

Davut Han Aslan, Deniz Doğanay
Akademia Finansów i Biznesu Vistula – Warszawa

MEASURING GENDER EQUALITY. A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SWEDEN AND TURKEY

Summary

Gender equality is one of the key elements of human rights and sustainable development. This research paper aims to address a comparative study of how the three important factors: political, economic, and social inclusion affect gender equality and inequality in Sweden and Turkey. In the 2017 Global Gender Gap Report, which assigns a number from 0 (gender inequality) to 1 (gender equality), Sweden ranks in the top five percent of the 144 countries assessed for gender equality, with a score of 0.816 (5 of 144), whereas Turkey ranks in the lower half with a score of 0.625 (131 of 144). Although there are legal regulations in the political, economic, and social areas related to gender equality in the world, implementation is also difficult. The aim of this project is to understand how the gender equality movement progressed in Sweden and Turkey to match.

Key words: Gender equality, Sweden, Turkey, Political participation, Economic participation, Social participation.

JEL codes: F5

Introduction

Gender equality has been conceptualized in three different ways, which relate to different strategies or policies used within politics. The most important one, which is implemented by the Swedish Ministry of Health and Social Affairs (2015), is focused on 10 explicating, in all established norms and standards, of what is, or should be, female or male (Verloo 2007). This conceptualization is also called gender mainstreaming. However, feminist scholars have criticized it for the reason that it is excluding women's minorities. Furthermore, it was criticized for being based on the idea that both men and women have common interests and form homogenous groups (Borchorst & Siim 2008). Therefore, in this paper our understanding of gender equality will be broader. We will include a focus on politics, economic and social inclusion, because the policies within gender equality have these intertwined axes of identity. Gender equality not only deals with economical and judicial equal rights for men and women, within a heteronormative framework. It includes the public and private sphere,

as well as, equal rights for minorities, like, for example, LGBT and immigrants (Ibid.). Sweden has been known for its gender equality policies and has been presented as an example within Europe (Borchorst & Siim 2008; Hübinette & Lundström 2011). Sweden takes part in the discourse on “women-friendliness”, where gender equality becomes part of the national identity (Mulinari & Neergaard 2013; Kantola 2014). In Turkey, the debate on gender equality is less directly public.

The aim of the paper is to compare and analysis the role gender equality playing politically, economically and socially in both Turkey and Sweden. The thesis researches, analyses, and discusses gender equality in Sweden and Turkey. It is a comparative study of these two countries, examining the status of women’s political, economic, and social inclusion in both Sweden and Turkey. There are many studies in the literature about gender equality but there is no comparing of Sweden and Turkey. In this paper, the current situation in Turkey was intended to be shown as Turkey, which is far behind on gender equality, compared Sweden which is developed country and represent superiority of gender equality. Secondly, the political, economic and social participation levels of the two countries have been tried to be understood. Based on the presented literature, this study will analyze the following research hypotheses:

1. Sweden can be regarded as a forerunner in achieving gender equality, therefore, Turkey can take example it.
2. Today, although Sweden is better than Turkey in terms of gender equality, both countries have gone through a similar process of gender equality.

This study will analyze and try to answer the following research questions which are supported by several sub-questions to facilitate the research.

1. How has the gender equality movement progressed in Sweden and Turkey to date?
2. What is the outlook on the condition of gender equality in both Sweden and Turkey?
3. How can the existing barriers be eliminated?

This research will use different methodologies with an aim to a comparative case study. The two cases offer an opportunity to employ Mills Method of Agreement to understand the gender equality outcomes achieved by women’s in Sweden and Turkey, consider factors supporting or impeding targeting gender equality policies. The qualitative method was used for collecting information in depth on historical research and content analysis for development of gender equality. There is some previous research about gender equality in Sweden and Turkey, but studies are not enough in English language. In order to conduct the comparative research, the thesis will include historical and statistical evidence from databases including those of the World Economic Forum (which produced the Global Gender Gap Report of 2015 – 2017), Ministry of

Education and Research (Swedish), Swedish National Mediation Office, Swedish Higher Education Authority (UKÄ), The Swedish Crime Survey (SCS or Nationella trygghetsundersökningen – NTU – in Swedish), Turkish Statistical Institute, The Council of Higher Education (Turkish), Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family and Social Policies and Hacettepe University. To accumulate sufficient data and information about the subject, primary and secondary literature were analyzed. Moreover, books, journals, and articles, reports, and public documents, institutional research websites (e.g. from the European Commission) have been examined. These resources will help to provide insight for the comparative study between Sweden and Turkey. Literature selection based on reading as the articles and books frequently includes cross-references to other authors.

