

Gender and Modernization in Turkey

Tülin Tuna

Research Assistant, tvarli@fatih.edu.tr

Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Fatih University, 34500,
Buyukcekmece, Istanbul, Turkey

Accepted: September 05, 2012 Published: October 20, 2012

Doi:10.5296/ijld.v2i5.2554 URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijld.v2i5.2554>

Abstract

This article aims to explain gender equality in Turkey. The gender concept which implies socially determined roles and responsibilities of men and women varies across different societies and in time. The gender is determined by multiple factors. Besides gender has an impact on every period of life in different ways. There can be inequality in using the opportunities, allocation and utilization of resources, accessing the services because of gender. Women have more disadvantages and lower social statuses compared with men are influenced much negative from so-called inequalities. Several reforms have been carried out since beginning of Turkish Republic in order to provide gender equality. These reforms aim to boost the woman's economic, cultural and social development. However, today sex based inequality is one of the foremost current problems, although these reforms. When the status of woman in Turkey is examined, it is observed that education level of woman has low and involvement in business life is inadequate. Together with this fact, it is obvious that woman could not exceed gender role despite legal reforms in Turkey and take its place in political area. However, fertility conscious of women started to increase. Therefore, the rates of fertility decrease. To sum up, it was observed that today there are many stages in order to reach the level desired in regard to provide gender equality.

Key Words: Gender in Turkey, Gender equality, The Status of Women in Turkey.

1. Introduction

Sex concept, which reflects biological characteristics of women and men, vary dependently social and cultural structure together with development process in direction of acquisition of gender identity.ⁱ Identity that is acquired with sex exists to deem suitable properly society's to them. Namely, person, who has the sex identity with birth, afterwards, its identity defragment with characteristics which get out social life. Therefore, the roles which are created by gender are dynamic and its content varies as to time and place.ⁱⁱ The gender roles ascribe different loads to both women and men. However, it is obvious that gender inequality affects woman more than man.

According to theory of Inglehart, any deep-seated cultural divisions among societies (the west and Islam) will revolve far more strongly around social rather than political values, especially concerning the issues of sexual liberalization and gender equality. He determined that Islamic

societies indicate surprisingly similar attitudes toward democracy are found in the West. But a stronger cultural divide between the West and Islam societies based on issues of gender equality and sexual liberalization.ⁱⁱⁱ

Gender roles vary as to tradition and culture of societies, besides they vary in time as well. Modernization brings systematic, predictable changes in gender roles.^{iv} Besides Inglehart stated that:

“The impact of modernization operates in two key phases:

i. Industrialization brings women into the paid workforce and dramatically reduces fertility rates. Women attain literacy and educational opportunities. Women are enfranchised and begin to participate in representative government, **but still have far less power than men.**

ii. The postindustrial phase brings a shift toward greater gender equality as women move into higher status economic roles in management and the professions, and gain political influence within elected and appointed bodies.

These two phases correspond to two major dimensions of cross-cultural variation: (i) A transition from traditional to secular-rational values; and (ii) a transition from survival to self-expression values. The decline of the traditional family is linked with the first dimension. The rise of gender equality is linked with the second.”^v

Furthermore, he determined that economic growth, legal-institutional reforms and cultural matters are effect on gender equality together with modernization process.

Turkish society is associated with a culture that is patriarchal system. This system affects social values and attitudes of society and gender role. Both men and women have relatively patriarchic orientations in patriarchic cultures. The traditional gender role division has settled women to the household, while public life has become male-dominant sphere.

In the lights of these facts, this article will be emphasized the development of gender equality after 1980 in Turkey with modernization process. Turkish modernization’s adaptation with the theory, emphasized by Inglehart, will be studied. Firstly, the reforms made for gender equality will be handled in detail. Secondly, gender equality under the title “the Status of Women in Today’s Turkey” will be investigated. Moreover, the situation of woman especially in education, business life, politics and health will be examined. The situation of woman in politics will be examined according to the research on general and local elections. Furthermore, from 1980 to present, the place of woman in business life especially public and private business sector will be examined together with modernization.

2. The Development of Gender Equality in Turkey

The basis of gender equality politics in Turkey are formed by the Republic reforms. In the following years of the foundation of Turkish Republic in 1923, a modern state structure was formed on one hand and an extensive social transformation was carried out the other, with the reforms made in the faith that full equality between woman and man should be established.^{vi} According to several researches, the recovery of Turkish woman in social and political life from 1923 to present will be summarized below.^{vii}

The reforms that were made in the first decade following the year of 1923 led not only to the reconstruction of the Turkish society, but also to granting the right of citizenship rights to women. Educational institutions were gathered together within one single system with the Law on the Unification of Education in 1924. Therefore women and men were provided with equal educational opportunities. With the Turkish Civil Code, accepted in 1926, the social life of women was regulated and women were granted fundamental rights. Turkish women had a right to participate politics before other countries. For example, women were given right to vote in 1950 and right to stand for election in 1960 by Canadian government.^{viii} However, Turkish women had the right to elect and be elect in local authority in 1930 and were granted in 1934 the right to elect and be elected as members of the Turkish Grand National Assembly.

