autonomy clearly still seems to be misunderstood. Therefore, the book asks whether work improves women's positions in society and/or changes their roles in their families. The authors explore and uncover the connections among employment, entrepreneurship, migration economies and gender global labour markets and provide helpful solutions to the perceptions surrounding women's status, risks and inequality that limit their economic participation.

This insightful read provides comprehensive details on a variety of themes and encourages further research on policies that are key to promoting gender equality. The book will appeal to postgraduate students and researchers of labour and feminist economics, the economics of gender, women's studies and sociology.

**Meltem İnce Yenilmez** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Yaşar University, Turkey; a research associate at Five College Women's Studies Research Center at the University of Massachusetts Amherst, USA; and a visiting researcher in the Department of Sociology at Lund University, Sweden. In addition to her academic positions, Meltem's career includes work in the impact of various forces of economics and social change on the constitution of gender relations and women's empowerment. Her expertise encompasses cyclical patterns of female employment and wage differentials to discrimination, care work and employment patterns in developing countries as well as issues related to gender and development. Aside from the two books she has published, her work also includes women in sports, occupational segregation and gender wage gap.

**Gül Ş. Huyugüzel Kışla** is an assistant professor in the Department of Economics at Ege University, Turkey. She completed her undergraduate study, MA and PhD in economics at Ege University. She worked at Yaşar University from 2007 to 2009. Afterwards, she joined Ege University as academic staff, where she has been working since 2009. Currently, her primary research interest is macro finance, labour productivity and currency crises.

## **Routledge Studies in Gender and Economics**

### **Using Fiscal Policy and Public Financial Management to Promote Gender Equality**

International Perspectives

*Janet G. Stotsky*

### **The Economics of Gender Equality in the Labour Market**

Policies in Turkey and other Emerging Economies

*Edited by Meltem İnce Yenilmez and Gül Ş. Huyugüzel Kışla*

For more information about this series, please visit [www.routledge.com/  
Routledge-Studies-in-Gender-and-Economics/book-series/RSGENECON](http://www.routledge.com/Routledge-Studies-in-Gender-and-Economics/book-series/RSGENECON)

# **The Economics of Gender Equality in the Labour Market**

Policies in Turkey and other  
Emerging Economies

**Edited by Meltem İnce Yenilmez  
and Gül Ş. Huyugüzel Kışla**

First published 2021  
by Routledge  
2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN

and by Routledge  
52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, NY 10017

*Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business*

© 2021 selection and editorial matter, Meltem İnce Yenilmez and Gül Ş.  
Huyugüzel Kışla; individual chapters, the contributors

The right of Meltem İnce Yenilmez and Gül Ş. Huyugüzel Kışla to be  
identified as the authors of the editorial material, and of the authors for their  
individual chapters, has been asserted in accordance with sections 77 and 78  
of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reprinted or reproduced or  
utilised in any form or by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now  
known or hereafter invented, including photocopying and recording, or in any  
information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from  
the publishers.

*Trademark notice:* Product or corporate names may be trademarks or  
registered trademarks, and are used only for identification and explanation  
without intent to infringe.

*British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data*

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

*Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data*

A catalog record for this book has been requested

ISBN: 978-0-367-69399-2 (hbk)

ISBN: 978-1-003-14165-5 (ebk)

Typeset in Times New Roman  
by Apex CoVantage, LLC

**Words cannot express how grateful I am to my mother, father, mother-in-law and father-in-law for all of the sacrifices they have made on my behalf and whose love and guidance are with me in whatever I pursue. They are the ultimate role models. I wish to thank my sisters for whom I have no words to describe the meaning of their love and support. Most importantly, I owe my deepest gratitude to my loving and supportive husband, Özgür, and my wonderful beloved son, Bryan Poyraz, who provides unending inspiration, and being such a good boy always cheering me up. You are the best thing that is still happening to me.**

**Meltem İNCE YENİLMEZ**

**I dedicate this book to my lovely parents who raised me as a strong daughter, to my warm-hearted husband who made me a loving wife, and to my beautiful son who made me a caring mother.**

**Gül Ş. HUYUGÜZEL KİŞLA**



Taylor & Francis

Taylor & Francis Group

<http://taylorandfrancis.com>

# Contents

<i>List of figures</i>	ix
<i>List of tables</i>	xi
<i>List of contributors</i>	xiii
<i>Preface</i>	xv
<b>1 Bridging the gender gap in emerging economies for a better future of work for all</b>	<b>1</b>
MELTEM İNCE YENİLMEZ	
<b>2 Women’s labor force participation and gender discrimination in the labor market</b>	<b>17</b>
MEHMET ŞENGÜR	
<b>3 The gender-responsive budgeting: a way of coping with gender inequalities</b>	<b>44</b>
UMUT HALAÇ	
<b>4 Gender equality in the finance sector: closing gaps or another “old boys’ club”?</b>	<b>57</b>
BEGÜM YURTERİ KÖSEDAĞLI	
<b>5 Is there gender equality in employment indicators? A comparative study for emerging markets</b>	<b>73</b>
MELİH ÖZÇALIK	
<b>6 The relationship between minimum wages and youth employment in OECD countries</b>	<b>106</b>
M. AKIF ARVAS	