History of Gender Equality Movement

Gender equality is a rather new phenomenon. Throughout history, up until the 19th century, women were treated as inferior to men in all areas of life. The movement for gender equality is an intellectual, political, economic and social struggle for changing the relationship between men and women which proceeded in three major phases. The First Wave took place in the late 19th and early 20th centuries with women in the UK, USA, Australia and New Zealand actively pushing for gender equality, establishing new traditions and encouraging feminism in mothers to pass the movement's achievements onto the next generations. March 11, 1911 marks the first celebration of the International Women's Day in Austria, Denmark, Germany and Switzerland. On that day more than a million people participated in rallies for women's rights to vote, hold public office, gain professional training, enter the labor market and participate in it without gender-based discrimination. (Walker, 1995) The Second Wave began after World War 2 with broader objectives which included combating discrimination in employment, pay and education, and reproductive rights. On June 26, 1945 gender equality was recognized in the United Nations Charter which was the first international body to promote the movement's principles in its 6 founding document. The following year, the UN also established the Commission on the Status for Women which passed a number of conventions aimed at promoting gender equality: Convention on the Political Rights of Women, adopted by the General Assembly (1952); the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women, (1957), the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1962); and the Recommendation on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1965). On June 19 – July 2, 1975 the UN's First World Conference on Women was held in Mexico City where a World Plan of Action was developed and put into place to achieve

a number of objectives set out for the following decade (1976-1985) which the UN proclaimed the Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. In 1979 the UN adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) which is referred to as an international bill of rights for women. The convention clearly defines discrimination and set out obligations for member countries to end it. As of 2015, it was the second most ratified UN human rights treaty which was ratified by 189 countries around the world (Giuliano 2014) The Third Wave of the struggle for gender equality began in the late 1980s and focus on expanding the objectives to include black and minority women, lower social classes and lesbian, bisexual and transgender women. Between September 5-13, 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development was held in Cairo, Egypt. The event marks an important milestone on the way towards gender equality as it was the first time when reproductive health was included in an international policy document. The Programme of Action outlined two hundred guidelines for family planning, safe pregnancy and delivery, prevention and treatment of sexually transmitted diseases and abolishment of harmful practices against women. The following year, on September 4-15, the Fourth World Conference on Women was held in Beijing, China which addressed issues such as human 7 rights, poverty, gender-based discrimination and violence, economic inclusion of women and had Hillary Clinton famously proclaim women's rights as human rights (Fernández 2014).

Gender Equality in the World

After centuries of struggle for gender equality, discrimination and inequality of women still remains a largely unaddressed problem across the world. This situation is best reflected in numbers. Currently, less than a quarter of all parliamentary seats worldwide are held by women, while two-thirds of illiterate adults are women. Despite the female sex constituting slightly more than 50% of the total global population, only 14 of the 200 governments worldwide are led by women which constitutes merely 7% (Kamrany & Robinson 2012).

- Despite substantial progress the world has made since it first recognized the problem and started dealing with it, gender inequality remains a critical issue and the scale of the problem is still large, especially in regions like North Africa and Middle East where the situation is the most challenging. Women around the world are confronted with a systematic denial of rights where legal discrimination leaves them inferior to their male counterparts. There are many different ways in which this gender-based denial of fundamental human rights finds a manifestation. Examples of discrimination based on gender include, among others, situations related to:

- Restraining mobility – forbidding women from driving in Saudi Arabia or restriction on travel in e. g. Egypt where women require a permission to leave the country granted by a husband.
- Freedom of marriage – almost a half of women in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia get married before they reach the age of 18 years old with child marriage leading to often fatal consequences like death during labour. Arranged marriage e.g. in Pakistan often resulting in so called “honour killings” of women refusing a forced marriage constitutes another example. Such killings often remained unaddressed by authorities.
- Divorce rights – in societies which view men as superior to women, men can divorce their wives easily, sometimes by simple oral renunciation. Women, however, face many more difficulties. One such example is Lebanon, when abused women have no right to file for divorce unless they have an eyewitness willing to testify.
- Military – while allowed to participate in the army, women are often still not permitted to serve in frontline combat, e.g. in Turkey and Slovakia. Up until as recently as 2016, this gender inequality persisted in the United Kingdom as well.
- Custody rights – with family laws not systematized in many countries, mothers are often denied custody of their children and left without any means of financial support as it is the case in e.g. Bahrain.
- Violence – women in many parts of the world remain exposed to sexual subjugation and violence of which the most obvious form is spousal rape. For instance, in India rape laws do not apply to married couples.
- Professional and economic opportunities – high-paying job remain dominated by men around the world. Women earn on average 77% of what men earn for doing the same amount of work in the same jobs. This is a prevailing trend even in the most developed countries.
- Land ownership – legal systems of many countries prohibit land ownership by women altogether. Often while allowed to acquire land, women are required by law to have their husband’s approval. This is the case for example in Zambia or Tanzania.
- Access to education – women constitute two-thirds of illiterate adults in the world.

Groups opposing female education in e.g. Afghanistan attack schools in protest. Access to education is one of the most important aspects in combating gender equality as it is lack of awareness of what women are entitled to what compromises women’s rights in the first place (McCune 2014).

As illustrated by the above examples of gender-based discrimination, the problem of gender equality is a complex one and it finds a reflection in

many different areas of life. Therefore, it cannot be simplified to aspects such as economic or political rights only.

The Global Gender Gap Index, which was first developed in 2006, measures gender-based disparities across countries by conducting a quantitative analysis of data regarding economic participation and opportunities, education, political empowerment, health, life expectancy and sex ratio worldwide. The analysis conducted annually allows for ranking countries on their ability to close the gender gap and is aimed to increase awareness of the problem globally. Although the index only captures inequality in certain but not all areas of women's lives, it is a powerful tool for not only comparing regions but also pinpointing the areas where the problem is burning and designing effective measures for reducing gender equality gap.

