

Gender-Based Pressures and Income Distribution Among Employees in Türkiye

Arınç BOZ¹

¹ Asst. Prof. Dr., Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit University, FEAS, arincboz@hotmail.com, ORCID: 0000-0002-4936-1339

Abstract: This research has a twofold purpose. First, it addresses the issues faced by employees in Türkiye in terms of the public and private sectors, with a focus on their experiences of gender-based pressure. Secondly, the analysis examined whether there is a gender dimension in the distribution of the income earned by employees. A microdata analysis was conducted using the 2023 TURKSTAT Life Satisfaction Survey (LSS) and Household Budget Survey (HBS). The frequency distributions of the data obtained through microdata analysis were examined. Within the scope of the study, 9,595 observations in the LSS and 34,496 observations in the HBS were analyzed. The analysis investigated the problems of public and private sector employees, the social pressure experienced by public and private sector employees, and the total income of employees by gender. According to the LSS findings, female public-sector employees have faced more problems compared to those in the private sector. Women in both sectors experience significant social pressure due to their gender, with the lowest level of pressure coming from their friends. In contrast, men report lower levels of gender-based pressure, with the highest pressure stemming from their political views. Furthermore, the research reveals that 1 in 10 individuals working in the private sector lack registration with the Social Security Institution. The study analyzed the distribution of individuals' total income using Gini coefficients and percentage share analysis techniques. The Gini coefficient was calculated as 0.394 for men and 0.422 for women, indicating a more unequal income distribution among women.

Keywords: Gender-Based Pressures, Income Distribution, Türkiye

Jel Codes: H24, O15, J16

Türkiye'de Çalışanların Toplumsal Cinsiyet Baskıları ve Gelir Dağılımı

Öz: Bu araştırmanın iki yönlü amacı bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak Türkiye'de çalışanların kamu ve özel sektör açısından sorunları ve toplumsal cinsiyet baskısı hissetme durumları ele alınmıştır. İkinci olarak ise çalışanların elde ettiği gelirlerin dağılımının cinsiyete yönelik bir boyutu olup olmadığı analiz edilmiştir. 2023 yılı TÜİK Yaşam Memnuniyeti Araştırması (YMA) ve Hanehalkı Bütçe Anketleriyle (HBA) mikro veri analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Mikro veri analizle elde edilen verilerin frekans dağılımları ele alınmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında YMA'da 9.595, HBA'da ise 34.496 örneklem incelenmiştir. Analiz içerisinde kamu ve özel sektör çalışanlarının sorunları, kamu ve özel sektör çalışanlarının hissettikleri toplumsal baskı ve çalışanların cinsiyetlerine göre toplam gelirleri incelenmiştir. YMA bulgularına göre kadın kamu çalışanları, özel sektör çalışanlarına göre daha fazla sorunla yüzleşmektedir. Her iki sektörde de kadınlar en fazla toplumsal baskıyı cinsiyetlerinden dolayı yaşamaktadır. Kadınlar en düşük seviyede baskıyı ise arkadaşlarından görmektedir. Erkeklerde ise cinsiyet baskısı düşük olup en fazla baskının siyasi görüşlerinden kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Ayrıca özel sektörde her 10 kişiden 1'inin SGK'ye kayıtlı olmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmada bireylerin elde ettikleri toplam gelirlerin dağılımı Gini katsayıları ve yüzde paylar analizi teknikleriyle analiz edilmiştir. Erkeklerde 0,394; kadınlarda 0,422 olarak hesaplanan çalışanların Gini katsayıları kadınlar arasında gelirin daha eşitsiz dağıldığını göstermektedir. Yüzde paylar analizinde de bu bulguyu destekler nitelikte bir sonuç elde edilmiştir. Politik karar alıcıların kadın istihdamında cinsiyet ayrımcılığına karşı hukuksal dayanak oluşturma, iş yaşamında kadınlara yönelik pozitif ayrımcılık yapma, çocuk bakımındaki hakların artırılması ile eğitim

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programlarıyla farkındalık yaratma gibi politikalar uygulayarak çalışanlara yönelik kararlar alması gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Toplumsal Cinsiyet Baskıları, Gelir Dağılımı, Türkiye

Jel Kodları: H24, O15, J16

1. Introduction

Income is undoubtedly a multidimensional concept. Income distribution may vary depending on factors such as age, gender, educational attainment, marital status, individual capabilities, occupational group, social class, and environment. Income distribution, which denotes the allocation of national income among individuals, thus represents a multifaceted phenomenon shaped by these and similar determinants.

Countries pursue a range of economic objectives. Achieving a nation in which full employment coexists with price stability, alongside the realization of growth and development goals, represents a target that many nations strive to attain. The prevailing conditions of workers are closely linked to economic growth and the efficiency and effectiveness of production. Within this framework, the present study is limited to examining gender-related constraints in the workforce and the distribution of income. Addressing these gender-related issues is crucial, as they can significantly impact overall economic performance and equity within societies. By identifying and mitigating barriers faced by women and other marginalized groups, countries can foster a more inclusive labor market that promotes sustainable growth and development for all.

Among the 43 OECD countries, Türkiye has the lowest female employment in terms of gender-based labor participation (OECD, 2021). Furthermore, in 2024, Türkiye ranks 116th out of 130 countries regarding the proportion of women in middle and senior management positions (Our World in Data, 2024). According to the Global Gender Gap Report, Türkiye ranks 135th out of 148 countries in terms of gender inequality (World Economic Forum, 2025). All of these indicators underscore the increasing necessity of gender-focused initiatives in Türkiye.