<b>7 Gender gap in the labour market: a comparative view for youth and adults</b>	127
FATMA DIDİN SÖNMEZ AND YASEMİN ÖZERKEK	
<b>8 An assessment of the gender (in)equality in education</b>	152
GÜL S. HUYUGÜZEL KIŞLA AND TARIK KIŞLA	
<b>9 Intersectional challenges in the labor market: the case of Roma women</b>	172
MERAL UZUNÖZ AND ASLIHAN YURDAKUL	
<b>10 What makes labor markets inaccessible for women migrants? From “triple disadvantage” to multiple challenges</b>	187
MEHMET GÖKAY ÖZERİM AND ELİF ÇETİN	
<b>11 Femvertising: a new concept for female empowerment in advertising</b>	204
EMEL YARIMOĞLU	
<b>12 Evaluation of labor market issues in sport and exercise environment in Turkey</b>	223
GÖZDE ERSÖZ	
<b>13 How patriarchal power structures undermine women’s empowerment and gender equality: the case of Nigeria</b>	239
ÖZGÜR TÜFEKÇİ AND MOHAMMED HASHIRU	
<i>Index</i>	255

# Figures

4.1	The Gender Gap in Employment in Financial Activities (%)	61
4.2	Women Representation in Financial Services Firms in North America, 2017 (% share)	61
4.3	Women Representation in Different Subsectors of Financial Services Firms in North America, 2017 (% share)	62
4.4	Average Share of Women on Bank Boards, 2013 (%)	63
4.5	Double Glass Ceiling in Banking Industry	64
4.6	Gender Balance Index (GBI) Scores (%)	65
4.7	Gender Balance Index, Central Banks, 2018–2019 (%)	66
4.8	The Unadjusted Gender Pay Gap in Financial and Insurance Activities in European Countries, 2017 (%)	67
4.9	The Share of Employees Aspiring for a Senior Position in Financial Firms (%)	68
5.1	Labor Force Participation Rate (F)	83
5.2	Labor Force Participation Rate (M)	84
5.3	Wage and Salaried Workers (F)	84
5.4	Wage and Salaried Workers (M)	84
5.5	Contributing Family Workers (F)	85
5.6	Contributing Family Workers (M)	85
5.7	Unemployment Rate (F)	86
5.8	Unemployment Rate (M)	86
6.1	Minimum Wage and Employment Relationship	109
6.2	The Population Projections of Youth Cohort in OECD (2018–2030) (%)	111
6.3	OECD Youth Employment Rate (2000–2018)	112
6.4	Minimum Wage Relative to Average Wages of Full-Time Workers (Average of 2000–2018)	114
6.5	The View of Dependant Variable for Countries	119
6.6	Histogram of Minimum-to-Mean Wage Ratios (2000–2018)	120
7.1	Youth and Adult Unemployment Rates by Country	132
7.2	Variations in Unemployment Across Countries (1995–2018)	133
7.3	Unemployment Gap Versus Real GDP Per Capita (1995–2018)	136
7.4	Unemployment Gap Versus Relative Cohort Size (1995–2018)	137

x *Figures*

7.5	Adult and Youth LFP Rates (%) by Country (2014–2018)	138
7.6	Gender Unemployment Gap and Gender LFP Gap (%) by Country (2014–2018)	138
7.7	Gender Gap Employment Rate by Country (2014–2018)	139
7.8	Gender Employment Distribution Across Sectors by Country (2014–2018)	140
7.9	Roots of the Companion Matrix	145
7.10	Impulse-Response Functions	147
8.1	Youth Literacy Rates (Female, Male, Total)	155
8.2	Adult Literacy Rates (Female, Male, Total)	155
8.3	Enrollment Rates for Preprimary Education (Total, Female, Male)	156
8.4	Enrollment Rates for Primary Education (Total, Female, Male)	157
8.5	Enrollment Rates for Secondary Education (Total, Female, Male)	157
8.6	Enrollment Rates for Tertiary Education (Total, Female, Male)	158
8.7	Female Teachers in Primary Education (%)	159
8.8	Female Teachers in Secondary Education (%)	159
8.9	Female Academic Staff in Tertiary Education (%)	159
8.10	The General Structure of the Formal Education System	161
8.11	Literacy Rates in Turkey	166
8.12	School Enrollment Rates in Turkey	166
8.13	Female Teachers in Turkey	166
8.14	Enrollment Rates in Tertiary Education by Field of Study	167
13.1	Trends in Seats by Women in Nigeria's National Parliament (%)	243
13.2	Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments (%) – Nigeria	244

# Tables

1.1	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates of the Determinants of Gender Equality	11
2.1	Labor force participation rate for female, 2000–2018, (15+)	22
2.2	Labor force participation rate for female, 2000–2018, (15+)	23
2.3	Labor force participation rate for female, 2000–2018, (15+)	24
2.4	Labor force participation rate for female, 2000–2018, (15+)	24
2.5	Labor force participation rate for female, 2000–2018, (15+)	25
2.6	Employment in agriculture, female percentage (2000–2009)	27
2.7	Employment in agriculture, female percentage (2010–2018)	27
2.8	Employment in industry, female percentage (2000–2009)	29
2.9	Employment in industry, female percentage (2010–2018)	29
2.10	Employment in services, female percentage (2000–2009)	30
2.11	Employment in services, female percentage (2010–2018)	31
2.12	Own-account workers, female percentage (2000–2009)	31
2.13	Own-account workers, female percentage (2010–2018)	32
2.14	Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratio in primary and secondary education (2009–2017)	33
2.15	Wage and salaried workers, female percentage (2010–2019)	34
2.16	Variables and data descriptions	36
2.17	Wald chi2 and Hausman Test	36
2.18	Durbin-Watson and Baltagi-WuTest	37
2.19	Pesaran CD, Friedman and Frees Tests	37
2.20	Model Estimations	38
4.1	Financial Sector's Employment Share in Total Employment, by Gender and by Region (%)	60
5.1	Employment Indicators of Brazil (%)	78
5.2	Employment Indicators of Russia (%)	79
5.3	Employment Indicators of India (%)	79
5.4	Employment Indicators of China (%)	80
5.5	Employment Indicators of South Africa (%)	81
5.6	Employment Indicators of Turkey (%)	82
5.7	Cross-Section Dependency Test	88
5.8	CADF Test	88