Last year's edition of the report covered 144 countries across the world and, while it has recorded a substantial progress in comparison to the previous year – 96% of the gap in health outcomes and 95% of the gap in education attainment between women and men have been closed, it also revealed that only 58% of the economic participation gap and 23% of the political gap have been closed which constitutes a reversed trend in the former case and an impasse in the latter case. While at the global level the picture is mixed, and the progress appears to be stalled, on the regional and country level, 82 out of 144 countries have recorded progress in closing the gender gap as compared to the previous year. A number of these countries have made substantial progress on the way to gender equality for the first time. However, the same time 60 countries have recorded a regress. Regions with the smallest gender gap to close are Western Europe (25%), North America (28%), Eastern Europe and Central Asia (29) and Latin America and the Caribbean (29.8%). Moreover, the report also points out that if the current trends persist, it will take exactly 100 years from now to close the remaining overall gender gap which is a slowdown in comparison to the previous year when this period was estimated at 83 years. Prospects within the economic gender gap remain the least promising – closing the gender gap in this field is estimated to take as long as 217 years (*The Global Gender Gap Report 2017*).

Gender Equality in Sweden

Every year, the international organization World Economic Forum ranks more than 140 countries based on the gap between women and men according to indicators within health, education, economy and politics. Since 2006, Sweden has never ranked lower than fifth in this ranking. However, based on the calculations made by the Global Gender Gap Report, global gender equality gap still will not be closed until 2095. As of the latest report, Sweden ranked

fifth after Iceland, Norway, Finland and Rwanda, and has managed to close 80% of its gender equality gap within the category of economic participation and opportunities in which it ranked 12th worldwide. As for educational attainment it ranked 37th and 8th within the category of political empowerment. Ranking 112th within the category of health and survival, Sweden faces a challenge of reforming healthcare to meet the standards for a truly gender-equal society and narrow the widening gap in healthy life expectancy (*The Global Gender Gap Report 2017*).

Political participation

The women in Sweden obtained their voting rights in 1921. Initially, their representation in the parliament was relatively small but kept increasing steadily and reached 10% in 1957. As of the 1990s, women constituted about 40% of the Swedish parliament, currently 152 out of 349 members of the parliament are women which makes 44%. As for the government, both men and women hold equal number of seats. This relative balance of genders in the Swedish policies has been reached voluntarily and without resorting to the movement of gender equality. In the last few decades it has become a general practice executed by political parties according to which every other candidate running in the election is a woman. The main motivation for this state of affairs is the public opinion and expectations of the voters.

Economic participation

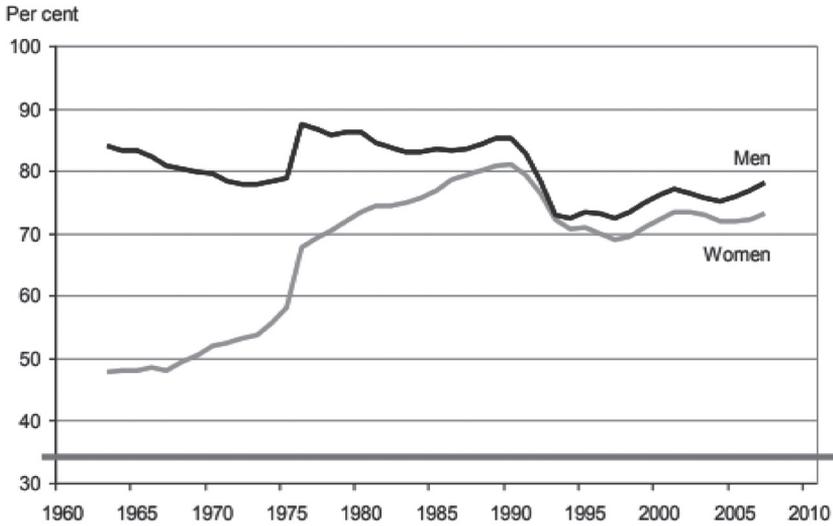
In the 1970s, the process of complete integration of the Swedish society began within the labour market. The foundation for this process was a bill introduced in 1939 which outlawed firing women from their jobs because of marriage or pregnancy. This period of integration was characterized by rapid growth of employment among women in Sweden. In regard to social security, a system for family benefits was developed.

In 1980, a liberal government passed the first bill on gender equality. In the first stages of the integration of the Swedish society on the labor market, women more often took part-time jobs (around 50% of all working women). Currently around 30% of women in Sweden work part-time (less than 35 hours a week). Moreover, there are gender-based discrepancies with respect to the different sectors of the Swedish economy. Nowadays, most women work in the public sector (85%) while men dominate the private sector (85%) (Numhauser-Henning 2015).

The below chart illustrates the rate of employment for both genders in Sweden in the period between 1965-2005. It clearly shows the progress the

country has made over the last half a century narrowing the gender gap in the labor market from almost 40% down to around 5%.

Figure 1. The dynamics of employment of men and women in Sweden between 1965 -2005.



Source: Hagelberg (2014).