Although the issue of income distribution has been addressed from different perspectives in both national and international literature, research specifically focusing on employees in Türkiye remains limited (Karaman & Özçalık, 2007; Kubar, 2011; Sapancalı, 2007). In this regard, the present study, which is designed to examine employees, is expected to contribute to the literature. Beyond economic growth, one of the development objectives of countries is the establishment of gender equality. Gender equality enhances economic efficiency and strengthens opportunities for future generations. Therefore, identifying gender-related problems in different societies and formulating policies aimed at reducing inequalities are essential (World Bank, 2011, p. vii). Furthermore, investigating the intersection of gender disparities and income distribution is crucial for understanding the structural barriers that hinder inclusive development. Addressing these inequalities not only promotes social justice but also ensures a more sustainable and balanced economic trajectory. By situating the Turkish case within the broader international context, this study seeks to highlight both the common challenges and the country-specific dynamics shaping income distribution and gender equality.

In studies on gender, a considerable portion of the income statistics produced include household-related variables. In such research, when individuals' total incomes are adjusted according to the number of household members, it creates the misleading assumption that each member of the household receives an equal share of income. This, in turn, makes it impossible to conduct gender-specific evaluations—particularly with respect to income, but also regarding behavior, lifestyle, social norms, and the pressures faced by men and women (Ponthieux & Meurs, 2015, p. 985). Although gender and income

distribution issues can be analyzed using aggregated data and framed through macro indicators, their essence requires examining the data of individual persons. Therefore, the study of income distribution between genders must be conducted using micro-level data. By integrating micro-level evidence, this research contributes an empirical perspective that allows for a more nuanced understanding of income disparities. Its originality stems not only from examining income distribution among employees in Türkiye through the lens of gender using up-to-date microdata, but also from illuminating the structural gender-based constraints that shape these dynamics. In doing so, the study offers policy-relevant insights for promoting equitable and inclusive economic development.

In this context, the study aims to address a significant gap in the literature by utilizing individual-level microdata rather than relying predominantly on macro-level analyses. While existing research on income inequality and income distribution has provided valuable insights, studies employing microdata remain relatively scarce (Acker, 1988; Gasparini et al., 2004; Maldonado, 2021; Malik & Akram, 2024; Sutherland, 1997). Moreover, the existing literature predominantly investigates social pressure within contexts that lie outside the sphere of working life (Helfert & Warschur, 2013; Royce et al., 1997; Spilker et al., 2024; Ulutürk-Akman, 2021). This study offers policy-relevant insights for promoting equitable and inclusive economic development in working life and contributes to both the national and international literature.

In examining gender-based constraints and income distribution among employees in Türkiye, the study employs the microdata provided by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT) through the Life Satisfaction Survey (LSS) and the Household Budget Survey (HBS), both of which offer individual-level data. Accordingly, a microdata analysis was conducted for the year 2023. Within this framework, individuals' employment status was disaggregated by public and private sectors, and their experiences of challenges and gender-related pressures were analyzed by sex. These assessments were based on responses to the LSS. Evaluations of income distribution, on the other hand, were carried out using Gini coefficients and income share analysis.

The structure of the paper is as follows: It begins by addressing issues of gender, income distribution, and social pressures. The second section discusses the theoretical framework and current debates in the field. The third section outlines the methodology and provides details on the microdata employed in the analysis. The findings are presented in the fourth section, focusing on the challenges faced by employees and the gender-based pressures they encounter, differentiated by public and private sector employment, as well as the distribution of total income by gender. The paper concludes with a general evaluation of the results and offers policy recommendations derived from the empirical evidence.

2. Gender, Social Pressures, and Income Distribution

In everyday life, the terms woman and man primarily denote the biological categories of female and male, reflecting the biological dimension of sex. However, beyond this biological distinction, these concepts evolve into social constructs of woman and man through the system of roles ascribed to individuals by society. Above all, this process constitutes a sociological construction. Society embeds individuals within various behavioral patterns from the moment of birth. The construction of gender begins even before birth—for instance, with the colors chosen by families for items prepared for the expected child—and continues after birth through markers such as hair length and style, clothing, behaviors, attitudes, and social roles (Vatandaş, 2011, p. 30).

Although the term *gender* is often used in everyday language without distinction, it differs in both biological and social dimensions. The concepts of *sex* and *gender* are sometimes used interchangeably, yet they carry different meanings. As noted by Ann Oakley (1972) in her book *Sex, Gender and Society*, *sex* refers to the biological distinction between women and men, whereas *gender* denotes the roles and responsibilities associated with femininity and masculinity. While the traditional perspective continues

to assume that these two concepts are synonymous, an extensive body of literature has emerged emphasizing their distinct meanings (Muehlenhard & Peterson, 2011; Rubin, 1975; Unger, 1979; Unger & Crawford, 1993).

Social pressure, commonly referred to in everyday Turkish language as *mahalle baskısı* (peer pressure), represents the sanctioning power exerted by society over individual behavior. It is closely associated with fears of expulsion, marginalization, exclusion, or loss of status within a group. One dimension of social pressure that manifests in various forms within the social structure is gender-related. Gender-based pressures are evident across different spheres of daily life, particularly as a result, of patriarchal domination (İlhan, 2025, p. 5). It is possible to say that the impact of social pressure is greater on women than on men. Especially in less developed or developing societies, women tend to face more severe and widespread pressures due to traditional structures. Such pressures are not easily altered, as deviating from established behavioral patterns and social rituals is often met with disapproval. The lack of societal support for change may further increase the level of pressure faced by individuals who seek to move beyond prevailing norms, behaviors, and roles. In this regard, gender inequality signifies that women are subjected to deeper and more pervasive forms of social pressure (Ulutürk-Akman, 2021, pp. 94–95).