5.9	CIPS Test	89
5.10	Lag Order Selection from VAR Model (Female)	90
5.11	Granger Causality Test from VAR Model (Female)	91
5.12	Variance Decomposition Model (Female)	92
5.13	Lag Order Selection from VAR Model (Male)	96
5.14	Granger Causality Test from VAR Model (Male)	96
5.15	Variance Decomposition Model (Male)	98
6.1	Descriptive Statistics of the Variables	118
6.2	Panel Estimation Results for Total Youth Employment (Model 1)	121
6.3	Panel Estimation Results for Male Youth Employment (Model 2)	122
6.4	Panel Estimation Results for Female Youth Employment (Model 3)	123
7.1	Global Gender Gap Index Performance of Countries	130
7.2	Unemployment Rates for the Young and Adults by Gender (%)	134
7.3	The Elasticity of Gender Unemployment Gap with Respect to Unemployment	143
7.4	MBIC, MAIC and MQIC Information Criteria	145
7.5	Estimation Results	146

# Contributors

**Mehmet Akif ARVAS** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Van Yüzüncü Yıl University, Van.

**Elif ÇETİN** is an assistant professor in the Department of International Relations at Yasar University, Izmir.

**Fatma DİDİN SÖNMEZ** is an assistant professor in the Department of Economics at Bilgi University, Istanbul.

**Gözde ERSÖZ** is an associate professor in the Department of Physical Education and Sports Teaching at Fenerbahçe University, Istanbul.

**Umut HALAÇ** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Yasar University, Izmir.

**Mohammed HASHİRÜ** is a doctoral student in the Department of International Relations, Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon.

**Gül S. HUYUGÜZEL KİŞLA** is an assistant professor in the Department of Economics at Ege University, Izmir.

**Meltem İNCE YENİLMEZ** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Yasar University, Izmir.

**Tarık KİŞLA** is an associate professor in the Department of Computer Education and Instructional Technology at Ege University, Izmir.

**Melih ÖZÇALIK** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Celal Bayar University, Manisa.

**Mehmet Gökay ÖZERİM** is an associate professor in the Department of International Relations at Yasar University, Izmir.

**Yasemin ÖZERKEK** is an associate professor in the Department of Economics at Marmara University, Istanbul.

**Mehmet ŞENGÜR** is an assistant professor in the Department of Economics at Osmangazi University, Eskisehir.

**Özgür TÜFEKÇİ** is an associate professor in the Department of International Relations, Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon.

**Meral UZUNÖZ** is a professor in the Department of Economics at Yıldız Technical University, Istanbul.

**Emel YARİMOĞLU** is an associate professor in the Department of Business Administration at Yasar University, Izmir.

**Aslıhan YURDAKUL** is a doctoral student in the research group Demography and Sociology at University of Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona.

**Begüm YURTERİ KÖSEDAĞLI** is a research assistant in the Department of Economics at Ege University, Izmir.

# Preface

The traditional approach to gender can no longer help accomplish growth and economic resilience as the knowledge economy has become greatly competitive and global. Policymakers may have talked about accomplishing the UN Millennium Development Goals, through inclusive development, but have failed to develop models that can transform their hot air into actions. Employment still excludes a great number of people. Opportunities to transform policy and developmental decisions are still not open to a great number of people because of their disability, sexual orientation, age, ethnicity, gender or financial condition. Even so, when gender comes into the picture, alongside any of these attributes, many people within such categories cannot access the opportunities that can improve their lives and help them gain control over their destinies. This book provides insights through holistic and multidisciplinary gender analysis of diverse metrics, models and frameworks to uncover business, economic and organizational development practices that can prove effective to eradicate the gender gap. It challenges readers to rethink conversational perceptions of women in the labour market, and to consider how vital women are to eradicating adverse economic issues.

Gender equality not only focuses on empowering people, but it equally has a moral angle. It is about upholding fairness and equity across cultural, social and political areas. It is also a critical factor that can drive happiness and well-being across the globe. Nations are already making progress towards gender equality. In education, for example, girls are reaching higher academic achievements compared to boys and are less likely to drop out of school.

However, there are still lingering issues as men typically earn more than women, have greater opportunities to grow in their careers, and are less likely to spend their final years in poverty. Gender inequality stops nations from harnessing the vital contributions that females add to the economy and can waste years of investments that could be used by educating the young female population. It must be said that for a nation to maximize its talent pool, equal changes be given to males and females to foster equal contributions at home and in the workplace. This further improves not only their well-being but also the well-being of society.

Gender is an enormous issue as new economies, consulting firms and businesses are developing reforms that particularly target society. Estimates currently show that women have a huge part to play in the consumer sectors of the economy, and



gender-based violence is hampering significantly the values of employees and the performance of many typical businesses. Nevertheless, notions of diversity, flexibility and gender, although for everyone, have become interlinked with females. Hence, executives and diversity programs concurrently use these notions when discussing women, especially female participation in leadership positions. Therefore, when diversity programs occur, they undervalue the importance of diversity, flexibility and gender as they only reinforce the ideas that women should only work within the household or in caregiving positions. Therefore, the conversation must stop aligning wage gap, childcare, flexibility, diversity and gender as though they are women's issues. Businesses today understand that competitiveness can only be gained through diversity and flexibility. Therefore, for these businesses to navigate the complexities of the global environment, they must drive a change in gendered language and stop it from aligning parenting with women only. For instance, the advantages of diversity thinking should be enforced in decision making, which Friedman (1993) aligns with moral and friendship grounds: "The greater the diversity of perspectives one can adopt for assessing rules, values, principles and character, the greater the degree of one's autonomy in making moral choices".