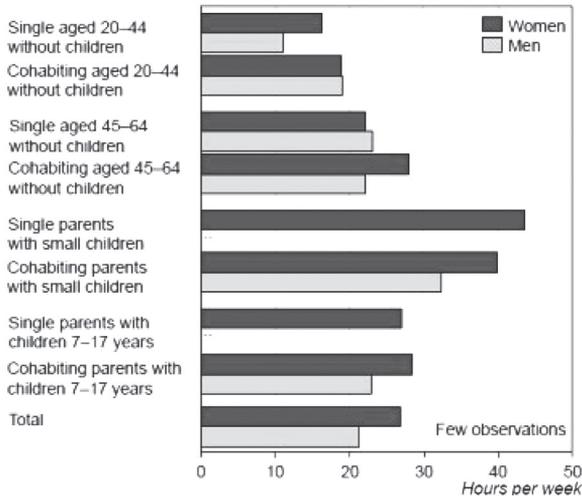
Gender equality in terms of employment in Sweden is regulated by regional authorities. Based on the European Union's directives, any form of discrimination – both indirect and direct – is illegal. The rules for dealing with discrimination and harassment (including sexual harassment) have also been formally put in place. All employers giving jobs to 25 or more people are obliged to develop a plan for the promotion of gender equality every 3 years.

In terms of differences in remuneration based on gender in Sweden, “[a]ccording to the Swedish National Mediation Office annual report, the 2013 GPG (Gender Pay Gap) for the economy as a whole was 13.9%, somewhat below the average EU figure. Taking into account differences in occupation, sector, age, education and working hours, the overall unexplained standard weighting GPG is 6.1%. The GPG varies considerably from sector to sector, though: women’s pay is 8.6% lower than men’s in the non-manual private sector, while it is only 2.3% lower in the manual private sector. The smallest gender imbalance is found in the municipal sector, where women’s pay is only 0.6% lower than that of men”. (Swedish National Mediation Office 2013)

A study on time management based on gender conducted in Sweden revealed that women work on average one hour longer than men every day without getting paid. On the other hand, men spend on average 1.5 hour longer in paid jobs every day. However, this trend has been declining (Hagelberg 2014).

The figure below gives data on the time spent doing unpaid work in the years 2010/2011 by Swedish people aged 20-64.

Figure 2. Time spent doing unpaid work for Swedish persons aged 20-64 by life cycle



Source: Hagelberg (2014).

Sweden has one of the most generous maternity & paternity leave systems in the world. In Sweden, the maternity leave is up to 480 days. Maternity allowance is not provided by employer. It comes from the Swedish Social Insurance Agency. Thus, employers are prevented from reengage on from labor due to reasons of birth.

As a result of demographic changes related to the phenomenon of ageing of the population, Sweden made a reform to the basic retirement program in the late 1990s. Based on the reform, all people working or living in Sweden are covered by insurance. Parents working part-time or staying at home to take care of children below the age of four years old are entitled to the retirement in the same amount as calculated from their income before the child was born (Numhauser-Henning 2015). On the other hand, Sweden is a country that arranges for evenings, weekends and public holidays by considering working parents. Child care in Sweden is also seen as part of social policy. In 2007, the rate of utilization of nursery, kindergarten or home care services for children 1-3 years of age is 78%, 98% for 4-5 year old children, 80% for 6-9 year old children and 12% for 10-12 year old children. Sweden has surpassed Barcelona's goals in childcare with these rates¹.

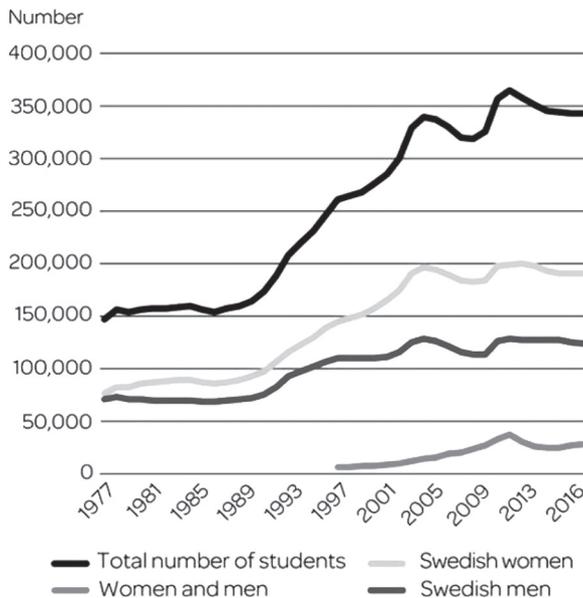
¹ <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=2479&langId=en> [access: 15.07.2018].

Social participation

Sweden is often considered one of the most gender-equal countries in the world and held up as a model to follow, but the reality, as illustrated by some of the abovementioned data, is more complex. One field in which the movement for gender equality in Sweden is successful, is education. As of 2015, almost a half (47%) of Swedish women had at least two years of tertiary education while this percentage for men amounted to 33%. The proportion of women getting a higher education in Sweden started increasing after the 1977 education reform which incorporated programmes into higher education in which women predominate. Currently, there are more women than men among students in higher education in Sweden. This ration has been more or less the same in the last years and amounts to around 60% for women and 40% for men.

The figure below gives an overview of the number of students who registered for first- and second-cycle courses and programmes for each autumn semester between 1977 and 2016. While four decades ago the number of female and male Swedish students was roughly the same, at the turn of the millennium the number of women enrolling in higher education programmes rocketed much faster than it did for men and this trend keeps persisting ever since.