Besides, Maternity leave, was the more important problem of Turkish women, was granted to women in 1930. New regulations on business life of women came into force with Labour law in 1936. One year later, employment of women at heavy and dangerous work in underground were forbidden with International Labour Organisation (ILO) agreement. Maternity benefit was arranged in 1945 and old age insurance in 1949 for women and men were arranged as to equal principals. In 1952, women's and children's health service were given by Ministry of Health. In 1965, distribution and sale of contraceptive tools were setted free. Besides, the law was arranged about population planning related with abortion right in case of medical emergency.

The advantages of women with regulations in the republic period are significant and eligible transformations. There are two things under the basis of these reforms. One of these reforms is that women take place in public area. The other one is that women participate together with men to development period.

Revival had been with woman movement that was strengthen in 1980. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against on Woman (CEDAW)^{ix} agreement came into force in 1986.^x First "Women Studies Center" was established in Istanbul University, 1989. Today, the number of these centers within the body of universities reached fourteen.^{xi} Turkish child rights agreement was signed in 1990. The first woman guest home was opened in order to support child and woman exposed to violence. 159th article of Civil Law, related to "work of woman adhere to permission of men", was cancelled by Constitutional Court.^{xii}

Furthermore, Directorate General on the Status and Problems of Women (KSSGM) was established in order to prevent gender discrimination and women-men equality in this period. The name of this establishment was changed Directorate General on the Status of Women (KSGM). Turkey participated to Cairo-Population and Development Conference at official level in 1994 and signed the agreement accepting all decisions. Besides, Turkey participated to Beijing IV. World Woman Conference at official level in 1995 and signed the agreement accepting all decisions without hesitation. A big progress about the status of woman was made in 1997. The law consisting of the compulsory basic education from five years to eight years came into force. Furthermore, women can use both her surname and husband's surname after married. This was provided with changing of Civil Law. The law for protection of family came into force to protect the people from violence in family in 1998. New Civil Law which includes significant articles about women-men equality came into force in 2002.

As it is seen, sensibility about gender equality has been attempted to form with legal regulations after 1980 in Turkey. However, although these advantages, when the positions of women in society are investigated today, gender inequality is seen distinctly in indicator.

On the other hand, when the location of Turkey is investigated, it was observed that Turkey dropped behind from the countries which are not managed by democracy. For instance, as to Human Development Report (HDI), it is seen that Turkey is ranked as the 92 among 187 countries in high human development. However, Qatar is ranked at the 37 and Bahrain is ranked as the 42 in very high development report. Besides, Saudi Arabia is ranked as the 56 and Oman is ranked at the 89 in high human development.^{xiii}

It has been seen that gender inequality is one of the factor of pulling down Turkey's position in Human Development Index. This situation is clarified as gender equality performance of world countries is calculated by the Gender related development index (GDI) and the Gender empowerment measure (GEM). When GDI and GEM are investigated in 2009, it has been seen that Turkey is ranked as the 126 among 155 countries in GDI and is ranked as the 101 among 109 countries in GEM.^{xiv}

3. The Status of Women in Today's Turkey

The status of women is universally considered to be low and the women are unable to receive equal level of education with man. Employment of women is considered as an additional income activity to the employment of man in economic terms and the activities of women in the house are not regarded as a productive effort. In Turkey concrete steps were taken for educational, legal and social progress and strengthening of women since the Republican Period. As a result of the successful activities of women groups particularly after 1980s the problem of women was approached with an increasing sensitivity across the country.^{xv} However, when the data on education, politics, business and health are analyzed, it is observed that there are problems in implementation of the reforms.

3. 1. Education of Women

Education is the leading field that draws attention in the modernization process of Turkey. The level of receiving education is one of the main indicators of humanistic development in international platform.

Education is the starting point for the progress of women in many areas. It is the most important factors influencing the social status and employment opportunities of women. However, the research indicates that education is not always sufficient for the women to deal with the socio-cultural structure and that there is a traditional women image and a social pressure.^{xvi}

Despite the growing consciousness that the women should be educated to render equality between man and women and despite the increase in education programs particularly for the illiterate women groups^{xvii}, the education of women in today's Turkey is not adequate. The targets in education of women have not been fulfilled due to the reasons such as deficient sources.

The literacy ratio in Turkey was 85.3 percent in 1997 and 92 percent in 2010.^{xviii} Between the years of 1997-2006 the ratio of adult literacy was increased in stages. it is observed that literacy

ratio decreased in 2008 when compared to 2006. However, the ratio of adult literacy was increased after the 2008 years. The number of illiterate women is still higher than men. In addition, this ratio was lower than the ratio between 1997 and 2006. It is found that in 2010, the difference in social gender is not eliminated yet.

