

Irina IONESCU

Ioana-Alexandra CHIRIANU

“Alexandru IoanCuza” University, Iași, Romania
ioana.chirianu@gmail.com

A MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH OF THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN EUROPE IN THE 20TH-21ST CENTURY

Literature
review

Keywords

Women status
Gender equality
Multidisciplinary study
Europe
Islam

Abstract

The 20th century was marked by the feminine revolution and the change of status of women throughout the world. The following article wishes to approach from a multidisciplinary perspective the contrasting differences of the woman's condition in two different "worlds" (Occidental and the Balkans) given the access of women towards education, social attitude and the afferent politics for women. These indexes influence the rate of participation of women in the working field, thus, they play a crucial role in the personal development of them. The comparative analysis of the specialized literature points out the main characteristics of women from France and Germany (as defining parts of the Occidental Europe) and Turkey and Bosnia (representative countries for the Balkans and the Islamic part of the continent) throughout the 20th and the 21st century. Although there is a common set of features, it is the differences that draw attention regarding the unequal participation of women in the social, economical and political life.

Introduction

The rapid demographic, social and economic changes in the past century, including the two World Wars that considerably diminished the number of European men, led to an acceleration of the number of women found in Europe. Women began, soon after, to bring themselves into prominence as active members of the society, successfully leading revolutions that equalled their rights in the State.

In the last two centuries, a fundamental change has been the vast increase in female labour force participation, particularly for married women. Participation in higher education and the labour market has increased. Women enlist into professions such as medicine and law, and into the upper echelons of corporate management. Despite their educational gain and the trend towards, the fact that they still shoulder most of the burden of household and care work, women face more inequality and risk to their integration into the workforce and to their position in the occupational structure. Thus women are still underrepresented in high-status occupations and subject to a substantial gender pay gap. The lack of gender equality in the labour markets of leading industrial countries poses a threat to productivity growth and competitiveness in ever more globalized and knowledge-intense economies.

We chose France and Germany as defining parts of the Occidental Europe, because they are advanced post-industrial countries. France represents a country which is characterized by a large public sector and a low share of the female full-time workforce in low-wage jobs, while Germany is characterized by a relatively small public sector. That shows a relatively large percentage of women as low-wage workers. A large service sector increases women's chances to hold high-status occupations. On the other hand, Bosnia and Turkey are representative countries for the Asian

culture, as well as the two European countries with their majority population being of Muslim religious confession. Turkey, on one hand is driven by Occidentalism, also being known as the most Occidental Muslim country in the world. On the other hand, Bosnia, former part of Yugoslavia still recovers after the bloody wars that covered its lands at the beginning of the 1990s, trying to find its cultural identity in a Europe which is both free and united. Surprisingly or not, after an Ottoman domination of around 500 years, Bosnia and Herzegovina represents now a much more reluctant to Occidentalism Muslim country than Turkey.

Method

The article counts for three parts: the introduction and the methodology used, the second part with the actual analysis given certain indicators, as well as a third part counting for the final conclusions. In the first part of the study, we engaged into the research of female status in the most democratic Western-European countries, Germany and France. As leaders of worldwide democracy and strong sustainers of women rights, these two countries successfully managed to integrate women in all social aspects of life, including politics.

In the second part we focused on analyzing Bosnia Herzegovina and Turkey as fundamental leaders of the Muslim confession on the European continent, as well as potential newcomers in the European Union. But given their Muslim confession and the diminished rights of women that it involves, reaching the European perimeter of freedom, for these countries and for now, may seem like a long way ahead. The third part of our study wishes to draw some pertinent conclusions regarding the status of women in the four analysed countries, as well as their integration in the work field as it is pictured at the beginning of the 21st century. Given the space limitations, our

study only focuses on the review of a part of the existent literature in the field. However, further analysis is to be made and another series of works must be consulted in order to fathom the subject.