In contemporary society, income is distributed among individuals according to various criteria. Factors such as physical condition, environment, abilities, possession of capital, as well as diversity in knowledge and skills, and class differences play a role in this distribution. Beyond these distinctions, individuals may find themselves in disadvantaged positions due to reasons such as racial and ethnic differences, being born with a physical disability, lack of equal opportunities, or limited access to education. One such disadvantage is gender-based. Today, women encounter inequalities in political, cultural, social, and economic spheres for various reasons. Among these, one of the most prominent economic inequalities manifests in terms of income distribution in labor force. This disparity not only affects women's financial independence but also limits their ability to make choices that can improve their overall quality of life. Addressing these economic inequalities is crucial for fostering a more equitable society where everyone has the opportunity to thrive, regardless of gender.

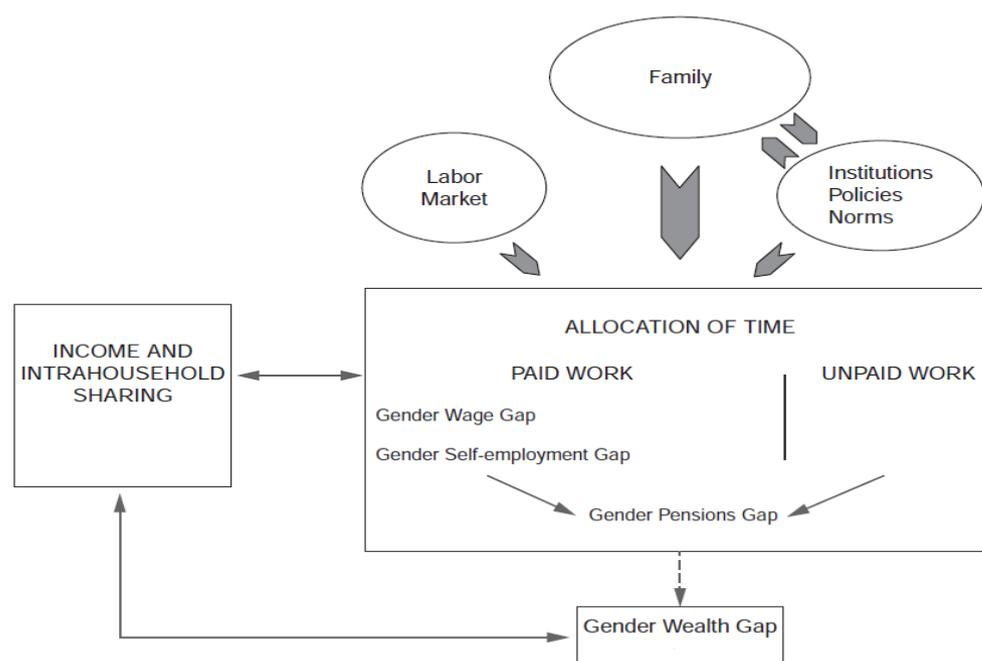


Figure 1. Dimensions of Gender in Economy (**Resource:** Ponthieux, S., Meurs, D. (2015). Gender inequality. In A. B. Atkinson, F. Bourguignon (Ed.), *Handbook of Income Distribution*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 983-1119)

The Figure 1 illustrates how structural, institutional, and household-level factors interact to create persistent gendered inequalities in economic outcomes. It highlights that gender gaps in wealth are not isolated phenomena, but rather the cumulative result of disparities in wages, employment opportunities, pensions, and the unequal distribution of unpaid labor.

From the perspective of employees, the central issue illustrated in the Figure 1 is how time is divided between paid and unpaid work. Male employees are generally able to allocate more time to paid employment, whereas female employees often face a “double burden,” balancing paid work with a disproportionate share of unpaid household and caregiving responsibilities. This unequal distribution of time limits women’s capacity to fully engage in and advance within the labor market. Employees’ experiences in the labor market are also shaped by structural inequalities such as the gender wage gap, where women are frequently paid less than men for equivalent work, and the gender self-employment gap, reflecting the obstacles women encounter in entrepreneurial activity. These disparities directly constrain female employees’ earnings and career progression.

3. Theoretical Framework and Discussions

The historical trajectory of women and their rights, grounded in feminist thought. At the close of the eighteenth century, Europe witnessed an intense intellectual and political controversy commonly referred to as the “woman question.” The debate centered on the nature of women, their appropriate role within society, and the extent to which they should be entitled to political rights. Prominent feminist thinkers such as Olympe de Gouges, Mary Wollstonecraft, and Theodor Gottlieb von Hippel articulated in their writings the principle of sexual equality, advocating expanded educational opportunities and, in some cases, the extension of suffrage to women (Clinton, 1975, p. 283).

Some scholars trace the origins of feminist thought to figures such as Sappho in ancient Greece (d. c. 570 BCE), or to medieval women like Hildegard of Bingen (d. 1179) and Christine de Pisan (d. 1434). Likewise, Olympe de Gouge (d. 1791), Mary Wollstonecraft (d. 1797), and Jane Austen (d. 1817) are often regarded as early precursors of the modern women’s movement. These individuals championed the dignity, intellect, and inherent human capacities of women. Nevertheless, a distinctly recognizable and self-aware campaign for women’s equality (Rampton, 2015).