Table 1. Adult Literacy Rates (1997-2010)

Year	1997	2000	2003	2006	2008	2010
Women	76,9	78,3	81,1	80,4	81,6	90,13
Men	93,9	94,5	95,7	96	89,7	97,79
Total	85,3	86,4	88,3	88,1	85,7	92

As indicated in Table 2, education services in Turkey are not evenly distributed between man and women. The majority of Turkey's population is primary school graduates. However, the differences between the ratios of women-men primary school graduates have decreased from 1997 to 2010. The ratio of secondary education and higher education graduate men is higher than those of women.

Table 2. Education Level of Population in Turkey

Year	Primary School		Secondary School		Higher Education	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1997	90,25	78,97	41,39	34,16	11,28	9,17
2000	99,58	90,79	48,49	39,18	13,12	11,38
2003	93,41	86,89	58,01	48,5	16,62	13,93
2006	92,25	87,93	60,71	52,16	21,56	18,66
2008	98,53	96,14	61,17	55,81	22,37	19,69
2010	98,60	98,20	72,30	66,10	31,24	29,60

Despite the quantitative developments in education of women, the qualitative return of these developments is not reflected in the society and this emerges as one of the most important barriers in social development of Turkey.^{xix} In the changing social structure of Turkey in the modernization process, the women could not obtain equal the information and skills required for attaining the deserved level for the women. While the women living in the cities benefitted from education opportunities, the women living in rural areas learnt how to write and read by the informal education courses. However, learning only how to read and write did not contribute to more the existing status of the women.^{xx} Basic Law of National Education stipulates that the women in Turkey will benefit from all opportunities of the education system. In addition, constitution contains articles on the equal opportunities in education. However, it is observed that the implemented legal reforms are not adequate for the women to duly benefit from education.

3. 2. Women and Politics

Representation of women in political decision making and public administration processes in a balanced manner is an important prerequisite of democracy. It is not possible to achieve the targets of development and modernization without the active participation of women in decision making and management processes. This authority positions take decision that affect the whole society. Participation of more women in authority positions will mean bringing more effective solutions to the problems and needs of women citizens.

Active participation of the women in politics has a determinant role in realization of women-men equality. When the effectiveness of women in public area in Turkey is analyzed particularly in terms of active and efficient participation in political life, it is observed that political life of Turkey is dominated by men.^{xxi} In Turkey, the women who constitute half of the population have almost no representation in the Grand National Assembly of Turkey.

When the results of the general elections between 1999 and 2002 were analyzed^{xxii}, it was found that in 18th April 1999 only 22 women were elected as deputy among a total of 550 deputies. The ratio of women deputies was only 4 percent. On the other hand, in 3 November 2002 elections, number of women deputies increased only to 24. The women constitute 4,4 percent of the parliament which is made up of 550 members. In 2007 general elections, the representation of women in Grand National Assembly of Turkey increased from 4,4 percent to 9,1 percent. Although in 2011 elections, the ratio of women deputies increased from 9,1 percent to 14,4 percent. In addition, the ratio of women deputies increased to 14,4 percent however it could exceed which is the lowest threshold in Europe.^{xxiii}

Table 3. Number of Parliamentarians according to Election Year and Sex

Election Year	Total	Women	Men	Women(%)
1935	395	18	377	4,5
1939	400	16	385	3,7
1943	435	16	419	3,5
1946	455	9	446	1,9
1950	487	3	484	0,6
1954	535	4	531	0,7
1957	610	8	603	1,3
1961	450	3	447	0,7
1965	450	8	442	1,8
1969	450	5	445	1,1
1973	450	6	444	1,3
1977	450	4	446	0,9
1983	400	12	388	3
1987	450	6	444	1,3
1991	450	8	442	1,8
1995	550	13	437	2,4
1999	550	23	528	4,2
2002	550	24	526	4,4
2007	550	50	500	9,1

2011	550	79	471	14,4
------	-----	----	-----	------

When we analyze the distribution of a total of 79 deputies in the Assembly according to the parties, it was observed that the Justice and Development Party (Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi, AKP) has 46, the Republican Peoples Party (Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi, CHP) has 19, the Nationalist Movement Party (Milliyetçi Hareket Partisi, MHP) has 3, Peace and Democracy Party (Barış ve Demokrasi Partisi, BDP) has 9 and Independents have 2 women deputies.^{xxiv}

As for the number of seats the parties hold in the assembly, it was found that 46 of 326 deputies of the AKP were women (14,11 percent); 19 of 135 deputies of the CHP were women (14,07 percent); 3 of 52 deputies of the MHP were women (5,76 percent); 9 of 29 deputies of the BDP were women (31,03 percent) and 2 of 6 deputies of the independents were women (33,3 percent). This data indicates that the BDP has the highest women representation, while the MHP has the lowest women representation in the parliament.