Status of women-Comparative analysis

The analysis considers four important dimensions which are mandatory for each woman's participation in the public life. Education, social and cultural attitude, politics and labour market represent critical factors that determine the social status of a woman in today's society. Studies revealed that women with higher education are more prone to find a better paid job, which will lead to greater personal satisfactions and career achievements. Moreover, women with high education are also more prone to be accepted by masculine societies too and be integrated in all social aspects of life, while women with poorer education will often be marginalized both by society and by the masculine community. Participation of women to the labour market is also facilitated by a state's personal rules, regulations, and laws, which can easily lead to gender equality, or, on the contrary, to great gaps between women and men in terms of wages, personal development and financial independence. Women seem to have also substantially increased in number when it comes to political and state functions, currently occupying leading positions in all four states studied, with German chancellor, Angela Merkel, rising on top of the European political stage.

Education

Theoretical framework and empirical practice showed that more educated women are more likely to be employed than women with less education. Effects of men's earnings on the employment of their female partners vary by country, and are not consistently negative across the range of men's earnings, probably because of the strong correlation between the man's

education and that of his female partner (England, Gornick & Shafer, 2012).

As show in table no 1, a higher proportion of young women than men have a degree in the EU. In 2012, 39.9% of women aged 30 to 34 in the EU28 had completed a tertiary level of education, compared with 31.5% of men. France (48.6% and 38.5 %) is one of the countries with large differences in the rates between women and men. One of the countries with the smallest differences between women and men having completed tertiary education is Germany (32.9% and 31.0%).

The fields of study chosen within tertiary education vary greatly between women and men. In the EU28 in 2011, 79.1% of tertiary education graduates in education & training and 76.0% of graduates in health & welfare were women. On the other hand, only 26.6% of graduates in engineering and 40.8% in science & mathematics were female (Eurostat, 2014).

Education for women in Muslim countries from Europe shows certain disparities by comparison to the one used for women across Western Europe. The existent literature (Duman, 2010) points out that 93% of Turkish girls enrol in the primary school, while only 57.2% enrol in the secondary one, by comparison to 100% of boys enrolling in the primary school and 74.3% enrolling in secondary educational systems. One can easily see a gap in gender school attendance in Turkey of 7% in terms of primary school, and over 17% in terms of secondary school. Only 18.7% of the girls and young women in Turkey decide to enrol in university studies, while almost a quarter of the total number of boys, more exactly 24.3%, decides to do so. Just like in any other countries, there is a large number of factors contributing to girls' schooling decisions. Apart from household head, size and the composition of the Turkish family, one can also add socio-economic factor (income, community structure, child labour, parental education, etc.). A study conducted (King

& Hill, 1993) showed that child labour in developing countries has a strong influence upon the educational system of children. Children who undertake a wide range of low-skilled tasks around the house are more likely to drop out school earlier. In terms of girls, this is usually seen on those who have to take care of younger siblings in the absence of parents who work. In her article, Anil Duman talks about the fact that most Turkish girls represent “the prime contributors to household errands”, hence, they are strongly expected to continue performing these duties and chores throughout their adolescence as well. Living in a rural area negatively influences the educational system in Turkey, both for girls and boys. However, just as expected, the number of rural Turkish girls attending primary and secondary school is significantly smaller than the number of boys. What is also interesting is that different factors affect differently boys and girls in terms of schooling in Turkey. Family size was found explanatory for girls, but not for boys. Family composition was also found as one of the leading reasons for why young Turkish girls drop out school, while the majority of boys do not have to face similar home conditions. On the contrary, the same study conducted reached the conclusion that self-employment of the father offers a positive impact on girls’ schooling years.

Surprisingly, gender education gaps in Bosnia are smaller. According to UNICEF data (UNICEF report, 2012), literacy rate of young Bosnian women age 15-24 is of 99.7%. Data shows that only a minor 0.7% gap in pre-primary school participation between girls and boys exists in Bosnia – 17% of girls attend it, as well as 17.7% of boys. What is strikingly different is that in terms of primary school participation, 91% of girls are active as opposite to only 90% of boys. A similar difference in the detriment of boys also occurs at the level of secondary school participation, where 93.1% of girls were enrolled as opposed to

only 90.4% of the boys. This shows that, at least for one generation, the emancipation of women in Bosnia has given positive results. Should these trends continue in the near future as well, Bosnia and Herzegovina could give up gender inequality once and for all (Slack & Doyon, 2001).