Feminism, first articulated as a concept in the nineteenth century, has developed into a multifaceted movement aimed at dismantling gender-based inequalities and transforming women’s private and public roles within society. However, the concept was introduced in 1837 by the utopian thinker and Charles Fournier (1772–1837) in response to emerging organized movements advocating for women’s suffrage. Scholars commonly describe its historical trajectory in terms of four “waves.” (Malinowska, 2020).

The first wave of feminism arose in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in Western contexts, centering on the struggle for women’s suffrage. The second wave developed during the 1960s, shaped by growing awareness among marginalized groups and influenced by the civil rights and anti-war movements. This phase primarily emphasized advancing the rights and autonomy of minority communities, particularly in relation to reproductive freedom and sexual politics (Rampton, 2015).

The third wave, emerging in the 1990s, intersected with technological change, emphasizing diversity, individual identity, and the use of digital spaces as tools for feminist expression and activism. In many regions, a key characteristic of the third wave was its overlap with the slow—and still incomplete—incorporation of feminist actors and feminist thought into the sphere of mainstream political processes (Molyneux et al., 2021).

Since the 2010s, the fourth wave has been characterized by transnational mobilization through social media platforms, addressing sexual violence, workplace discrimination, and media sexism, while amplifying voices from beyond the Western context. Together, these four waves reflect feminism’s evolving strategies and its enduring commitment to achieving gender equality (Malinowska, 2020).

One of the most significant social changes in the latter half of the twentieth century was the increasing integration of women into the labor force. Parallel to this development, women's educational attainment not only reached parity with men's but, in many advanced economies, surpassed it. Technological advancements further expanded women's access to a wider range of occupations. Since the 1970s, what Goldin (2006) terms a "quiet revolution" has transformed not only women's expectations regarding career and family life but also broader societal perceptions of gender roles. Today, in most industrialized nations, women's participation in paid employment has become the norm; dual-earner households now outnumber traditional "male breadwinner" families; gender equality has been adopted as an explicit policy objective, and legal frameworks in many countries prohibit gender-based discrimination. Nevertheless, despite these advances, women's labor market outcomes continue to lag behind those of men. This situation causes women in disadvantaged positions in income distribution.

Major challenges faced by human societies in the 21st century is the issue of income and its distribution. When left solely to market mechanisms, income is distributed according to factors such as individuals' abilities, physical condition, possession of capital, social environment, and knowledge and skills. However, circumstances such as skin color, race, physical disability, unequal opportunities, limited access to education, or being born in disadvantaged geographical regions can place individuals in marginalized positions. One of the disadvantages individuals may encounter is being born as a woman—that is, inequalities related to gender. Women face inequalities and injustices in environmental, cultural, social, and economic spheres. In the economic context, one of the most evident inequalities is the unequal distribution of income. When left to the market, income tends to be distributed unevenly, yet the government can intervene through various policies to ensure a fairer distribution. Public policies specifically targeting women in economic and social domains can also be implemented. Measures that mitigate the impact of motherhood responsibilities—such as parental leave regulations, social incentive policies, and awareness-raising initiatives in workplaces—may be adopted to facilitate women's participation in the labor market and their access to income, thereby contributing to a more equitable income distribution.

Dimension of academic debates on income distribution concerns the role of the government. In the economic literature, the classical approach, whose foundations were laid in the 18th century, opposed government intervention in the market, arguing that such interference could be legitimate only under certain limited circumstances. Since, in classical economic thought, income is distributed according to the conditions of supply and demand in the market, a fair distribution may not necessarily emerge. This situation gave rise to the necessity of public intervention in the market (Sandmo, 1998, pp. 17–18). The classical economic approach, established by Adam Smith (1776), remained dominant until the Great Depression of 1929. However, the inability of the classical school to provide solutions to the crisis revealed the need for active government intervention in the market, leading to the emergence of Keynes (1936). Over time, beginning in the mid-20th century, the concept of the welfare state came to the fore. This concept refers to a structure that provides individuals with social security and protects them against social risks. The notion of the welfare state emphasizes that issues such as income distribution, social justice, and workers' problems should fall within the scope of government intervention (Briggs, 1961, p. 228).

Today, the pressure of women manifests itself in various domains, including social, economic, and professional life. The exclusion of women from the labor market reduces resource efficiency and negatively affects economic growth. Gender-based inequality and injustice hinder human development by lowering labor productivity. Consequently, this distortion in the allocation of resources across labor, capital, and raw material markets restrains economic growth (Rao et al., 2008). In a study on women's position in working life, Knudsen (1969) found evidence that as the number of women in an occupation increases, the average income in that profession declines. Similarly, Fuchs (1971) noted

that women are more likely than men to work in low-income occupations. Another critical point in the discussion of men's and women's participation in professional life is the impact of social pressures and stereotypes associated with gender. Due to societal expectations placed on men and women in the workplace, success is predominantly associated with men. The values socially attributed to men, such as leadership and authority, have reinforced gender-based discrimination in higher-level positions such as managers, directors, and supervisors. This, in turn, has led women to earn lower incomes compared to men (Robertson et al., 2011).