In addition, when we analyze the participation of women who were elected as deputy in 2007 elections, it was found that the CHP and the DTP deputies more actively participated in assembly activities while the AKP deputies had a more passive participation. For example, among 30 AKP women deputies, only 1 had a written question; however each of the CHP and the BDP women deputies have more than one written question.^{xxv}

Local administrations are other institutions which have a key role in participation of women in politics and development of democracy. Women city councilors can influence local decisions and these decisions can be made to be more sensitive to social gender. However, the participation of women in local administrations, which can be considered as the first step to the political life, is quite restricted. As indicated in the table below, the percentages of the women who are elected in local level is quite low. Although there was an increase in 2009 local elections, the participation level of women in local politics still can not exceed 1 percent.^{xxvi}

Table 4. 1999-2004 and 2009 Local Elections

	Women	Total	%
1999			
Municipality	18	3.215	0,56
Members of Provincial Council	44	3.122	1,41
Council Member	541	34.084	1,59
2004			
Municipality	18	3.225	0,56
Members of Provincial Council	57	3.208	1,78
Council Member	817	34.477	2,37
2009			
Municipality	27	2.948	0,91
Members of Provincial Council	110	3.379	3,25
Council Member	1.340	31.790	4,21

When we analyze both general and local elections, it was found that traditional life styles and value judgments which currently partially lost power and validity still have an effect on participation of women in politics. The dominant patriarchal structure in the society leads to the perception that politics is a men's work and these judgments influence women. In this

traditional life style which does not allow free thought and preferences of women but force the women to be dependent on men, the women are limited to house work such as taking care of the children and their house, cooking and sewing. These roles increase the self-restriction tendency of women. According to the traditional life style, the women have no place in the streets or in the political environment where the discussions can last until late at night. The socially acclaimed behavioral patterns for women are contrasted with those for politicians. In addition, the studies on the political views of the women indicate that equality and participation are adopted only in principle however there are problems in implementing these principles.^{xxvii}

In addition, the studies indicate that the families have a significant role in participation of women in politics and that the interest of husband or the family of the women in politics directed the women to the politics.^{xxviii} In addition, it was found that the general characteristics of the women who participated in politics had a high educational level and no economic problems.^{xxix} In this case, it can be suggested that factors such as education and income level, life style, settlement place, job etc. affect the political behavior of women.

The main factors negatively effecting the participation of women in politics can be listed as follows: Firstly, the role of women in social life is not suitable for participation in political life. Secondly, the women lack enough information about political rights and do not adopt the rights stipulated by the laws. Thirdly, deficient economic and education level prevent the women to enjoy their political rights.

3. 3. Women in Working Life

The employment of women is the key for enabling them to have economic independency and provision of more equality between men and women in the society.

In Turkish society, the role of women in traditional structure prevents them to go outside of the house. Depending on this social role, the women work in the family. After the foundation of Turkish republic, the women who were able to benefit for equal opportunities in education began to take part in the working life.^{xxx} Due to the economic conditions in Turkey, the women were forced to appear in public area and the traditional division of labor based on social gender began to change.^{xxxi}

A review of the previous studies on the factors effecting the employment of women in Turkey indicates that lack of education, the attitude of the husband, child care and house works had important effects on the issue.^{xxxii}

As indicated in table 5, Labor force participation rates decreased from 1988 to 2011 and Unemployment rates increased both women and men. According to 2011 Household Labor Force Statistics 28.8 percent of the women and 71.7 percent of the men in Turkey participates in the labour force. In addition, 11.3 percent of women and 9.2 percent of the men are unemployed.^{xxxiii}

Table 5. Labor Force Status by Non-Institutional Population

Year	Labor Force participation rates (%)		Unemployment rates (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
1988	34,3	81,2	10,6	7,5
1990	34,1	79,7	8,5	7,8
1995	30,9	77,8	7,3	7,8
2000	26,6	73,7	6,3	6,6
2006	23,6	69,9	11,1	9,9
2007	23,6	69,8	11	10
2008	24,5	70,1	11,6	10,7
2011	28,8	71,7	11,3	9,2

In addition, in the year 2008, 6 million 973 thousand women were employed.^{xxxiv} As indicated in the table below, the participation to labour force increased parallel to the increase in educational level. When we analyze the employed women according to educational level, the importance of education is seen from 1988 to 2011. Besides, it was found that in the year 1988, 42.9 percent of illiterate women; 45.8 percent of the women who received education less than high school; 7.1 percent of high and vocational school graduates and 4.08 percent of higher education graduate women were employed. In the year 2011, 17.1 percent of illiterate women; 25.4 percent of the women who received education less than high school; 39.2 percent of high and vocational school graduates and 70.8 percent of higher education graduate women were employed.