Figure 3. Number of students registered in first- and second-cycle courses and programs each autumn semester 1977–2016

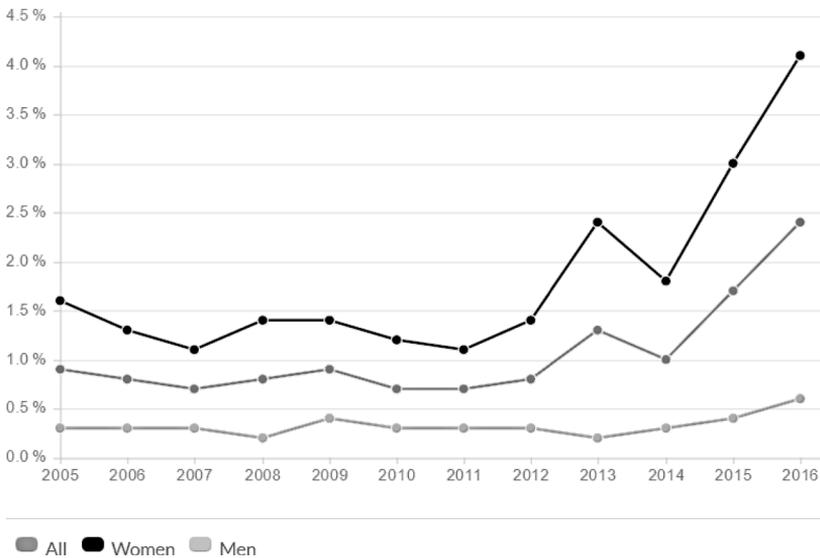


Source: Swedish Higher Education Authority UKA.

In contrast to these promising numbers stands the Swedish rape and sexual assault rate which is among the highest in the world even though Sweden banned rape as early as in the 1250s. The below figure gives the percentage of people exposed to sexual violence in Sweden between 2005 and 2016. As illustrated by the chart, this percentage has been growing rapidly in the last three years and currently amounts to over 4% of the population of which 2.5% are women.

In Sweden, every assault is categorized as a separate crime which is not the case in many other countries and may be the reason for Sweden’s high numbers in this field.

Figure 4. Exposure in the population (16-79 years of age) to sexual offences in Sweden between 2005 and 2016



Source: National Crime Survey – NTU.

Taking all of the above into consideration, it can be concluded that Sweden belongs to the countries which can boast about one of the highest level of gender equality in its society. The Swedish policy of gender equality is based on the conviction that when both men and women share power and influence equally, the society is characterized by a higher level of democracy and justice. A well-developed system of social security makes it easier for both genders to successfully balance professional and family life.

Gender Equality in Turkey

In research of World Economic Forum, gender inequality is growing even more it will be reduced. According to the report, Turkey ranked 131th out of 140 countries in 2017. According to the report; young women are in a better position to reach education than in the past, but they do not choose science, mathematics and computer departments at university. Emphasizing that women earned an average of 15 percent less than men, OECD countries have been one of the key findings that girls and young girls in the OECD countries have caught men in terms of access to educational opportunities but are still lagging men in their working lives.

Political participation

Turkish women have obtained the right to choose and be elected, under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk. In 1930, with the 1580th law, women were given the right to be elected and elected for the first time in the municipal elections. By Law No. 2349, dated October 26, 1933, women have the right to be elected and elected to village councils and being a mukhtar. Finally, on December 5, 1934, every citizen of male and female who had completed 22 years of age was granted the right to elect a deputy and to elect a deputy for every citizen of male and female who were 30 years old. Women who also used the right to be elected for the first time in the February 8, 1935 elections were represented by 18 deputies in Parliament. At present, a total of 74 out of 537 women have seats in National Assembly. According to the 2015 Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum, when the international criteria are taken into consideration, the number of Turkish women is insufficient to make a political decision.

Economic participation

Turkey ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of United Nations in 1985. (United Nations, UN Treaties) It participated United Nations Fourth World Conference on Woman and it signed the Beijing Declaration and the Action Plan without any reservations in 1995. On the other hand, Turkey is a party to the following conventions of International Labour Organisation about equality of women and men: Equal Remuneration Convention, 1967 (No. 100), Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1967 (No. 111), Human Resources Development Convention, 1993 (No. 142).

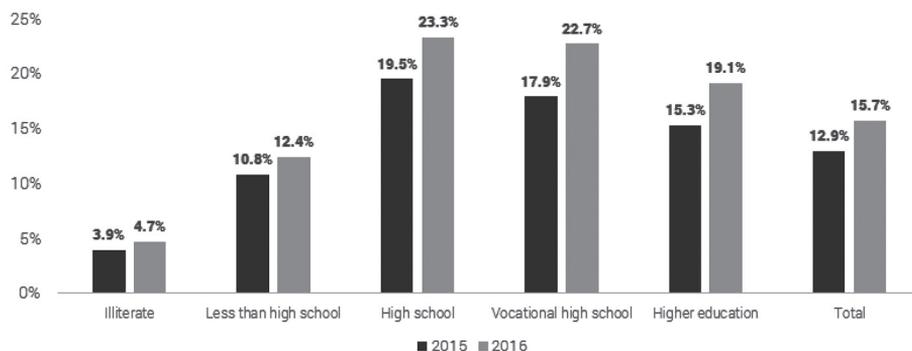
When economic participation and opportunity is considered, Turkey fall behind the world countries as follows: labor force participation, wage equality

for similar work, estimated earned income, legislators, senior officials and managers, professional and technical workers. (*Global Gender Gap Report 2017*).

The first important data on the employment of women in Turkey are the results of Industrial Census in 1927. In the following years, institutions which covered by the Industrial Promotion Law, which issued in 1927 and in force until 1942, provides data statistics on women’s labor. In Turkey, female employment rate is less than half of male’s employment rate. The household labor force survey results show that; the employment rate of population aged 15 and over was 46.3%, this rate was 65.1% for males and 28% for females in 2016 (Turkish Statistical Institute Women in Statistics 2017).