The impact of social pressure on individual behavior may manifest differently across genders (Zheng et al., 2017). Royce et al. (1997), in a study conducted across 20 regions in the United States, found that women experienced twice as much social pressure as men when it came to quitting smoking. Similarly, Helfert and Warschurger (2013), in a study involving 1,112 German students in grades 7 to 9, reported that women faced greater pressure due to their physical appearance. Spilker et al. (2024) conducted an intriguing study examining soccer referees by gender. The findings revealed that female referees were more likely than male referees to make decisions in favor of the home team during matches with large audiences. This result can be interpreted as women being more strongly affected by social pressure. Furthermore, Pokorski et al. (2024) investigated in which areas working mothers felt social pressure and how the COVID-19 pandemic influenced their professional lives. The study sample consisted of academic mothers living in the United States with at least one child and an income above \$80,000. 88% of the participants stated that having children changed their perspective on professional life. More than one-quarter of them reported that motherhood had affected their career advancement. Additionally, 60% of the mothers indicated that they faced social pressure to be "better mothers," with 38% reporting that such pressure was exerted through social media.

In addition to international literature, there are also a limited number of national studies on social pressure. A noteworthy study on this subject was conducted by Ulutürk-Akman (2021). Using TURKSTAT's 2019 Income and Living Conditions microdata, a logistic regression model was employed to analyze whether individuals' experiences of social pressure regarding marital status, gender, and clothing varied by gender. The analysis revealed that women were subjected to significantly greater social pressure than men in relation to their marital status, gender, and clothing. This finding reflects an indicator of gender inequality. In another study, İlhan (2025) conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews in the province of Şanlıurfa, where patriarchal social structures prevail. Interviews were carried out with 20 women aged between 18 and 40, of whom 10 were married and 10 were single. The findings indicated that the patriarchal structure, tribal system, and traditional social organization in Şanlıurfa continue to exert a strong influence.

Another dimension of gender is its relationship with income. Henle and Ryscavage (1980) examined the relationship between gender and income distribution in the United States between 1958 and 1977, finding evidence of income inequality to the disadvantage of women. Fritzell (1999), using the 1991 Swedish Income and Living Conditions Survey microdata, also found evidence of income inequality between men and women. Gasparini et al. (2004), drawing on microdata from the Bolivian Household Survey focusing on wage earners, reported income inequality disadvantaging women. They further emphasized that reducing gender wage inequality would contribute to greater fairness in income distribution. Pasqua (2008) investigated the impact of women's labor force participation on household income between 1994 and 2001 and observed that in heterosexual families where women worked, income was distributed more equitably compared to households where only the man was employed. In another study, Maldonado (2021) analyzed Venezuelan Household Survey microdata from 1985 to 2015 and found that women earned 21% less than men. Similarly, Malik and Akram (2024), using Pakistan Labor Force

Surveys from 2020 to 2021, observed that women received lower wage income compared to men.

The predominant methodology employed in a substantial body of research on the gender wage gap is the decomposition approach, originally introduced by the seminal contributions of Oaxaca (1973) and Blinder (1973). This framework conceptualizes the wage differential between men and women as the sum of two components: differences in the “quantities” of productive characteristics and differences in the “prices” of these characteristics, reflected in the estimated returns. Over time, the decomposition method has been refined and expanded to address various analytical needs—for instance, to account for temporal changes in the unexplained portion of the wage gap (Juhn et al., 1991, 1993), to incorporate quantile-based analyses (Albrecht et al., 2003; Machado and Mata, 2005).

In the national literature, several studies have investigated the relationship between gender inequality and working life. Acun (2018), drawing upon the 2015 Turkish Household Budget Survey, identified that being a woman was a factor negatively influencing wage income. This finding underscores the persistent structural barriers that disadvantage women in the labor market. Similarly, Değirmenci (2019), using data from the Turkish Income and Living Conditions Surveys (2007–2011), examined the dynamics of gender and income inequality. The analysis revealed that increasing the labor force participation of women, particularly those residing in low-income households, would play a crucial role in improving income distribution. Furthermore, the study suggested that eliminating gender gaps in labor force participation would not only mitigate gender inequality but also serve as an effective mechanism for reducing income inequality more broadly. These insights reinforce the importance of inclusive labor market policies that address structural disadvantages faced by women and highlight the interconnectedness of gender equality and economic equity.

4. Research Methodology and Data Set

Men and women face numerous challenges, one of which arises in working life. In order to enhance participation and productivity in national production, women should be included in the labor market under equal conditions with men. Although in today's societies the economic status of men and women has begun to converge, differences in income acquisition may still emerge due to factors such as gender-based wage gaps, the tendency for women to be forced into part-time work, the social pressures faced by working women, and the restrictions on their participation in working life. While this issue has been examined in the literature from various perspectives, it can be argued that there remains a gap in the literature concerning the measurement of income and other disparities between men and women, primarily due to the limited availability of individual-level microdata (Ponthieux & Meurs, 2015). The originality of this study lies in its analysis of 2023 data for Türkiye, using individual microdata to investigate whether disparities exist not only by gender but also by employment sector (public vs. private) and by income levels. In this context, I have analyzed microdata from the 2023 LSS and HBS published by TURKSTAT.

The primary objective of the LSS is to measure individuals' overall perceptions of happiness, their satisfaction with life, social values, and levels of satisfaction with public services, as well as to monitor changes in these aspects over time (TURKSTAT, 2023a). This survey was preferred since it also includes questions related to social pressures, providing the opportunity to observe the situation of employees in this regard. The HBS on the other hand, provide information about the socio-economic structures and living standards of households and individuals (TURKSTAT, 2023b). HBS was chosen because it contains data on individuals' economic conditions, income, employment status, and gender simultaneously. At the beginning of the microdata analyses conducted in this study, the most up-to-date produced data were preferred.