Social and cultural attitude

Social and cultural attitude can have a negative effect on women. The literature review underlines the historically male breadwinner model, in which women are responsible for the unpaid housework, and men for the paid work. This explains the gender orientations to specific jobs and the discriminatory practices on the labour market (McDonald, 2000; Busch & Holst, 2011). People have specific assumptions about the person with whom they are interacting. These assumptions form the basis for future gender stereotypes that are shaped by cultural perceptions about what constitutes “male” and “female” (Mincer, 1962; Nelson, 1996). Usually, “female” means to provide unpaid family work at home, while “rational” is usually ascribed to men and more valued in the labour market than “emotional” ascribed to women (England, 1989). Furthermore, expectations about potential performance differ by gender, and this may result in wage penalties for women. This devaluation leads to lower pay for “female” jobs, independent of human capital. The higher the percentage of women in a specific job, the lower the pay for both, women and men, concept which is referred to in the literature as “evaluative discrimination” (Peterson & Saporta, 2004; Busch & Holst, 2011).

Gender inequality in annual earnings is seen to be smaller among women with higher education, largely because many women with high education are employed (Emerek, Figueiredo, González, Gonäs & Rubery, 2003).

In the European area, the unemployment differs significantly among

regions, while disparities between regions increased in recent years (Jaba, Balan, Roman & Roman, 2010).

Based on Hofstede's cultural dimension theory, we did an analysis between France and Germany. The five dimensions taken in account are - power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and pragmatism. Both countries are individualist societies, characterized by small families focusing on parent-child relationship, where communication is seen as a priority in comparison to other countries across the world. France has rather a unique combination of high levels in Power Distance and high levels in Individualism. The families have more emotional glue than in other individualistic cultures.

Germany and France have a low tolerance for uncertainty avoidance and ambiguity. They need laws, rules and regulations to structure life. In order to progress they need a systematic overview and details. High levels on Pragmatism and low levels on Indulgence of those two countries indicate that both cultures are restrained. People do not put much emphasis on leisure time and control the gratification of their desires. The difference between these two cultures appears on Power Distance index, where inequality is more accepted in France than in Germany, and in Masculinity index. France has a low score on this dimension which means that France has feminine values. This may be indicated by its famous welfare system (*sécurité sociale*), while Germany is considered a masculine society. Performance is highly valued; people show a lot of self-esteem from their tasks (Hofstede, 1992).

Women's perspective in the Eastern part of the Europe strikes as shockingly different. While women habituating the Western Europe shared equal rights ever since the 20th century, the situation was strongly unequal in the former parts of the Yugoslavia, and even in the Muslim Turkey. A simple glance towards the

existing literature counts for hundreds of papers depicting gender inequality in former Yugoslavia, and even in the Asian part of the most Occidentalized Muslim territory, Turkey. But even the emancipation of women in Muslim countries (Fox, 1973) differs from what it stood for in the 20th century, and Turkey is probably the most eloquent example. Striving for a European integration that could trigger a market of over 500 million consumers, Turkey continues to remain the most Occidental-looking country from the Muslim "empire". The laws of Atatürk (Abadan-Unat, 1981) have counted for drastic changes in terms of gender equality, leading Turkey on the path of achieving the "Occidental dream". The sacred Muslim law of Shari'a was replaced by a secular civil code, introducing monogamy, ownership property, custody rights, and even strong political representation. No doubt that this led to strong woman emancipation across the country, efforts that were soon applauded by all non-Muslim and Christian European entities. Even so, the gender-friendly adopted rules and regulations had little to no effect in the Turkish perceptions of the day-to-day lifestyle. Although these qualitative indicators of welfare can be hardly quantified, significant changes in the Turkish traditional family and culture were not made. Women continued to obey their husbands and handle them the important decisions, while they managed the household and looked after their offspring. Even with unlimited access to the educational system, including the superior one, it took Turkish women up to half a century to gradually alienate from their former traditions and customs, and embrace a more Occidental lifestyle.