Instances like this highlight the benefits of improved gender balance and cultural diversity and can help organizations make better decisions. *The Economics of Gender Equality in the Labour Market* provides insights on why gender diversity must become a priority. It further offers insights on the advantages of gender diversity and economic empowerment, particularly how they can reform organizations and economies. The chapters across the book further discuss a vast range of issues in an attempt to revolutionize perceptions of values and structures alongside existing practices. However, this is only a starting point. To further redefine this field of study and increase its attractiveness, there is a need to focus results on research, and on the benefits that businesses can gain. Therefore, frameworks, practical tools and methodologies should be created in that direction to analyze current laws, policies, academic fields and structures from a gender perspective. This will help businesses understand the impacts of gender equality on economics and profitability through the overlay of sociological perception, and further offer necessary foundational insights on the emerging contemporary society. Through this approach, the reader can easily make his or her own decisions about what must be done in contemporary society to embrace gender diversity. Overall, this book provides deep insights on society and the perspectives of gender and economics.

**Meltem İNCE YENİLMEZ**  
**Gül Ş. HUYUGÜZEL KIŞLA**

# 1 Bridging the gender gap in emerging economies for a better future of work for all

*Meltem İnce Yenilmez*

*“The world of the future is in our making. Tomorrow is now.”*

Eleanor Roosevelt

## Introduction

Ongoing debates discuss gender disparity in labor market participation and economic opportunities. There are perceived gaps in economic opportunities for men and women, and this has significant impacts on labor productivity and earnings. Owing to these incidents, the types of jobs have brought about significant differences in human capital.

In truth, when one assesses the number of women against the number of men across industries, fields, professions, firms and sectors, it is impossible to overlook the gaping hole between men's and women's jobs. This gap shows that evolving economic development and restructuring of avenues of employment is not enough to disrupt the gender segregation witnessed. By evaluating global data, it is easy to see that women dominate lower-impact jobs and work in or manage small establishments. In Turkey, the ratio of employed women is far less than that of men. Statistics released in 2014 show that out of every four women in Turkey, only one is employed. And women are segregated in the labor force. Most women are employed in low-paying and low-skilled jobs, for example, in the textile industry and in agriculture. Gender inequality in Turkey's employment is responsible for the underutilization of women in the labor force. Although there has been a considerable rise in women's employment, there is still a serious need for a policy that will ensure an equal opportunity role for both males and females in the work environment. There are many contributing factors to the skewed involvement of women in the labor force. The gender difference in employment roles and the social roles of women contribute to the imbalance in the labor force. There's also an unfair job requirement set by employers and the lack of required qualifications of unemployed women plays a significant role in the low population of women in labor force. The gender difference in labor force has social, economic, political and cultural contributing factors. Addressing these issues should involve a constant effort and creation of policies that will eliminate the gender bias in workplaces.

In the informal sector, the situation is even worse as women in this sector are primarily overrepresented among unpaid family workers. On a general note, women rarely rise to powerful positions in the labor market. Over the years, there have been several misconceptions about women in leadership. Most of these women are seen as arrogant, disrespectful, pushy and stubborn, whereas men who occupy the same capacity are regarded as being ambitious with excellent leadership skills. Other assumptions view women as subordinates to men who would not do well when asked to lead. The social belief of a woman's role being in the bedroom has done little to help them in developing the leadership qualities necessary to succeed. Another assumption is that women often follow others' opinions at the expense of what they feel is right, thus making them unfit to lead. Once people feel a leader is not in control, they mostly ignore the leader's decisions. Also, women are known to prefer an inclusive and collaborative style of leadership, further contributing to the view that they are not confident of ruling on their own.

Another contributing factor to the low involvement of women in leadership is the social role of women being the primary caregivers in families and the other household responsibilities that are expected of them. In Turkish society, women are required to put the needs of their families above their careers and other ambitions. According to research, women who make it to the top of their careers are usually unmarried, without children, or focused on their careers before starting a family. As a result, companies believe that women will most times place their families over their careers and in return limit the responsibilities given to women. To be at the top of one's career, there are moments when one needs to do overtime at work – this, however, conflicts with women's social roles at home – thereby making it difficult for women to create a healthy work/life balance. Networking plays a crucial role in a professional's journey to the top. Networking is the backbone of any business, but women's roles limit them from participating in these networking activities. Also, most networking activities, such as clubbing and golf, are male-oriented.

Due to inadequate access to better opportunities, the perceived gender gap reinforces institutional and labor market failures. For instance, women prefer to work in jobs with flexible working arrangements, to be able to combine work and their domestic responsibilities. These working arrangements, which are primarily informal or part time, carry significantly lower earnings than formal and full-time jobs. With the higher number of women working in such positions, there is decreased motivation to become active participants in the labor market.

Therefore, women mainly specialize in nonmarket work more than market work, which deepens the segregations in time use, access to inputs, market, and institutional failures that traps women in lower-paying positions. To break out of this trap, there must be interventions to lift time constraints, improve women's access to productive jobs, and correct market and institutional failures.

Feminist economic theory focuses on the marginalization of women in traditional institutions and other positions in society. Women are marginalized and are excluded from many activities and situations because of the norms, traditions and discriminatory laws that are still abundant. Therefore, women face severe

difficulties attaining positions associated with elevated status, power and money. This challenge is linked with the philosophy concerning laws and norms that the differences between roles played by women and those represented by men determine the kinds of opportunities they can encounter (England, 1993). Therefore, these gender roles significantly affect the chances women have of pursuing individual achievements such as education or career growth. When these women enter the labor market, they encounter restrictions, and the economic opportunities available for them are limited.