According to the 104th article of the Public Servants Law and Labor Law No. 4857, maternal labor is granted for maternity leave for 8 weeks before birth and 8 weeks after birth for a total of 16 weeks. In Turkey, Turkish law guarantees women rights. Nevertheless, gender equality has not been achieved between men and women. Women are generally employed in requiring labor-intensive areas such as food, textiles, ready-made clothing and tobacco industries. Jobs are traditionally divided into two categories: “women’s work” and “men’s work”. Women’s work means low status and low wage jobs. Many women work in the agricultural sector and these women work as unpaid family workers.

Figure 5. Turkey: Women labour force status by educational attainment in 2015 and 2016



Source: TurkStat.

As the level of education increases, the employment rate also increases, but there is still an inequality (Response of The Republic of Turkey to The Questionnaire on Implementation of The Beijing Platform for Action 2004).

Social participation

Turkey confront two main problems about gender equality legislation on social area: access to education and violence against women. Education is one of the most important elements in the fight against gender inequality. Because education is the first step of girls' involvement in the public sphere. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 (article 26), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural rights in 1976 (article 3,13,14), The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 (article 10), The Beijing Declaration in 1995 (article 69), which have been signed by Turkey, includes regulations related to education for women. In addition to all these, in The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey (article 42), National Education Basic Law (article 4), and Primary Education and Training Law clearly states everybody has the right to education without sex discrimination.

Considering education in Turkey, the male percentage is greater than the percentage of women always. When the following TUIK data are examined, this situation is understood more clearly.

Table 1.

Bitirilen son öğrenim kurumu ve cinsiyet oranı, 1975-2015

Formal education completed and sex ratio, 1975-2015

(25 ve daha yukarı yaştaki nüfus - Population 25 years of age & over)

Sayım yılı Census year	Toplam Total	Okur-yazar olmayan Illiterate	Bir öğrenim kurumundan mezun olmayan Literate without diploma		İlkokul Primary School	İlköğretim Primary Education	Ortaokul ve dengi Junior high school & equivalent	Lise ve dengi High school & equivalent	Yüksekokul ve fakülte Higher education	Yüksek lisans Master	Doktora Doctorate	Bilinmeyen ⁽²⁾ Unknown
			Literate without diploma	Primary School								
Kadın - Female												
1975	100	65,6	5,1	23,9			2,1	2,5	0,7			0,1
1980	100	62,4	5,6	24,7			2,2	3,5	1,6			0,0
1985	100	45,9	8,4	36,1			2,8	4,9	1,8			0,1
1990	100	40,2	5,6	41,6			3,6	6,1	2,8			0,1
2000	100	27,4	7,5	45,2			5,3	9,1	5,4			0,1
2008 ⁽¹⁾	100	18,0	7,4	42,7		0,7	4,9	12,2	6,5	0,5	0,1	7,0
2009 ⁽¹⁾	100	17,1	6,9	44,3		1,2	4,9	12,6	7,3	0,5	0,2	5,1
2010 ⁽¹⁾	100	13,9	7,1	40,1		6,1	5,5	13,8	7,7	0,7	0,2	4,9
2011 ⁽¹⁾	100	11,4	8,2	39,3		8,1	5,1	14,5	8,8	0,7	0,2	3,5
2012 ⁽¹⁾	100	10,7	9,0	40,0		4,2	5,6	16,0	10,6	0,4	0,2	3,2
2013 ⁽¹⁾	100	9,4	9,2	37,7		9,4	4,9	14,4	10,7	0,9	0,3	3,2
2014 ⁽¹⁾	100	9,2	9,0	36,6		9,3	6,1	15,0	11,7	1,0	0,3	1,7
2015 ⁽¹⁾	100	9,0	8,8	35,9		9,2	5,9	15,6	13,1	1,1	0,3	1,1

Source: TurkStat, General Census of Population.

Table 2.

Bitirilen son öğrenim kurumu ve cinsiyet oranı, 1975-2015
 Formal education completed and sex ratio, 1975-2015

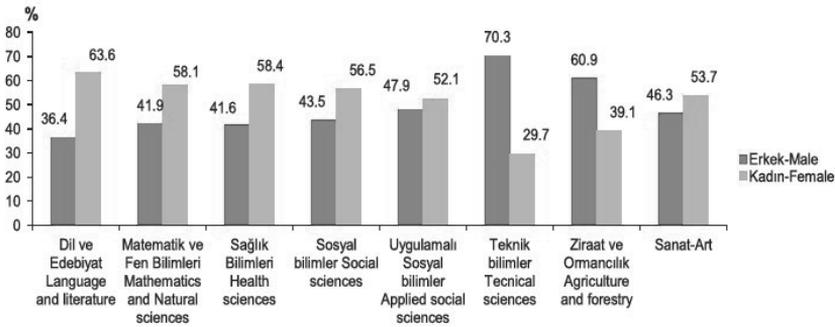
(25 ve daha yukarı yaştaki nüfus - Population 25 years of age & over)