What is quite striking for a Muslim country is Turkey's score in terms of masculinity as depicted by Geert Hofstede's Dimensions of Culture (Hofstede, 1992). According to Hofstede, the country scored 45 in masculinity, which means that Turkey is more of a

feminine society, thus it focuses on the quality of life, and not specifically on gender roles. Feminine cultures also are keener to adopting gender equality in all aspects of life, including in the work field. What Hofstede depicted in his study was later confirmed by the Turkish Empire, especially at the end of the 20th century, and the beginning of the 21st. Bosnia does not benefit from Hofstede's cultural dimensions analysis, although based on the country's profile and background, one could conclude that it still remains a rather closed society, with a high masculinity index. In masculine societies gender equality does not appear in all aspects of life, and it is believed that men should be assertive, while women should be nurturing. Also, sexual inequality is often seen as beneficial, while sex roles are differentiated. Societies with a high masculinity index believe in achievements and are more concerned about the quantitative aspects of life. Power distance index is 66 in Turkey, meaning that there are strong hierarchies in the social life which need to be handled properly. Whether we talk about the difference between employees and their bosses, or between students and their teachers, is clearly that Turkey emphasized on power distribution and on how decisions must be made. The high power distance index will most likely be found in Muslim countries where hierarchies are strongly built and followed by all members of society, but with the mention that elders are usually the one detaining the power.

Indexes about the elementary five dimensions described by Hofstede were only recently brought in literature for the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina (Podrug, Pavicic & Bratic, 2006), and were mainly based on previous researches about the former Yugoslavia territory. According to the more recent researches that also included the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the power distance index (PDI) is 41, uncertainty avoidance (UAI) 63, individualism/ collectivism index

(IDV) is 73, masculinity/ femininity index (MAS) is 83, while the long-term/ short term orientation index (LTO) is 30. The high masculine dimension for Bosnia indicates that the country offers much value to assertiveness, success, accomplishments or competitiveness, while other more "feminine" indicators such as life quality, care for others or cooperation are left aside. However, in this analysis it is important to also take into consideration that in Bosnia and Herzegovina importance of tradition and conservatism play fundamental roles (Baker, 2012).

Politics

Equal opportunities have been always part of the EU agenda. The early commitment to equal pay for men and women, built into the Treaty of Rome in 1957, has developed into an employment strategy concerned with increasing women's participation. Policies regarding part-time work, working time and parental leave, and more recently work-life balance policies and childcare targets show a further concern with the domestic gender inequalities that underpin employment inequalities (Council of the European Union, 2000). More recently an employment strategy has focused on women's employment, with participation targets agreed at the Lisbon summit in 2000, including increasing childcare provision. At the EU level, increasing women's employment is widely seen as a key policy. The UK has moved from male breadwinner assumptions, and from free market ones, in support for "universal childcare". Germany's governments also changed traditional assumptions about gender roles and families. Despite all this policies which help to increase women labour market participation, there remain significant differences between men and women, particularly in the quality of their employment. In Europe, women are more likely to be mothers, with primary responsibility for care, while men are more

likely to be paid workers, with primary responsibility for employment even that these patterns have been changed (Gershuny, 2000). However, gender inequalities in care responsibilities and time are persistent and important factors underlying women's unequal position in labour markets of European countries. Most women still work in typical "women's occupations" and most men in typical "men's occupations". Compared to other European member states, Germany is on a middle position (Smyth & Steinmetz, 2008). More transparency in decisions on employment, promotion, and pay will be one step in improving women's chances on the labour market. Further measures to improve women's chances could be taken by companies to set concrete and sustainable targets for equal pay and more equal proportions of female managers (Busch & Holst, 2011).