Traditional values also limit the number of opportunities women can access to the economy, especially in male-dominated employment positions. Nevertheless, gender roles can be used in evaluating and assessing the connections between gender roles and inadequate economic opportunities for women.

In Turkey, family units are perceived to have men as breadwinners and representatives of their own family. The perceived role is also seen as a prestigious position and held high socially. On the other hand, women are perceived as managers, caretakers or organizers of all household functions. This position may be valued if the household runs smoothly. Therefore, many women face intense pressure to eliminate their search for formal employment or higher education.

Nevertheless, limited opportunities for women in the labor market are a significant concern not only for Turkey but for the world at large because they lead to substantial adverse effects and can hinder any country from reducing poverty and attaining sustainable growth. It is therefore not surprising that the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) place women's empowerment and gender equality as one of its primary goals. These obstacles to growth are also the reason why many nations around the world are changing, structuring and aligning policies to tackle the issues of gender inequality. This chapter examines the extent, structure, nature and characteristics of the prevalence of the looming gap between the number of women against men in Turkey's labor force, and the reasons for its existence.

The goal is to develop strategies toward bridging the gender gap in the Turkish labor market. Bridging this gender gap is vital for many reasons. As stated earlier, it can help tackle poverty due to the direct and interrelated contributions to the welfare of the household. It also improves the position held by women as they can now take part in family decisions and making sure that primary income is used for necessities such as health care and children's education. Secondly, gender equality, in terms of employment, has to be enhanced based on the internationally recognized standpoint that every individual is deserving of the same opportunities. This comes from the perspective of fundamental rights.

The World Bank (2012) observed that gender equality in all forms of employment is not only about empowering women but ensuring equity, decreased efficiency loss, fairness, increased productivity, increased social protection contributions, opening tax bases, improved decision making concerning development, business and economic freedom, increased innovation and competition, improved business expansion opportunities for stronger, inclusive development and growth.

Therefore, gender equality sits as the most significant development challenge across Turkey. Over 78.3 percent of women around the globe are killed (ILO, 2019), whereas the women's employment ratio was just 51.9 percent. In Turkey, 65.7 percent of men are employed, while over 28.9 percent of women employed in the population. Therefore, the women working actively as part of Turkey's economy are just 33.5 percent, which is lower than the worldwide average of 48.7 percent. Nevertheless, during the year, women in Turkey have witnessed social exclusion due to employment choices and jobless rates, which also triggered the currency crisis that began in August 2018. Additionally, analysts predict that the employment to dependency ratio will be abnormally high by the end of the year 2018. Therefore, this chapter looks in particular at the main drivers of the gender gap in employment in Turkey and toward finding the best policies that can transform the Turkish labor market into a more inclusive setup while promoting gender equality.

### **Barriers to women's employment opportunities**

Diverse works of literature outline demographic factors, globalization, political systems, economic development, cultural and social norms, education, availability of infrastructure, macroeconomic factors, perceptions and expectations as primary factors influencing gender equality in employment. Current evidence points to the fact that development is positively affected by an increase in female labor participation.

Studies, lectures and discourses have tried to assess the reasons why female labor participation usually takes a plunge before rising as economic development improves. Boserup (1970) provides insights that during the early stages of development in any country, men tend to displace women in the labor force because they already have the knowledge and skills to take on better positions. Nevertheless, this phenomenon may also take a different shape (bringing about the establishment of another focus on the effects of income and substitution). Therefore, when development occurs, the unearned income in the household rises, which reduces the motivation for women to work outside the home. This negatively affects the growing revenues grossed by women and leads to a condition called "income effect," which means that households with higher income provide more avenues for leisure for women.

On the other hand, the substitution effect works in the opposite direction such that when female wages rise, more women are motivated to enter the labor market (Goldin, 1995; Mammen and Paxson, 2000; Bloom et al., 2009; Chaudhuri, 2009; Tam, 2011). Niemi and Lloyd (1981) also provide a different insight into the independent and positive impacts on female labor force participation brought on by inflation. Therefore, the effects of increasing inflation will not significantly negatively affect the lower earnings of women as opposed to their counterparts (Cardoso, 1992).

Nevertheless, Sakellariou (2011) also presents additional insights on the fractures in female-male participation in the labor force within rural societies, citing

that deviations in profile (demographic data) and educational fulfillment of the population influence the inequality between men and women participating in the economic. Therefore, increments in education and literacy levels witnessed contribute to the growth and expansion of the female labor force participation. Patacchini et al. (2012) who observed, systematically, that an increase in the level of education also supports these views and diminishing effects of fertility choices can positively affect women's participation in the labor market, with significant differences witnessed in different institutional and welfare settings across EU countries. Concerning Turkey, there have been some policies and changes over the last decade that have reduced gender inequality and provided opportunities for women to participate in the Turkish labor market. Nevertheless, the growth within this period is still low in comparison with other developed EU countries.

In other literature related to women employment in Turkey, education has become an essential factor that influences the female labor participation in Turkey (Er, 2013; Önder, 2013; Kılıç and Öztürk, 2014; Inan and Aşık, 2015). Therefore, it is crucial to analyze women's employment with respect to the perceived gender inequality in education and how it influences the growth of female labor participation. Tansel (2002) has previously evaluated the rate of female involvement in Turkey through time-series evidence of cross-provincial determinants. He discovered that female education strongly and positively affects female labor participation. He equally found there were regional disparities in female labor force participation. According to his results, Central Anatolia, Southeast Anatolia, East Anatolia and the Mediterranean had lower rates of female participation than Marmara, while the Black Sea had higher rates of female participation. Nevertheless, Aegean and Marmara had almost the same (in the participating female labor force). In a different study by Rankin and Aytac (2006), it was observed that the gender differences in schooling depend primarily on the level of urbanization across provinces on a macro-structural level.