In this study, the responses provided by individuals regarding social pressures were classified, and income calculations were carried out using Microsoft Excel. For income distribution analyses, the STATA program was employed. In order to make the data examined in both LSS and HBS suitable for analysis, certain classifications were required. In the LSS, working individuals were first separated. The responses of these working individuals to survey questions were then differentiated according to their gender and their employment in the public or private sector. In the HBS, however, there is no direct information regarding the sectors in which individuals are employed. Instead, data are provided on the type of health insurance individuals benefit from. Therefore, it was assumed that those who selected the government retirement fund option were employed in the public sector, while the others were employed in the private sector. With regard to income, the total income earned by individuals was taken into account.

Table 1. Data Description

Survey Method	Number of Individuals
LSS	9,595
HBS	34,496

Resource: Constructed by the author based on LSS and HBS.

Table 1 provides an overview of the 2023 dataset analyzed in this study. LSS contains information on 9,595 individuals, whereas the HBS includes data on 34,496 individuals. For the purpose of the analysis, the datasets were systematically disaggregated according to individuals' employment status, sector of employment, and gender.

5. Research Findings

In this section of the study, the findings are presented. By distinguishing between the public and private sectors, the problems faced by employees, their perceptions regarding social pressures, and their total income are examined according to gender. To measure income inequality, Gini coefficients, developed by Corrado Gini (1912), were employed along with the percentile share analysis, which classifies individual incomes into percentile groups. The Gini coefficient ranges between 0 and 1, with values closer to 0 indicating a more equitable income distribution. In addition to these analyses, the conditions of employees in Türkiye and worldwide, as well as gender discrimination in working life, were discussed using various indicators.

Table 2. Problems of Public Sector Employees-2023 (%)

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Distribution by Gender		62.7		37.3
Social Security Registration Status	-	-	-	-
Are there any administrative problems in your workplace?	11	89	10	90
Are there any problems related to wage differences in your workplace?	25.3	74.7	28.9	71.1
Are there any problems regarding the amount of wages in your workplace?	28.7	71.3	31.8	68.2
Are there any problems related to working conditions in your workplace?	15.2	84.8	19.1	71.1
Are there any problems regarding the timely payment of wages in your workplace?	-	-	-	-
Are there any problems regarding underpayment of wages in your workplace?	-	-	-	-
Are there any problems in taking one or two hours off during working hours to deal with personal or family matters in your workplace?	7.8	92.2	11.8	88.2

Resource: Constructed by the author based on LSS and HBS.

Table 2 presents the problems faced by public sector employees in Türkiye in 2023, disaggregated by gender. The distribution shows that 62.7% of respondents were men and 37.3% were women. When workplace-related issues are considered, both men and women reported some degree of problems, but the patterns differ slightly by gender. For instance, administrative problems were reported by 11% of men and 10% of women, indicating relatively low prevalence and little gender difference. However, issues related to wage differences were more pronounced: 25.3% of men and 28.9% of women acknowledged experiencing such problems. Similarly, problems concerning the amount of wages were reported by 28.7% of men and 31.8% of women, again suggesting that women are more likely than men to identify wage-related issues.

With respect to working conditions, 15.2% of men and 19.1% of women reported difficulties, reflecting higher sensitivity among women. In contrast, no problems were reported by either group regarding the timely payment of wages or underpayment, indicating relative stability in these aspects of the public sector. A final noteworthy dimension concerns flexibility at work. The ability to take one or two hours off during working hours for personal or family matters was reported as a problem by 7.8% of men and 11.8% of women. This gender gap illustrates that women face more barriers in reconciling work and family responsibilities, consistent with broader literature on work-life balance and gender inequality.

Table 3. Problems of Private Sector Employees-2023 (%)

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Distribution by Gender	72.3		27.7	
Social Security Registration Status	Yes- Both Genders 90		No-Both Genders 10	
Are there any administrative problems in your workplace?	6.4	93.6	6.5	93.5
Are there any problems related to wage differences in your workplace?	14	86	8.1	91.9
Are there any problems regarding the amount of wages in your workplace?	22.7	77.3	13.7	86.3
Are there any problems related to working conditions in your workplace?	15	85	12.3	87.7
Are there any problems regarding the timely payment of wages in your workplace?	5.9	94.1	4.9	95.1
Are there any problems regarding underpayment of wages in your workplace?	4	96	3	97
Are there any problems in taking one or two hours off during working hours to deal with personal or family matters in your workplace?	11	89	9	91

Resource: Constructed by the author based on LSS and HBS.

Table 3 presents the survey results on the problems of private sector employees in percentage terms. According to the findings, the most notable problem reported by employees concerns the amount of wages (22.7%). In contrast, the least reported issue is the underpayment of wages. It was also observed that 10% of employees are not registered with the Social Security Institution, indicating the persistence of informality in Türkiye's private sector. When examining the problems reported by male and female employees in working life, it appears that women face fewer problems compared to men. When the public and private sectors are compared in terms of gender equality, it is observed that women employed in the public sector in Türkiye face more problems and experience greater gender inequality. Indeed, the proportion of those who consider there to be problems related to administration, wages, working conditions, and short-term leave is higher in the public sector than in the private sector, and a greater share of women also perceive the existence of such problems. This situation may be interpreted as evidence that the public sector has fallen behind contemporary standards and does not adequately

prioritize employee motivation and productivity, managerial competence, or the principle of equality.