In the case of Turkey and Bosnia and Herzegovina, both Muslim countries and recent states, women have sought political equality in the public life. When it comes to Turkey, the past two decades were extremely blooming for the political status of women, reaching a whopping 14% of the total number of seats in the parliament by 2011, comparing to a shallow 0.6% registered in 1950, and 1.8% registered in 1991. The total number of women actively involved in Turkey's current political stage counts for 78 members as of 2011. Turkey went even as far as appointing one woman as Prime Minister (see table no 3. from 1993 to 1996), showing that whatever gender inequalities that might have existed in the past have no longer room in an overly democratic Muslim state. Other important females of the Turkish political stage counted as Ministers of State, Ministers of Tourism, Ministers of National Education, and even Ministers of Justice or Ministers of Foreign Affairs. As Marshall stated (Marshall, 2005), "most of the population in Turkey is Muslim, but for the majority, religion is not the catalyst for becoming politically involved. This

majority can be considered Muslim, but not Islamist. And if religion is not the trigger towards a bigger public appearance of women in politics, what is it? The same author suggests that the only way for women to politically progress in their country of origin is to follow a modern path, similar to the feminist activists in the Western Europe. Parallel to the Western envisioned women, Turkey also counts for the Islamist women who, on the contrary, believe that "progress for women can only be realized when women fulfil the obligations this envisioned Islam requires" (Marshall, 2005). These diametrical opposed visions of Western Turkish women and Islamist ones reflect the very political diversity within the Turkish society, which are still present at the beginning of the 21st century (Blades & Linzer, 2008).

And while Turkey embraced the importance of women in the political life securing, thus, gender equality, Bosnia and Herzegovina did not benefit from the same privilege. As Domistates, (Domi, 2002) "by 1990 in Bosnia, women holding elected office represented a mere one percent of parliamentary bodies". What is even more striking is that when the future elections of 1996 arrived, the percentage of actively political women was less than two points, with the women's party not being able to secure a single seat in the Bosnian parliament. Even more concerning is that although women in Bosnia comprise of nearly 60% from the total population, they continue to be banned from gender equality political dispersion. Women sought seeing the light at the end of the political tunnel only after the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) thought that they could portray "more constructive participants" (Domi, 2002) in the Bosnian parliament. 1998 was finally the year which market quotas for women running for active political functions in the state. Bosnian women also saw an improvement of their overall rights and equalities in the

state, as they currently “benefit” from the privilege of written laws such as Law on Gender Equality, or the gender quota in the Election Law.

Women in Labour market

Some major findings emerge from the literature on the status of women in the labour market. First of all, in the last decades, an increase in female labour force participation took place, particularly for married women. Married women’s labour force participation was at around 2 percent in 1880 and increased very slowly up to 1920, averaging 1 percentage point per decade. It grew somewhat more rapidly between 1920 and 1950 and then took off between 1950 and 1990. Since then, it has stayed relatively constant. Second, the path of female labour force participation follows an “S shape” from the 1960s to the 1990s (Pedersen & Riishøj, 2008; Fernández, 2013). The employment rate for women in the EU28 in 2012 was 58.5%, compared with 69.6% for men. The proportion of women in employment working part-time in the EU28 in 2012 was 31.9%, compared with 8.4% for men. Germany (45 for women, 9.1 for men) is one of the countries with a largest difference between women and men working part time. France (30 for women, 6.4 for men) is not too far away. The gender pay gap, meaning the difference between the average earnings of male and female employees as a share of male earnings, was 16.4% in the EU28 in 2012 (see table no. 2). Germany is one of the countries with the largest gender pay gaps with 22.4%. France has a gender pay gap of 14%. (Eurostat, 2014)

Third, there is evidence that in liberal economies (UK), high-skilled women have more chances to hold a high-status occupation, than in coordinated economies (Germany). Low-skilled women might benefit from institutional patterns such as generous maternity and parental leave schemes, and the strong employment protection prevalent in coordinated market

economies. In countries characterized by a high employment protection, such as Germany and France, the probability of a worker being in low-wage employment is greater for women than for men. However, women have better chances than men to reach high-status occupations in countries with a larger service sectors such as France (Schäfer, Tucci & Gottschall, 2012).