Beyond education, Turkey's reluctant growth in female labor participation may also be influenced by the patriarchal family beliefs that remain dominant in Turkey. According to Caner et al. (2015), reforms fail to increase the participation of females in schools, even with the perceived reduction in school dropout rates across the country. The study used data from 1998 to 2003 from the Turkish demographic and healthy surveys to observe the effects of the 1997 education reform. They equally noted that even in cases where the mother's views on gender roles were expressed, the reductions in school dropout rates were almost the same for girls and boys.

A different study by Filiztekin and Karahasan (2015) also provides insights into the spatial dimensions of gender inequality in education in Turkey. This study used district-level data from 1990 to 2020, and findings indicated that different societal segments had varying levels of improvement. They also confirmed the theory, and the rural populations negatively affected female education. Therefore, the female population and rural population were observed as the most disadvantaged individuals, leading to the highest spatial spillovers as observed among these significantly unequal groups of the society. At some point in the past decade,

the government in Turkey embraced secularism and began enacting policies and changing curriculums to boost gender equality in educational systems across the country (Çimen and Bayhan, 2018).

More recently, the government has significantly diminished Turkey's improvements in educational sectors through an overarching curriculum reform that barely touches on women's rights and gender roles and equally states almost nothing on equality (The Educational Reform Initiative, 2016–2017).

In 2012, Turkey ranked among countries with the most profound gender gaps, according to the World Economic Forum Gender Gap Report. This report ranks countries using four key factors: health and life expectancy, political participation, educational attainment and economic participation and opportunities (Hausmann et al., 2012). In 2018, these figures remained alarming as Turkey ranked 130th out of 149 countries, making the country one of the worst states for wage inequality. The gender inequality problem in emerging countries is disturbing. Between 2013 and 2015, these figures improved, but owing to the changes made by the present government, this figure has plunged, leading to the status quo of the 2018 Gender Gap Index (World Economic Forum, 2018).

Nevertheless, further research observed that when women seek educational accomplishments, their fertility rates decreased, which also positively influenced infant mortality rates, improved quality of childcare and augmented educational opportunities for girls. Unfortunately, the number of Turkish women attaining higher educational achievements is low when compared to their counterparts.

The TÜİK Research in 2018 provides data on literacy levels in Turkey: 3.5 percent of men over the age of 15 are illiterate, whereas 6.8 percent of women in the same age group are illiterate. Therefore, one in every ten women in Turkey is illiterate, with educational attainments for women diminishing after elementary school, which further confirms the gender gap in educational accomplishments and opportunities (TÜİK, 2018). Other research in 2017 further highlights that for every 100 Turkish women holding a college degree, there are over 158 Turkish men with similar degrees. Nevertheless, the TÜİK research equally highlights that the majority of women in urban areas have at least a high school degree, whereas only 18 percent in the rural areas have comparable degrees.

Women's participation in labor markets is widely acknowledged as a necessity for development. Unfortunately, for Turkey, there have been regular fluctuations in the years past. In 1990, 34 percent of women participated in the labor market, but these rates decreased to 30.6 percent in 2000 and to 25.4 percent in 2004. In 2009, the rates increased to 26.1 percent and had so far expanded to 34.9 percent – a figure attained in 2019. Nevertheless, it is also important to note that over 91.2 percent of women who participated in the labor market have access to social protection.

It is equally important to note that Turkey in 2003 passed an employment law forbidding the differentiation of pay scales by gender. However, these laws were not enforced, and so the gender-based discrimination continues, leading to culturally segregated employment opportunities and gender-based layoffs whenever there is an economic crisis in Turkey.



Naturally, Turkey has also undergone several structural and legal changes over the years, especially concerning its commitment to achieving economic development. These ongoing developments have also helped increase awareness in women about their rights to participate in all aspects of modern society. Nevertheless, many of the reforms in Turkey have failed to provide full cooperation, and some of the reforms in the most recent years have led to further restrictions in traditional gender roles (Köroğlu, 2006).

According to Dökmen (2006), gender inequality is an impediment to achieving a truly democratic and modern society. This means that societies with unequal opportunities for men and women to access all aspects of society limit the growth of real democracy. Therefore, Turkey falls within this unfortunate class of societies because family responsibilities, access to education, participation in labor markets and politics are not fully granted to women. Thus, the Turkish women's labor market has significantly declined over the years and therefore demonstrates an urgent situation that must be addressed. In that regard, the first step to overcoming all impediments is gender equality in education. With education, women will be less eager to procreate unscrupulously and will push for quality health care and education for their children. All of this will, in turn, transform the labor force into a more productive outlay and strongly impact the growth of the economy.

There have been many notable reforms and movements toward eradicating gender inequality in Brazil for the past ten years. However, the impacts are still insignificant, and gender inequality is still considerably high. Nevertheless, the country has successfully enacted policies to reduce the rate of women's illiteracy and created programs that would help improve the lives of women within lower-income positions. However, even as the government has been striving to improve labor force participation within the last ten years, the number of women entering the labor market remains low, and so the effects of these programs and policies are hardly felt. 2014's estimates of women representation were about 43.8 percent of the overall labor force, while the numbers for 2000 and 2005, respectively, were about 41.2 percent and 43 percent (World Economic Forum, 2014). Nevertheless, statistics also show that 24.7 percent of the total female population had part-time jobs, while 59.4 percent participated fully. Furthermore, studies also showed that the effects of "Bolsa Familia" on participation within the official labor market were insignificant, and it also had small but significant negative effects within the informal labor market. Therefore, even as the gender gap decreased across informal and formal sections of the Brazilian labor market, there have been higher gaps within unexplained dimensions of the market. For instance, in 2001, the unexplained areas within the formal sector were 33 percent of the overall 34.9 percent (11.6 percentage points), and, in 2010, the numbers are at about 45 percent (9.86 percentage points). Within the informal sector, unexplained proportions were about 75 percent in 2001 (35.1 percentage), but those numbers rose to about 84 percent (30.5 percentage points) in 2011 (Almeida and Packard, 2018). According to Cameron and Suarez (2018), educational attainment is one of the driving forces of these differences and further explains the enormous wage disparities within the informal and formal sectors. Additionally, Cameron and Suarez