Table 6. Employment by Educational Status

		Illiterate	Less than high school	High and Vocational school	Higher Educational Institutions
1988	Women	42,9	45,8	7,1	4,08
	Men	19,6	65,2	9,8	5,2
1990	Women	39,7	48,4	7,23	4,59
	Men	15,7	68,4	10,2	5,6
1995	Women	28,7	54,5	9,8	6,73
	Men	9,7	68,9	15,03	6,3
2000	Women	25,2	23	31,8	70,1
	Men	56,7	74,9	70,8	83,2
2006	Women	16,2	21,8	31,4	69,8
	Men	40,4	70,8	73,6	84,1
2008	Women	14,5	19,5	33,7	70
	Men	36	62,9	73,2	82,7
2011	Women	17,1	25,4	39,2	70,8
	Men	37,8	82,5	81,2	85,3

The studies on the working women indicate that in Turkey, education is considered as an important factor for women's personal development, building self-confidence, understanding the world outside the house and learning new horizons, raising the children in a better manner and gaining economic freedom by participating to the working life.^{xxxv}

As indicated in table 7, migration from rural areas to urban areas is one of the factors effecting the low participation of women in the labour force.^{xxxvi} When the women, who work as non-paid workers in family enterprises in rural agricultural sector migrate to cities, they fail to find a paid work due to inadequate qualifications, deficient children care facilities and the traditional perceptions regarding the social role and responsibility of women.^{xxxvii} Furthermore, the women who have to work due to insufficient income have to work in low-status, low-income jobs with no insurance.

Table 7. In Urban and Rural Area Labour Force Participation Rates
(2000-2011)

	1988	1990	1995	2000	2006	2008	2011
Urban							
Women	17,7	17	16,8	17,2	19,9	20,8	24,8
Men	78,1	76,8	74,1	70,9	70,8	69,5	71,0
Rural							
Women	50,7	52	49,3	40,2	33	32,9	37,5
Men	84,7	83	82,6	77,9	72,7	71,6	73,3

When we analyze the sectors which employ women, the service sector ranks first (2.972), agriculture sector followed by (2.944), industry (1.057).^{xxxviii}

When the distribution of working women according to Professional groups^{xxxix}, it was found that the women we mostly employed in agriculture, animal husbandry and professions that require no special qualifications. The majority of the working women are employed in job that require no specialization and mainly involve in unregistered employment such as part-time working, temporary working and home-office working. Weaving, confection and piece work done at home can be listed among these kinds of works. It was found that the women partially exceed men in (ancillary) professional jobs. However, the presence of women in top levels is rather low. This indicates that the women encounter serious obstacles in career. This situation, which is called glass ceiling points out to the promotion criteria in favor of men irrespective of the qualifications such as skills and experience.^{xl}

Gender discrimination still prevails in the working life and certain professions are considered to be suitable for the women, which are low-status professions.^{xli} On the other hand, a women who works in the same profession with a men generally encounters gender discrimination. The women are subjected to discrimination in employment, promotion, assignment of external services or trainings, taking a leave, getting appointed, in retirement or in resigning. This situation is called as vertical professional discrimination.^{xlii} For example with the new arrangement while the retirement age for women is 58, it is 60 for men.^{xliii}

Number of women administrators in public sector is rather low in Turkey (6.8 percent). The equality which is legally envisaged is insufficient for realizing the participation of women in

public administration. However, the ratio of women in some professions that require specialization is quite high. Today, approximately 41.6 percent of the teaching staff at universities is women. Women professors constitute 27.8 percent among all. In addition, 8 of 154 universities have women rector 39 percent of architects and 36 percent of lawyers are women.^{xliv}

The participation of women in high rank decision making positions is also low. For example, in diplomatic positions which are dominated by the men across the world, 11 of 110 ambassadors serving in Ministry of External Affairs are women. In addition, although there are no female governors, the number of women vice-governors is 10 of 464 and 13 of 801 district governors are women. A total of 8 of 261 candidate district governors are women. As for the status of the women in high-rank bureaucracy, there is one women undersecretary among a total of 24.^{xlv}

However, when we analyze the employment of women in private sector, it is understood that it differs from the public sector. According to the “Women Managers Questionnaire” administered by The Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions in September, 22.8 percent of high-rank managers were women. A total of 13.5 percent of chairman of the board were women; 27.9 percent of general managers, 22.8 percent of managers and 21.9 percent of the chiefs are women. It was observed that the women commonly held management positions in large-scale industrial enterprises and public sector is very fall behind from the aspect. In January 2009, European Commission compared the ratios of women managers (private sector) of large companies. In general of the European Union (EU) while the share of women in chairman of the board was 3 percent, this was 14 percent in Turkey-The Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions. Turkey ranks third in EU countries in terms of the promotion of women in top rank management levels.^{xlvi}

In conclusion the problems encountered by the women depending on gender factor can be categorized under four groups^{xlvii}; Inequality in education, inequality in finding a job and promotion, inequality in pay and inequality in enjoying social rights respectively.

3. 4. Health Status of Women^{xlviii}

Ensuring that women benefit from health services fully, equally and at the highest quality possible is a prerequisite for the achievement of full women’s human rights.

Women health works are mostly composed of works about women’s fertility. The problems inflicted from fertility of women are a significant because they affect her general health in a bad way and generate private health troubles.