Women’s labour force occupation varies substantially in different countries in Europe. As determined by Hofstede, the cultural dimension of femininity portrays countries where women are more actively engaged in the labour market, and can even obtain leading functions with substantial annual revenues.

Rules and regulations towards gender equality accessibility on the labour market also represent important criteria for labour occupation by women. It was noticed that countries with more breathable legislation women can easily access the labour market and achieve high incomes. Last, but certainly not least, culture and religion confession also count for strong influencing factors in terms of women accessibility to jobs. Western countries with a powerful Catholic influence are more likely to offer same labour opportunities for men and women, (Pascall, 2008) whereas Muslim-majority countries such as Turkey and Bosnia and Herzegovina (Helms, 2008) continue to struggle with “veil” convictions that claim a woman’s role is to look after her family, and not to gain money or to be engaged in socio-economic activities (Donno & Russell, 2004).

According to the last assessment of World Bank (2013), in Bosnia and Herzegovina 38.2% of the total labour force consisted of women. 86% of the total number of women actively engaged in the Bosnian working field have only completed the primary educational system, which means that most likely they gain the minimum monthly wage. However, given the country’s reduced geographical dimensions, as well as the political

instability, lack of infrastructure and lack of a powerful service industry, around 89% of the total labour force in Bosnia (both men and women) only counted for primary education skills. Without a powerful service sector providing high value added jobs women in Bosnia will not be able to improve their economic status and achieve full economic independence. Again, religion plays an important role, as many Muslim women continue to remain obedient to their men and family, without actively engaging in the country's labour force. Labour Force Surveys (2011) quoted by a study of the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2011) in the same year claims that women unemployment rate in Bosnia was of 26.8% by comparison to male unemployment rate of 21.4%. However, minor gender gap of only 5% counts that Bosnia managed to improve its gender equality in the past two decades, as well as women's accessibility to labour.

By comparison, Turkey struggles with "low and declining levels of female labour force participation with only about one-in-four women in the working age population being active in the labour market" (World Bank, 2010). Only 26.7% of the total number of active women currently works in Turkey, leaving the country with the lowest participation rate among OECD countries and EU-19 countries. In fact, even countries that historically reported low levels of women participation in the working field like most Muslim countries (Arabia, Egypt or Morocco) currently score higher in terms of women integration in the working field. Field studies (Kasnakoglu & Dayioglu, 1997) affirmed that the main reason why Turkish women avoid the working field is gender wage inequality, with men gaining even three times more than women in similar working positions (Kagıtcıbası, 1986).

Conclusions

The main finding of our analysis is that there are significant differences between the woman's condition in Western

European countries like France and Germany, as defining parts of the Occidental Europe, and Turkey and Bosnia-Herzegovina, representative for the Balkans and the Islamic part of the continent. In the European Union a higher proportion of young women have a degree, as opposed to men. Even that, high-skilled women have more chances to hold on to a high-status occupation, depending on each country. Gender inequality strikes more of an Eastern problem, especially found in Muslim countries such as Turkey and Bosnia. However, although Turkey claims being the most Occidentalized Muslim country in the world, studies show that in Bosnia gender inequality and women's access to labour market is smaller. Differences in access of women towards education, social and cultural attitudes or politics regarding women have led, in time, to negative effects on women's labour market participation and social status affecting their personal development. While the importance of women in the political life increased in Turkey, Bosnia and Herzegovina did not benefit from the same privilege. Nevertheless it is Bosnia the one having the largest percentage of women actively involved in the working field, whereas Turkey struggles with a huge decline in this area. However, it should be noted that democratic countries successfully managed to integrate women in all aspects of the social life, including into politics. More educated women are more likely to be employed than those with less education, and this praxis is scattered towards the entire European continent.