(2018) sheds insights on the prevalence of “sticky floors” as one of the pressing issues affecting the kind of wages most women earn. The lowest deciles of the wage distribution had the largest gender wage disparities, which decreased over the other sides of the dispersion, within the formal and informal sectors.

South Africa also had receding numbers in gender wage disparities, which was 16 percent in 2014 as compared to 40 percent in 1993. However, this decline only happened between 1993 and 2007, but has been in the same position of 16 percent for a long time now. On further analysis, the rate of expanded unemployment (without adding the number of job searches) even increased to 37.2 percent in 2018, whereas it was about 30.9 percent in 2008. Within these periods, rates for women are greater than those for men. Rates for female unemployment in 2018 was about 29.5 percent as against 25.3 percent for the male population, going by formal unemployment definitions. However, concerning expanded definitions, women had over 7.5 percentage points higher unemployment rates when compared to men (Stats, 2018). Therefore, the present study aims to critically assess the principal drivers of the gender gap in employment within South Africa, Turkey, Indonesia and Brazil. The study is necessary for discovering the right policies that can revolutionize the emerging global market to promote gender equality.

## **Method**

This section provides insights on analytical measurements carried out on the determining factor of gender equality driving emerging employment systems. The present study uses data from 1990 to 2019 to analyze the fundamental features of gender equality in employment in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey.

The dependent variable is the ratio of female to male employees for the age group 15–64 over the period (in percentage) and stands for gender equality in employment. Therefore, ratio specifies the gender gap. Thus, value increments would mean improvements in gender equality. The economic development, as well as other control variables, serves as independent variables.

### ***Dependent variable***

Gender equality is the dependent variable in this study and is calculated using the methodological observations put in place by the United Nations for evaluating the GDI (Gender Development Index). Nevertheless, the UN equally designed the GDI to include the HDI (Human Development Index). On this account, the UN’s HDI measures standard of living, longevity, education and health. Therefore, the GDI is a useful tool as it also evaluates life expectancy, income access and education.

### ***Independent variables***

**Economic development:** The nation’s real gross domestic product (GDP) per capita and the squared version of real GDP per capita are jointly used for the representation of economic development. Therefore, the study will

uncover the relationship between gender equality and economic development and the extent of this relationship. The real GDP growth rate will also be used on separate terms to determine the possibilities of an economic decline or slowdown and how it affects gender equality.

**Infrastructure:** Recent innovations have shown that infrastructural developments are the way of the future. However, women (especially those in a rural setting) have to spend an enormous amount of time carrying out household chores. Due to the massive amount of time spent on household chores, which significantly reduces the time spent in the labor market, infrastructure is key to a significant turnaround. Providing infrastructures such as access to energy, transport, childcare centers and ICT infrastructure can diminish the amount of time spent away from the labor force. It has equally been confirmed that when innovations help women streamline processes, it empowers these women, in turn, opening opportunities for growth in the economy and breaking down information barricades. It can also help women come together to take collective actions and bring about more development to society.

**Democracy:** Democracy is also an essential variable in the present study because true democracy demands equal political opportunities for men and women. This is because it is assumed that when societies practice real democracy, they have a higher respect for the rights of humanity and, by extension, women's rights as opposed to authoritarian systems. In the present study, the Polity IV index ranges from  $-10$  to  $+10$  and is used as a proxy. In the same vein, the "consolidated democracy" is given the code  $+10$ , while hereditary monarchy is coded as  $-10$ . The study tests the relationship between gender equality and democracy from 1990 to 2019 in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey. It is potentially possible that because democratic countries encourage female employment, more profound levels of freedom should augment and dynamically push equality.

**Gender empowerment:** The present study uses the UN's gender empowerment measure (GEM) in revised form to analyze the relative significance between political and professional arenas in explaining the differences between GI and GDI. The GEM has three main components: the share of women in parliamentary seats, the share of women in earned income and the relative weight of women in administrative and professional positions. According to the United Nations, the values range from 0.120 as low for Niger to a high of 0.810 for Norway. These data is available for over 102 countries since 1999. In this study, only two components are used in measuring GEM as an indicator of women's empowerment. These two components include the share of women of parliamentary seats and the relative weight of women in administrative and professional positions. This adjustment is made because the GDI measure for this study already contains the third component (share of women in earned income).

**Macroeconomic stabilization:** The domestic investment rate and the inflation rate are used to evaluate macroeconomic stabilization. According to some experts, inflation may not harm women in lower-earning positions; further, still, inflation may encourage women to take part actively. Therefore, it is expected that macroeconomic stabilization positively influences gender equality in employment. The other indicator, the nation's domestic investment rate, is evaluated (a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP). Higher investment rates mean the government has more resources at its disposal to establish social and economic problems, including problems for employment creations.

**Education:** Education is also an independent variable in this study. It is based on the premise that education can shape one's perceptions and reduce incidents of patriarchy, thereby eliminating rigid norms and customs. The level of education can also help the general population accept and understand gender equality dynamics. Therefore, women with a higher level of training will have more top motivations to become active participants in the economy's development and aim for higher earnings and opportunities.