Table 4. Social Pressure Experienced by Public Sector Employees*-2023 (%)

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Do you feel any social pressure because of your gender?	5.8	94.2	30.6	69.4
Do you feel any social pressure because of your marital status?	6.5	93.5	14.2	85.8
Do you feel any social pressure because of your age?	3.6	96.4	7.6	92.4
Do you feel any social pressure because of your traditions and customs?	5.6	94.4	13.6	86.4
Do you feel any social pressure because of your religious beliefs and practices?	5.2	94.8	9.7	90.3
Do you feel any social pressure because of your political views?	9.6	90.4	16	84
Do you feel any social pressure because of your job?	4.7	95.3	7	93
Do you feel any social pressure because of your clothing style?	3.4	96.6	13	87
Do you feel any social pressure because of your family lifestyle?	3	97	6.7	93.3
Do you feel any social pressure because of your circle of friends?	2.7	97.3	4.2	95.8
Do you feel any social pressure because of the time you arrive home or leave the house?	2.7	97.3	7	93

Resource: Constructed by the author based on LSS.

* In the survey, respondents who selected “never” were classified as providing a “no” response, whereas those who selected “sometimes,” “often,” or “always” were classified as providing a “yes” response.

Table 4 ranks public sector employees’ perceptions of social pressure by gender in Türkiye. According to the microdata analysis, the most striking finding is that 30.6% of women reported feeling social pressure due to their gender, while only 5.8% of men reported experiencing such pressure. Other areas where women reported notable levels of social pressure were their marital status (14.2%) and their traditions and customs. By contrast, women experienced the least social pressure related to their circle of friends and the times they arrive home or leave the house. In addition, women face greater social pressure related to traditions and clothing styles. Among men working in the public sector, the highest reported social pressure was associated with their political views (9.6%), whereas the lowest was linked to their family lifestyle (3%). Overall, when public employees are assessed by gender, it is observed that women report experiencing higher levels of social pressure across all areas.

The results demonstrate that social pressure in public sector employment is gendered, with women consistently reporting higher levels of pressure across all measured categories. The domains where the disparities are most striking—gender, marital status, traditions, clothing, and political views—suggest that women are subjected to stronger normative expectations and social control in both their private and professional lives. These findings reinforce broader sociological arguments regarding the persistence of patriarchal structures and highlight the need for gender-sensitive policies to reduce social pressures and enhance workplace equality.

Table 5. Social Pressure Experienced by Private Sector Employees*-2023 (%)

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Do you feel any social pressure because of your gender?	5.2	94.8	24.3	75.7
Do you feel any social pressure because of your marital status?	4.9	95.1	13	87
Do you feel any social pressure because of your age?	2.9	97.1	7.3	92.7
Do you feel any social pressure because of your traditions and customs?	4.2	95.8	9	91
Do you feel any social pressure because of your religious beliefs and practices?	4.2	95.8	9	91
Do you feel any social pressure because of your political views?	7.8	92.2	13.9	86.1
Do you feel any social pressure because of your job?	3.7	96.3	5.8	94.2
Do you feel any social pressure because of your clothing style?	2.7	97.3	10.9	89.1
Do you feel any social pressure because of your family lifestyle?	2.2	97.8	4.5	95.5
Do you feel any social pressure because of your circle of friends?	2.1	97.9	3.5	96.5
Do you feel any social pressure because of the time you arrive home or leave the house?	1.8	98.2	4.5	95.5

Resource: Constructed by the author based on LSS.

* In the survey, respondents who selected “never” were classified as providing a “no” response, whereas those who selected “sometimes,” “often,” or “always” were classified as providing a “yes” response.

Table 5 presents information on the perceptions of social pressure among private sector employees. The area where women reported feeling the greatest social pressure was their gender (24.3%), followed by their political views (13.9%) and marital status (13%). Similar to the public sector, the least reported source of social pressure for women in the private sector was their circle of friends (3.5%). Among male employees, 7.8% reported experiencing social pressure due to their political views, followed by pressure related to their gender (5.2%) and marital status (4.9%). The least reported source of social pressure among men was the time they arrive home or leave the house (1.8%). When comparing women and men, it is observed that women in the private sector report higher levels of social pressure than men across all categories.

The overall pattern demonstrates that women in the private sector continue to face significantly higher levels of social pressure compared with men, particularly in domains tied to gender, marital status, traditions, clothing, and political views. Compared to the public sector, the absolute percentages are somewhat lower, suggesting that the institutional environment of the private sector might exert less overt social control. Nonetheless, the persistent gender gap highlights enduring cultural norms and the vulnerability of women to social scrutiny in both professional and personal spheres.

When we compare public and private sector employees in terms of their perceptions of social pressure, the findings reveal that, in all areas, the level of social pressure reported in the public sector is higher than in the private sector. This suggests that, despite being regarded as a secure profession, the public sector may be considered a more stressful working environment due to employees’ greater exposure to social pressure.

Public sector employment is inherently political, as the government typically serves as both the employer and the source of funding. In addition, the provision of effective public services depends on substantial tax revenues, which has recently made the sector a focal point for austerity-driven neo-liberal reform efforts (Adkins et al., 2019, Kylä-Laaso & Sandberg, 2020). Employment in the public sector carries significant emotional weight, as it frequently entails providing services to society’s most vulnerable groups—such as the elderly, children, the ill, the homeless, and individuals affected by crime or emergencies. This has also meant that public sector workers have often served on the front

lines during global crises, including the recent pandemic (Conley & Sandberg, 2023). Indeed, there are studies in the literature that associate social pressure with mental health and stress (Daniel & Treece, 2022; Michie, 2002; Yun, 2020). This finding may also be linked to the lower productivity observed among public sector employees.