Women's labour force occupation varies substantially in different European countries. The lack of gender equality in the labour markets also poses a threat to productivity growth and competitiveness in globalized and knowledge-intense national economies. Women continue to fight against a certain gender inequality in the majority of the European countries, Muslim and Christian alike. However,

gender inequalities percentage is much diminished in Western-European countries with a tradition in democracy. Turkey, as the main candidate for a future EU extension should more accurately revise its politics towards the integration of women in the working field should it want to adhere to the European free space. On the other hand, although filled with bloody wars and political insecurity, Bosnia, in just two short decades of merely democracy already learned the perks of women social integration. However, it confronts itself with low wages and poor education, both for men and women.

In the end, the paper seeks to draw the attention upon the unequal social status of women in the European countries, emphasizing on the problems women confront with in Muslim-major states. The main reason for why women do not engage themselves in a higher proportion into the working field is because they lack proper high education and skills, matter which could be easily solved by adjusting local policies.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Table no. 1

Education in EU, 2012

	<i>Early leavers from education and training, 2012(% of women and % for men aged 18 to 24)</i>		<i>Tertiary education attainment, 2012 (% of women and % of men in employment aged 30 to 34)</i>		<i>Female tertiary education graduates by field of study, 2011 (% of graduates in the field)</i>			
	women	men	women	men	<i>Education & training</i>	<i>Health & welfare</i>	<i>Science, mathematics & computing</i>	<i>Engineering</i>
EU 28	10,9	14,4	39,9	31,5	79,1	76,0	40,8	26,6
Belgium	9,5	14,4	50,7	37,1	75,4	76,1	30,1	21,4
Bulgaria	13,0	12,1	33,6	20,5	79,5	72,9	51,0	33,4
Czech Republic	4,9	6,1	29,1	22,4	82,0	83,1	39,4	26,9
Denmark	7,4	10,8	52,6	33,7	74,4	81,0	36,9	38,7
Germany	9,9	11,3	32,9	31,0	76,2	78,2	43,6	18,2
Estonia	7,1	14,0	50,4	28,1	93,3	92,5	45,4	31,1
Ireland	8,2	11,2	57,9	44,0	76,2	79,4	40,4	16,9
Greece	9,1	13,7	34,2	27,6	76,4	72,7	46,7	32,7
Spain	20,8	28,8	45,3	35,0	77,2	76,1	36,2	27,2
France	9,8	13,4	48,6	38,5	78,4	73,3	36,2	25,5
Croatia	3,6	4,6	28,8	19,4	94,0	76,2	52,6	28,1
Italy	14,5	20,5	26,3	17,2	87,6	67,6	53,9	33,0
Cyprus	7,0	16,5	55,5	43,6	83,5	59,7	46,0	50,4
Latvia	6,3	14,7	48,1	26,2	90,0	93,7	35,3	25,8
Lithuania	4,6	8,1	56,7	40,3	79,4	85,2	39,8	23,2
Luxembourg	5,5	10,7	48,9	50,4	66,8	68,2	33,6	22,2
Hungary	10,7	12,2	35,5	24,7	80,7	79,1	33,3	22,9
Malta	17,6	27,5	24,0	20,7	79,6	72,3	50,7	29,2
Netherlands	7,3	10,2	44,6	39,8	79,9	74,8	25,2	20,0
Austria	7,3	7,9	26,6	26,0	79,3	70,3	35,4	19,6
Poland	3,5	7,8	46,5	31,9	81,7	76,0	44,8	33,9
Portugal	14,3	27,1	30,1	24,3	81,5	78,9	55,1	31,2
Romania	16,7	18,0	23,2	20,5	95,1	71,7	60,7	35,4
Slovenia	3,2	5,4	49,6	29,5	87,0	81,8	39,9	24,4
Slovakia	4,6	6,0	28,2	19,4	77,4	83,1	42,5	30,5
Finland	8,1	9,8	55,4	36,7	81,2	83,5	44,7	22,4
Sweden	6,3	8,5	53,7	42,4	79,3	82,5	40,0	29,7
UK	12,4	14,7	50,2	44,0	75,5	76,8	36,7	21,4
Iceland	16,5	23,6	51,2	34,5	82,7	87,6	47,4	40,3
Norway	11,9	17,6	55,9	39,9	74,5	83,4	33,7	26,5
Switzerland	5,3	5,7	40,5	47,2	69,8	71,3	31,2	13,0
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	12,3	11,1	22,6	20,8	70,4	73,4	44,1	33,4
Turkey	43,0	36,1	16,2	19,8	59,9	60,4	46,1	24,5