## Model

Macroeconomic data sets come from TÜİK, WHO, WDI, UNDP, GEM, ILO for selected countries. The Gender Equality Index is taken from World Bank's Online database, except democracy from the Polity IV Project Online (2016) and democracy that is from the Eurostat.

The equation for gender equality in employment evaluation is written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \log GE_{it} = & \alpha_i + \beta_1 \log(RGDP_{it}) + \beta_2 \log(RGDP_{it}^2) + \beta_3 \log(INFRUST_{it}) + \beta_4 \\ & (DEMOC_{it}) + \beta_5 (DEMOC_{it}^2) + \beta_6 (X_{it}) + \beta_7 (Z_{it}) + \epsilon_{it} \\ & (i = 1, \dots, N; 1, \dots, T) \end{aligned}$$

Where

- GE is the measure of gender equality in the selected countries at time t.
- $\beta_1$  is the elasticity of gender equality concerning real per capita income  $\alpha_i$  is the fixed effect representing differences between countries.
- $\beta_2$  is the gender equality elasticity with respect to RGDP (quadratic real per capita GDP).
- $\beta_3$  refers to the flexibility of gender equality concerning INFRUST (infrastructure).
- $\beta_4$  represents the coefficient of DOME (democracy).
- $\beta_5$  represents the coefficient of democracy's quadratic.
- $\beta_6$  is the coefficient of gender empowerment measure.
- $\beta_7$  is the coefficient of independent variables.

- X is the control variables, including the share of women in parliamentary seats, the share of women in earned income and the relative weight of women in administrative and professional positions.
- Z represents the independent variable and includes inf (inflation), (% of GDP) (inv) (domestic investment), popg (growth rate of the population), urban (urban population share) and educ (secondary school enrolment ratio).
- $\varepsilon$  is an error term that includes errors in the gender equality measure.

## Results and analysis

Table 1.1 shows the outcomes of using the equations of employment to estimate gender equality (1) in the model; real GDP per capita's coefficient is observed as statistically significant and negative. The squared real GDP is utilized as an explanatory variable to test the hypothesis of this study that real GDP is significantly improving gender equality in employment. The quadratic term was observed as affirmative and substantial at the 5 percent level. This was the same for the coefficient of infrastructure variable. It means that gender equality in employment can improve strategically with improvements in infrastructural levels. These results provide a relationship between gender equality in employment and real

*Table 1.1* Ordinary Least Squares Estimates of the Determinants of Gender Equality

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Countries' Values</i>
Log of Real GDP per capita	-4.817 (-2.54***)
Log of Real GDP per capita <sup>2</sup>	1.614 (1.98**)
Democracy	0.931 (3.59**)
Democracy <sup>2</sup>	0.136 (2.21**)
Inflation (%)	-1.491 (-4.18**)
Domestic investment (%GDP)	0.691 (2.21**)
Urban population share (%)	0.547(5.38***)
Population growth (%)	0.343 (2.06**)
Infrastructure	0.419 (2.41***)
Gender equality in education	0.169 (4.83***)
Women in parliamentary seats share (%)	2.387 (1.94**)
Women in earned income share (%)	0.441 (2.68***)
Weight of women in administrative and professional positions share (%)	0.214 (1.84*)
Adjusted R-squared	0.8703
F-statistic	69.12
Prob>F	0.0000
N	21

Source: Author's estimations

Note: t-values are in parentheses; \*\*\* = 1% significant level; \*\* = 5% significant level; \* = 10% significant level.

GDP per capita. Nevertheless, greater levels of real GDP per capita also negatively related to gender equality in work, but that effect is not constant.

Democracy is also statistically significant and positive. The quadratic variable for democracy is equally positive and statistically significant, which indicates that GE (gender equality) and true democratic practices work together. In addition, gender empowerment can also positively affect or lead to higher levels of gender equality. Rising inflation can also bring about profound levels of GE, as observed in the results of this study. These findings may be explained with the following scenarios. More women can be motivated to enter the labor market to seek supplemental earnings when real wages are reduced.

Increasing urbanization rates are found to be positively associated with increasing gender equality in employment in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey. As seen in Table 1.1, this effect is statistically significant at the 1 percent level. The results show that a 1 percentage point increase in urbanization rate is associated with a 0.55 percentage point increase in gender equality in employment in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey. Furthermore, our results suggest that rising population growth rates have a statistically significant effect on gender equality in employment in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey. These results support the positive results of Eastin and Prakash (2013) for gender gaps in labor force participation.

Gender equality in education has positive and statistically significant (at 1 percent level) association with gender equality in employment. A 1 percentage point increase in gender equality in education enrollment is associated with a 0.17 percentage point increase in gender equality in employment in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey as a whole. This supports the hypothesis that education increases people's awareness of cultures and social norms that exist in industrial countries where women are, in most circumstances, entitled to the same freedoms and opportunities as those extended to men (Chen, 2004).

Nevertheless, the rate of domestic investment is also found to be positive and significant in relation to gender equality. To explain these findings, it is vital to assess the impacts of efficient and effective policies as well as well-selected target requirements and audience associated with primary investment projects. The effect of education on gender equality is also substantial and is observed to drive gender equality positively. Therefore, education can provide platforms to transform existing cultural and social norms to see the importance of granting equal opportunities to men and women.

## **Conclusion and policy recommendations**

Gender inequality is a multidimensional problem and can only be solved by implementing strategies that cut across all macro and micro factors influencing the prevalence of this issue; therefore, suggestions for development require lengthy periods for complete implementation. As developing countries, Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey must deal with their gender inequality issues to attain significant growth.