Sayım yılı Census year	Toplam Total	Bir öğrenim kurumundan mezun olmayan Literate without diploma		İlkokul Primary School	İlköğretim Primary Education	Ortaokul ve dengi Junior high school & equivalent	Lise ve dengi High school & equivalent	Yükseköğretim ve fakülte Higher education	Yüksek lisans Master	Doktora Doctorate	Bilinmeyen ⁽²⁾ Unknown
		Okur-yazar olmayan Illiterate	Literate without diploma								
Erkek - Male											
1975	100	29,1	12,6	45,2		4,5	5,2	3,0			0,3
1980	100	24,8	10,7	46,7		5,4	6,6	5,7			0,1
1985	100	16,3	9,2	53,0		6,4	9,0	6,0			0,1
1990	100	13,2	5,7	54,9		7,9	10,8	7,3			0,1
2000	100	7,0	5,3	50,3		11,2	16,0	10,2			0,0
2008 ⁽¹⁾	100	4,5	4,9	42,8	1,0	9,0	18,8	10,2	0,8	0,2	7,7
2009 ⁽¹⁾	100	4,2	4,5	43,1	1,7	8,8	19,6	11,2	0,8	0,3	5,8
2010 ⁽¹⁾	100	3,1	3,9	33,1	10,6	9,3	21,3	11,9	1,0	0,3	5,4
2011 ⁽¹⁾	100	2,4	3,8	31,3	13,2	8,2	22,2	13,4	1,1	0,4	4,1
2012 ⁽¹⁾	100	2,3	2,5	30,3	12,7	6,4	25,1	15,4	1,2	0,4	3,7
2013 ⁽¹⁾	100	1,9	3,9	29,1	14,6	7,8	22,2	15,1	1,4	0,4	3,6
2014 ⁽¹⁾	100	1,8	3,7	27,9	14,0	9,4	23,2	16,2	1,5	0,4	1,8
2015 ⁽¹⁾	100	1,8	3,5	27,2	13,6	9,5	23,5	17,9	1,6	0,4	1,1

Source: TurkStat, General Census of Population

The table below shows the distribution of students in higher education of field by sex.

Figure 6. Higher education of field study by sex 2011 – 2012



Source: Higher Education Statistics, The Council of Higher Education

In 2011-2012 academic years, number of male students who study technical sciences is more than female students studying in that field. Moreover, it is also seen that there is a dominant influence of gender roles in women’s choice of profession.

Turkey is one of the 24 countries which considered risky to achieve the 2015 goals of Education for All (EFA) which is a global movement led by UNESCO. (Gelislil 2014) In recent years, various campaigns and projects have been initiated through Ministry of National Education, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, non-governmental organizations, and private corporations to ensure gender equality in education and 100% schooling in primary education such as “Hey Girls, Let’s Go to School”, “Snowdrops”, “100% Support for Education”, “Dad, Send Me to School” (Ozaydinlik 2014).

In parallel with the above data, Turkey is not in a good situation in the violence against women. Violence against women is a major problem in Turkey also continued as in many countries. In 1926, the new Civil Code (from Switzerland) was adopted and it gave women equal rights about some issues such as marriage, divorce, inheritance etc. According to Civil Code, religious and polygamous marriages were banned. (White 2003). Advisory Board on Women Status was established within The Turkish State Planning Organization and the Social Planning General Directorate in 1987. The General Directorate for the Status and Problems of Women was established in 1990. Also, in the same year, women’s shelters for the first time was opened. The Family Protection Law to Protect (Law no:4320) which was adopted in 1998. In addition, Women Research and Application Centers and graduate programs started to be opened in universities. (Akarsu 2015) In 2004, in the first paragraph of Article 10 of the Constitution, “Women and men have equal rights. The state is supposed to” the statement added. The amendments were made in the Turkish Criminal Code in 2005 about protection of children and women from violence and ensuring equality between men and women. For example, marital rape is a criminal offense, and sexual offenses are included offenses against sexual inviolability which is within offenses against the persons. In 2012, the Law to Protect Family and Prevent Violence against Women (Law no:6284) entered into force. In the Municipal Law No. 6360 issued in 2012, it is stated that “The Metropolitan municipalities and the municipalities which is a population of over 100,000 have to open shelters for women and children.”

Despite all these regulations, the study conducted by Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family and Social Policies and Hacettepe University under the name of “Research on Domestic Violence against Women” in 2013-2014 shows that the violence rate for women has increased to 36%. According to the Family Domestic Violence Survey of the Ministry of Family and Social Policy, 4 out of every 10 females are physically abused by their husbands or boyfriends. 89 percent of women who have been subjected to violence have never applied to nowhere.

Gender equality is enormous challenge and top priority for all democratic societies. Turkey has to face challenges to ensure equality between men and women. The ongoing transformation of Turkey into an industrial urban

economy and society is likely to further impact on women's activities. Empowering women must be mobilized to ensure effective progress and implementation on the ground of the new rights.

The Comparison

In this study, the reason behind comparing of these countries is superiority of Sweden with regard to gender equality over Turkey's current achievement on this issue. Therefore, the progress of women in the historical process has been examined in Sweden to be an example to Turkey.

Turkish women have gained the right to political representation at an earlier period than Sweden with women's struggle for voting rights starting in the world. It said that Turkey and Sweden historically show similarities in the development of the status of women in society. Until the 1990s, an increasing the representation of women rate was inadequate in Sweden but after this date it increased with the voluntary quota practices which is implemented by political parties. But today, while the highest proportion of women in the Swedish parliament, Turkey is at the bottom of ladder on this issue. In this context, considering the example of countries like Sweden it is necessary to increase political participation of women in Turkey.