Source: Eurostat Press Office 8 March 2014

Appendix B

Table no.2

Employment in EU, 2012

	<i>Employment rate (population aged 15-64)</i>		<i>Part-time employment (% of women and % of men in employment aged 15-64)</i>		<i>Gender pay gap</i>
	<i>women</i>	<i>men</i>	<i>women</i>	<i>men</i>	
EU 28	58,5	69,6	31,9	8,4	16,4
Belgium	56,8	66,9	43,5	9,0	10,0
Bulgaria	56,3	61,3	2,5	2,0	14,7
Czech Republic	58,2	75,2	8,6	2,2	22,0
Denmark	70,0	77,6	35,8	14,8	14,9
Germany	68,0	69,7	45,0	9,1	22,4
Estonia	64,7	62,7	13,2	5,1	30,0
Ireland	55,1	60	34,9	13,3	14,4
Greece	41,9	60,2	11,8	4,7	15,0
Spain	50,6	68,0	24,4	6,5	17,8
France	60,0	55,1	30,0	6,4	14,8
Croatia	46,2	66,5	7,5	5,2	18,0
Italy	47,1	70,4	31,0	6,7	6,7
Cyprus	59,4	64,4	13,1	6,4	16,2
Latvia	61,7	62,2	11,0	6,7	13,8
Lithuania	61,8	72,5	10,7	6,9	12,6
Luxembourg	59,0	62,5	36,1	4,7	8,6
Hungary	52,1	73,3	9,3	4,3	20,1
Malta	44,2	79,7	26,0	5,7	6,1
Netherlands	70,4	77,8	76,9	24,9	16,9
Austria	67,3	66,3	44,4	7,8	23,4
Poland	53,1	64,9	10,6	4,5	6,4
Portugal	58,7	66,5	14,1	8,2	15,7
Romania	52,6	67,4	9,7	8,6	9,7
Slovenia	60,5	66,7	12,2	6,3	2,5
Slovakia	52,7	70,5	5,5	2,8	21,5
Finland	68,2	75,6	19,4	9,1	19,4
Sweden	71,8	75,2	38,6	12,5	15,9
United Kingdom	65,1	75,2	42,3	11,5	19,1
Iceland	77,8	81,5	31,4	10,9	18,7
Norway	73,8	77,6	41,5	14,3	15,1
Switzerland	73,6	85,2	60,1	12,8	17,9
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	35,3	52,4	6,9	5,6	-
Turkey	28,7	69,2	23,8	6,3	-

Source: Eurostat Press Office 8 March 2014

Appendix C

Table no. 3

Women in Turkish Ministers, 1979 – 2014

<i>No.</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Political function</i>
1.	<u>TürkânAkyol</u>	Minister of Health and Social Security Minister of State (Family)
2.	NerminNeftçi	Minister of Culture
3.	İmrenAykut	Minister of Labour and Social Security Minister of State Minister of Environment
4.	Gülerİleri	Minister of State
5.	Aysel Baykal	Minister of State
6.	ÖnayAlpago	Minister of State
7.	IşılAySaygın	Minister of State Minister of Environment Minister of Tourism
8.	AyferYılmaz	Minister of State
9.	<u>TansuÇiller</u>	Minister of Foreign Affairs
10.	<u>MeralAkşener</u>	Minister of Interior
11.	<u>TayyibeGüleker</u>	Minister of State
12.	Melda Bayer	Minister of State
13.	AyselÇelikel	Minister of Justice
14.	<u>GüldalAkşit</u>	Minister of Tourism Minister of State
15.	<u>NimetBaş</u>	Minister of State Minister of National Education
16.	Selma AliyeKavaf	Minister of State
17.	<u>FatmaŞahin</u>	Minister of Family and Social Policies

Source: Personal adaptation of data according to Turkish official Ministry data.