According to Turkey Demographic and Health Surveys (Türkiye Nüfus ve Sağlık Araştırmaları, TNSA) in 2008, while the number of families used contraceptive methods increase, a significant decrease can be observed regarding the total fertility rate. The total fertility rate was 4,33 in 1978, 2,65 in 1993, 2,23 in 2003, 2,07 in 2009, and 2,03 in 2010.

Table 8. Fertility Rate (1978-2010)

The Total Fertility Rate (%)	
1978	4,33
1988	3,02
1993	2,65
1998	2,61
2003	2,23
2008	2,16
2009	2,07
2010	2,03

As is shown in table 9, the total fertility rate varies by the level of education, place of settlement, and region. In Turkey by rural and urban areas, fertility rate decreases from 1993 to 2010. However, it is calculated that fertility rate in rural is high (0.6 percent) from urban area. The highest rate is in Eastern Anatolia with three children; it decreases to two in Northern, Central and Southern Anatolia, and to less than two in Western Anatolia. There is a significant connection between education level of women and fertility rates in Turkey. While education level of women increases, fertility rates decrease._

Table 9. Total Fertility Rate in Turkey by rural-urban areas, regions and level of education (1993-2008)

	1993	1998	2003	2008
Place of Settlement				
Rural	2,4	2,39	2,06	2
Urban	3,1	3,08	2,65	2,68
Region				
West	2	2,03	1,88	1,73
South	2,4	2,55	2,3	2,09
Central	2,4	2,56	1,86	2,2
North	3,2	2,68	1,94	2,08
East	4,4	4,19	3,65	3,27
Education				
No education	4,2	3,89	3,65	2,65
Primary education First level			2,39	2,25
Graduate Primary education	2,4	2,55		
Primary education Second level			1,77	1,3
Graduate Secondary school	1,7	1,61		

High education and above			1,39	1,53
--------------------------	--	--	------	------

Another significant display on woman health is used rates of contraceptive methods. As is shown in table 13, 73 percent of all families used contraceptive methods, 46 percent used an effective modern method, and 27 percent used a traditional method. The majority of persons using contraceptive devices (44 percent) take this service from the first level Health Institutions or public institutions, such as Health house. The second major source is pharmacies.^{xlix} Turkish law allows induced abortion. However, if they are married according to the current legislation women need the consent of their spouses to terminate a pregnancy.¹

Table 10. Used Contraceptive Methods Rates (1993-2008)

	1993		1998		2003		2008	
	Known	User	Known	User	Known	User	Known	User
Contraceptive Methods	99,1	62,6	98,9	63,9	99,8	71	99,7	73
Modern Method	98,6	34,5	98,7	37,7	99,5	42,5	99,5	46
Traditional Method	89,1	28,1	90,6	25,5	97,7	28,5	93,5	27

4. Conclusion

The studies on the participation of women in education, politics, workforce and health indicated that Turkey made a progress in social gender equality along with the modernization process; however gender equality is not fully achieved. Today, although the social gender perceptions, perspectives towards men and women, the norms and roles attributed to men and women began to change with the modernization process, the secondary status of women still prevails.

It was observed that the first section of modernization theory defined by Inglehart which have an effect on gender equality, describes Turkey. With the modernization process, the women in Turkey were assigned the right of education and political participation and the women participated in the work force, especially in private area, and fertility rate decreased. Furthermore, many reforms were implemented to prevent gender discrimination and to further enhance women's rights. However, as indicated by Inglehart, today the women have a less powerful status than men in Turkey. It was found that the legal arrangements enacted for women are not functional. In addition, it can be suggested that social norms and values prevent the women to have an equal status with the men.

American sociologist Carol Delaney who carried out studies in Turkey for long years reported that both men and women image in Turkish culture continued in the conventional form. According to Delaney, in Turkish culture, the women are considered within the meaning system that is identical with the nature, while the men are considered as the symbol of the culture. Therefore a men-oriented culture prevails.^{li} In social gender role, which is reported to

be influenced by traditional and cultural values, it is observed that Turkish modernization could not transit from industrialization process to the post-industrialization process. Turkish society have made progress a shift from traditional value systems to secular-rational values, but not a shift from absolute norms and values toward a syndrome of increasingly rational, tolerant, trusting, postindustrial values.

In conclusion, to eliminate the gender based discriminating attitudes and negative judgments, against the acquired rights of men, the women should fight more actively to gain their rights.