Moreover, although many women have the right legally in Turkey, there are still inequalities. The task of the Assembly is not only to enact laws. The parliament may introduce many laws but if these laws are not effectively enforced by the government, ministries and relevant institutions and organizations, the effectiveness of the law will be limited or not at all and the expected result does not occur. Therefore, a supervisory board may be established about inequalities as in Sweden.

While searching the literature for the study, they pointed out the lack of research on gender equality. Researchers should be able to access data to obtain evidence that will enable them to reach results. If there is a statistical data, then it can be decided whether there is a problem and the solution can be searched. For this reason, all kinds of support and encouragement should be given to researchers. When it is considered on its own merit, there is an increase in the participation of women in economic life in Turkey. However, when it compared to OECD countries such as Sweden, which shows world standards, their situation is evident about the gender gap in the total employment rate. The low level of participation of women in employment constitutes a major obstacle to social development. Sweden, Iceland, Norway, Denmark, where women's participation rates are high, are at the forefront of the Human Development Index and Gender Equality Index, which are indicators of social development. In addition to Turkey joining the low level of women's employment, it is seen

to be far behind both in the human development index and gender equality index. When given the factors such as maternity leave, equal pay, child care, it should be prevented sex discrimination in personnel recruitment of business. Spending should be defrayed by the state and not by businesses. One of the areas where state spending is transferred in Sweden is gender equality.

In addition, as in Sweden, Turkey also sees child care as part of social policy. Childcare should be made into a state policy to help women and make working environments more convenient. Effective and widespread public-funded child care services, business and family life adjustment policies will encourage women to participate in economic and social life.

When the data on violence against women are examined, it is seen that violence constitutes a serious problem in both countries. Violence against women is not only a problem of underdeveloped or developing countries. According to a report by the Swedish National Crime Survey, violence against women in the country is increasing.

Conclusions

As stated in the beginning of this paper, this study seeks to examine history of the gender equality movement and the ways in which gender inequality is advanced in Sweden and Turkey. This thesis has presented a comparative study of how three important factors, which is social, political, and economic inclusion, affect gender equality and vice versa in the Sweden and Turkey. The disparity between these two countries on the 2017 Global Gender Gap report serves as the analytical basis for this comparison, with the Sweden ranking in the top five percent, and Turkey ranks in the lower half with a score of 0.625 (131 of 144).

The study examined how the progress of gender equality movement process with developed three hypotheses and it sort out on the answer to the “How has the gender equality movement progressed in Sweden and Turkey to date?”, “What is the outlook on the condition of gender equality in both Sweden and Turkey?”, “How can the existing barriers be eliminated?”. After the literature search and researches done, the first hypothesis can be partially verified as Turkey can learn from the Swedish approach to achieve gender equality. Sweden, which has higher gender gap in previous year, has closed this gap last 50 years.

Therefore, it can be considered a precursor to many countries such as Turkey. It display exemplary behavior in political, economic and educational fields to Turkey. Nevertheless, despite national and international policy and practice, violence against women, a problem that has arisen all over the world; requires a common and determined struggle at the social level with versatile, holistic plans and policies in both countries.

Subsequently, the second hypothesis follows: “Today, although Sweden is better than Turkey in terms of gender equality, both countries have gone through a similar process of gender equality”. Taking the second hypothesis into account, although the two countries initially passed through a similar process with the legal provisions on equality and with the international agreements it has signed, in the later years Sweden precluded of Turkey, put legal process about gender equality in practice. Turkish law also guarantees women’s rights, but this is not enough to ensure gender equality between men and women.

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Pomiar równości płci: analiza porównawcza Szwecji i Turcji

Streszczenie

Równość płci jest jednym z podstawowych elementów praw człowieka i zrównoważonego rozwoju. Artykuł badawczy ma na celu zwrócenie uwagi studium porównawczego, jak trzy istotne czynniki: polityczny, ekonomiczny i włączenie społeczne wpływają na równość i nierówność płci w Szwecji i Turcji. W dorocznym raporcie na temat równości płci z roku 2017 (ang. *Global Gender Gap Report*), który ocenia w skali od 0, co oznacza nierówność płci, do 1, co oznacza równość płci, Szwecję zaliczono do najwyższych pięciu procent spośród 144 krajów ocenianych pod względem równości płci, z wynikiem wynoszącym 0,816 (5 z 144), podczas gdy Turcję umieszczono w dolnej połowie z wynikiem 0,625 (131 z 144). Pomimo że na świecie istnieją regulacje prawne w politycznych, ekonomicznych i społecznych sferach odnoszących się do równości płci, ich wdrożenie jest również trudne. Celem projektu jest zrozumienie, jak ruch na rzecz równości płci ewoluował w Szwecji i Turcji z punktu widzenia zrównania poziomów.

Słowa kluczowe: równość płci, Szwecja, Turcja, partycypacja polityczna, partycypacja ekonomiczna, partycypacja społeczna.

Kody JEL: F5

Afiliacja:

dr Davut Han Aslan

Deniz Doğanay

Akademia Finansów i Biznesu Vistula

Wydział Biznesu i Stosunków Międzynarodowych

ul. Stokłosa 3

02-787 Warszawa

e-mail: d.aslan@vistula.edu.pl

e-mail:denizdoganay@hotmail.com

Artykuł zaakceptowany do druku w marcu 2019 roku.