References

- ⁱ Sarp, Ü. (2008). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği* [Gender Equality]. T.C. Başbakanlık. Ankara: Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü. p. 6.
- ⁱⁱ T.C. Başbakanlık. (2008). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Ulusal Eylem Planı 2008-2013* [National Action Plan Gender Equality 2008-2013]. Ankara: Kadın Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü. p. 15.
- ⁱⁱⁱ Pippa, N. and Ronald, I. (2004). *Sacred and Secular Religion and Politics Worldwide*. UK: Cambridge University Press. p. 134.
- ^{iv} Ibid., pp. 137-138 and Ronald, I. and Pippa, N. (2003). *Rising Tide Gender Equality and Cultural Change around the World*. UK: Cambridge University Pres. pp. 10-11.
- ^v Ibid.
- ^{vi} TC. Başbakanlık, (2008), p. 13.
- ^{vii} T.C. Başbakanlık. (1993). *Kadınlara Karşı Her Türü Ayrımcılığın Önlenmesi Sözleşmesi Uyarınca Hazırlanan Türkiye Raporu* [Turkey report is prepared in accordance with Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women]. Ankara: Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları. p. 43.
- _____. (1995). *Eylem Platformu ve Pekin Deklarasyonu IV. Dünya Kadın Konferansı* [Action Platform and Beijing Declaration IV. World Women Conference]. Ankara: Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları. pp. 1-229.
- _____. (1998). *Cumhuriyetin 75. Yılında Türkiye’de Kadının Durumu* [Condition of Women in Turkey]. Ankara: Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları., p. 73.
- _____. (2000). *21. Yüzyıl için Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği, Kalkınma ve Barış* [Gender Equality for 21. Century, Development and Peace]. Ankara: Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları. p. 1.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı. (1992). *2000’li Yıllar Öncesinde Türkiye’de Kadın Eğitimi* [Women Education in Turkey before 2000s]. Ankara: MEB. p. 70.
- Ömer, Ç. (1996). *Sivil Kadın* [Civil Woman]. Ankara: Vadi. pp. 284-292.
- ^{viii} “Women’s Suffrage”, available at <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/suffrage.htm>, (May 09, 2012).
- ^{ix} CEDAW was accepted at the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1979 and entered into force in 1981.
- ^x Nükhet, S. (1989). Feminism in Turkey a Short History. *New Perspectives on Turkey*, 3, 1, pp. 16-17.
- ^{xi} Feminist Men Won, available at http://www.istanbul.edu.tr/iletim/?page=template-news/detail&int_Id=676, (June 04, 2012).
- ^{xii} Decree of annulment gazette with 21272 number decision on July 1992. 159 th article was changed as follows; both husband and wife do not have to take her or his permission when he or she chooses a job or an occupation.
- ^{xiii} Human Development Report 2011, available at http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_2011_EN_Table2.pdf, (June 13, 2012).

^{xiv} http://www.undp.org.tr/publicationsDocuments/Table_K_from_HDR_2009_EN_Gender%20Empowerment%20Measure.pdf and <http://www.undp.org.tr/Gozlem2.aspx?WebSayfaNo=2169>

The gender-related development index (GDI) captures inequalities in achievement between women and men. It is simply the HDI adjusted downward for gender inequality. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower is a country's GDI relative to its HDI. There are three basic assumptions to calculate GDI such as life expectancy at birth, Adult literacy rate, and schooling rate. The gender empowerment measure (GEM) reveals whether women take an active part in economic and political life. It tracks the share of seats in parliament held by women; of female legislators, senior officials and managers; and of female professional and technical workers- and the gender disparity in earned income, reflecting economic independence. Differing from the GDI, the GEM exposes inequality in opportunities in selected areas.

^{xv} TC. Başbakanlık, (2000), p. 17.

^{xvi} Özlen, Ö. and Hatun, U. (2000). Kırsal Kesimde Kadın Eğitimi [Women Education in Rural Area], *Türkiye Ziraat Mühendisliği V. Teknik Kongresi*, 38, p. 1075.

^{xvii} Republic of Turkey, National Action Plan, The Girls' Education campaign which was initiated in 10 provinces with the lowest schooling ratio in primary education and then made widespread in general of Turkey also increased the schooling ratio of girls. In addition to these programs, Mother and Daughter at School Campaign are also carried out.

^{xviii} Population and Development Indicators, available at <http://nkg.tuik.gov.tr/goster.asp?aile=3>, (June 24, 2012).

^{xix} Yücel, Ş. (2004). "Kadın Eğitiminin Önemi ve Türkiye'deki Yansımaları" [The importance of Women Education and Reflection in Turkey]. *Kadın Çalışmalarında Disiplinler arası Buluşma Sempozyumu*, 109, p. 339.

^{xx} Ahmet, Ç. (2000). Atatürkçü Düşünce Sisteminde Kadın ve Eğitimi [Women and Education in Kemalist Consideration System]. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 146, p. 31.

^{xxi} Ali. A. (2004). Çağdaş Türk Toplumunun Siyasal Hayatında Kadının Yeri [Place of Women in Political Life of Modern Turkish Society]. *Kadın Çalışmalarında Disiplinler arası Buluşma Sempozyumu*, 109, p. 109.

^{xxii} TÜİK¹. (2011). *Türkiye İstatistik Yıllığı 2011* [Turkey's Statistical Yearbook 2011]. Ankara: TÜİK. p. 137.

^{xxiii} Türkiye Kadın Girişimciler Derneği (KAGİDER). (2008). *Türkiyede Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği* [Gender Inequality in Turkey]. İstanbul: TÜSİAD. pp. 265-269.

^{xxiv} TBMM, available at http://www.tbmm.gov.tr/develop/owa/milletvekillerimiz_sd.liste, (June 02, 2012).

^{xxv} Ibid.

^{xxvi} Local Government, available at

http://www.mahallidareler.gov.tr/Home/Dokumanlar/cinsiyetlerine_gore_secilmis_sayilari.doc. (June 02, 2012).

^{xxvii} Sosyal Kalkınma ve Cinsiyet Eşitliği Politikaları (SOGEP), AB Eşleştirme Projesi: Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliğinin Geliştirilmesi 4. Bileşen [EU Matching Project: Development of Gender Equality], available at sogep.org.tr/dosyalar/200807302306464521.doc, (June 01, 2012), pp. 3-4.

^{xxviii} Şirin, T. (1992). *Kadın-Erkek Eşitliği Politikaları ve Devlet* [Women-Men Equality Politics and State]. İstanbul: TÜSES Yayınları. p. 300.

^{xxix} Yeşim, A. (1989). *The Patriarchal Paradox Women Politicians in Turkey*, (Cranbury: Associated University Press. p.84.

^{xxx} Emel, D. (1992). *Türkiye'de Kadının Dünü ve Bugünü* [Yesterday and Today of Women in Turkey]. Ankara: İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları. p. 106.

^{xxxi} Bihter, S., Bülent, K. and Rana, T. (2004). Türkiye'de Kadının Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rollerine İlişkin Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Tutumları [Attitudes of University Students relation to Gender Roles of Women in Turkey]. *Kadın Çalışmalarında Disiplinler arası Buluşma Sempozyumu*, 109, p. 355.

^{xxxii} Yeşim, K. and Seher, S. (2004). Kadınların Çalışmasına Karşı Tutum ve Dini Yönelim Arasındaki İlişki [The relationship between attitudes towards women's work roles and religious tendency]. *A.Ü. Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 37, 1, p. 18.

- xxxiii TÜİK². (2011). *Hanehalkı İşgücü İstatistikleri* [Household Labour Statistics]. Ankara: TÜİK. p. 7.
- xxxiv Ibid., p. 7.
- xxxv Gülten, K. (1978). “Türkiye’de Kadın Eğitimi ve Kadın Çalışması [Women Education and Working in Turkey]. *Toplum ve Bilim Dergisi*, 5, p. 45.
- xxxvi Ibid., p. 4 and TÜİK². (2011). *Hanehalkı İşgücü İstatistikleri* [Household Labour Statistics]. Ankara: TÜİK, pp. 26-27.
- xxxvii TC. Başbakanlık. (1998). *1996 Ulusal Eylem Planı* [National Action Plan 1996]. Ankara: KSSGM. p.11.
- xxxviii TÜİK², (2011), p. 64.
- xxxix Ibid., p. 31.
- xl Gülay, T. (2007). Türkiye’de Kadın İstihdamı Raporu [Women Employment Report in Turkey]. Ankara: ILO Türkiye Direktörlüğü. pp. 50-51.
- xli Ne S. (1992). Yönetim Alanında Kadın [Women in Administration Area]. *Türkiye’de Kadın Eğitimi I. Uluslararası Konseyi Bildirileri*. Ankara: MEB Yayınevi. p. 64.
- xlii Üner, (2008), p.11-12.
- xliii Emeklilik Şartları [Retired Conditions], available at <http://www.sskemekli.com/emeklilik-sartlari/ssk-lilar-icin-emeklilik-sartlari.html>, (June 07, 2012).
- xliv TC. Başbakanlık. (2011). *Türkiye’de Kadının Durumu* [Circumstance of Women in Turkey]. Ankara: KSGM. p. 33.
- xlvi Ibid., p. 34.
- xlvi TİSK, available at <http://www.tisk.org.tr/duyurular.asp?ayrinti=True&id=3103>, (June 07, 2012).
- xlvi Serpil, A. (1999). Çalışma Yaşamında Kadın [Women in Working Life]. *TİSK Türkiye’de Kadın İşgücü Seminerleri*, 192, p. 10.
- xlvi Türkiye Nüfus ve Sağlık Araştırması [Turkey Population and Health Research]. (2008). Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversitesi, pp. 1-345.
- Most demographic statistics come from the Turkey Demographic and Health Surveys (TNSA) that have been carried out every five years since 1963 using a representative sample of the population. The most recent survey was held in 2003.
- xlvi Ibid., p. 88.
- ¹ It is defined 5th matter of population planning the law.
- li Carol, D. (2001). *Tohum ve Toprak [The Seed and Soil Gender and Cosmology in Turkish Village Society]*, Translated by Aksu Bora and Selda Somuncuoğlu. İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.