Table 6. Total Income of Employees by Gender-2023 (Turkish Lira)

Year	Total Average Income Individuals	Total Average Income Men	Total Average Income Women	Gini	Gini Men	Gini Women
2023	98,573	98,585	96,993	0.409	0.394	0.422

Resource: Constructed by the author based on HBS.

Table 6 presents the average total income and calculated Gini coefficients of employed individuals in 2023, disaggregated by gender, using the HBS individual microdata. According to the table, while the annual average income is 98,573 TL, men earn 12 TL above this average, whereas women earn 1,580 TL below it. This finding is an indicator of income disparity by gender. When examining the Gini coefficients, it is observed that income is distributed more unequally among women compared to men. Specifically, while the Gini coefficient for men was calculated as 0.394, it was found to be 0.422 among female employees. This suggests that government policies aimed at promoting gender equality may also have a positive impact on achieving fairness in income distribution. The results suggest that although the gender income gap in terms of average earnings appears relatively small, inequality is more pronounced among women. This finding highlights the importance of examining not only average wage levels but also the distributional aspects of income, as they reveal persistent structural barriers disproportionately affecting women in the labor market.

Table 7. Income Shares of Employees by Gender (Percentiles)-2023

Bracket	Total	Men	Women
1. 10%	1.44	1.96	1.00
2. 10%	3.54	3.99	2.72
3. 10%	4.95	5.12	4.31
4. 10%	6.07	6.06	5.96
5. 10%	7.14	7.12	7.41
6. 10%	8.41	8.33	8.95
7. 10%	9.91	9.72	10.64
8. 10%	12.00	11.66	12.73
9. 10%	15.23	14.88	16.37
10. 10%	31.26	31.12	29.86

Resource: Constructed by the author based on HBS.

Table 7 presents the distribution of employees' incomes by gender in terms of 10% income shares. The closer each group's share is to 10%, the more equal the income distribution. Based on this measure, income distribution appears to be more equitable among men. Indeed, the lowest-income 10% group that received the highest percentile share of income (1.96%) consisted of men. From the perspective of women, it can be stated that income inequality is more pronounced in all groups except for the highest-income group. This finding is consistent with the values calculated using the Gini coefficients.

Table 8. Wage Disparities by Gender among Full-Time Employees in OECD Countries (%)

Country	2010	2023
Luxemburg	4.6	0.4
Belgium	7.0	1.1
Colombia	12.7	1.9
Croatia	3.8	3.2
Italy	5.6	3.3
New Zealand	7.0	4.2
Norway	7.2	4.5
Denmark	8.9	5.8
Portugal	16.0	6.1
Spain	13.5	6.7
Sweden	9.4	7.3
Ireland	14.3	7.5
Greece	9.9	8.1
Slovenia	1.0	8.3
Iceland	16.5	8.7
Bulgaria	6.9	8.8
Türkiye	3.1	10.0
Poland	7.2	10.2
Lithuania	10.6	10.3
OECD Average	8.7	6.1

Resource: OECD (2023) Employment Database. (Notes: Gender pay gap was calculated by dividing the difference between the average earnings of women and men by the average earnings of men. The calculations were conducted using the gross values of employees' wages and salaries.

Table 8 presents the gender wage gap in selected OECD countries in 2010 and 2023 as percentages. According to the table, a higher calculated value indicates a higher level of gender inequality. From this perspective, while the OECD average decreased from 8.7% in 2010 to 6.1% in 2023, suggesting progress toward gender equality in wages, the situation in Türkiye diverged from this trend. In Türkiye, the wage gap rose from 3.1% in 2010 to 10% in 2023. This indicator reveals that although women's participation in the labor market has increased, they continue to face significant wage inequality, highlighting the need for various policy interventions by the state. Indeed, the findings obtained from the microdata analysis conducted within the scope of the study support this conclusion.

6. Discussion

In Türkiye, the differences in employment between genders can be attributed to various factors. The first issue to be addressed regarding working life is informality. In the study, it was found that 10% of individuals in the private sector were employed informally, that is, without being registered with any social security institution. Informality, part-time work, and unpaid labor can negatively affect women's position in working life. Türkiye ranks among the lowest OECD and European Union countries in terms of the informal economy (Schneider, 2016; Schneider, 2021). As a country where traditional norms are strongly felt, Türkiye requires time for the participation of women in working life to be widely accepted as a norm. The findings of the study further reveal that more than 10% of women employed in both the public and private sectors face pressures due to traditional customs.

The differences in income distribution between men and women in Türkiye in 2023 are also reflected in various studies in the literature. The findings of this study, which calculated a Gini coefficient of 0.394 for men and 0.422 for women, are consistent with similar results reported in some other studies (Costa, 2019; Henle & Ryscavage, 1980; Jędrzejczak & Trzcińska, 2024; Sutherland, 1997). These results indicate that women are

more vulnerable to income disparities despite relatively comparable average earnings, which may be attributed to structural factors such as occupational segregation, differences in working hours, and unequal career advancement opportunities. Moreover, the persistence of higher inequality among women underscores the intersection of gender and labor market dynamics, suggesting that policy interventions should not only aim to close the gender wage gap but also reduce intra-gender disparities in income distribution. In this regard, the evidence supports broader arguments in the literature emphasizing that addressing gender inequality requires multidimensional approaches combining labor market reforms, social policies, and institutional mechanisms promoting inclusivity.

Another important finding concerns the levels of pressure and stress experienced by employees. The study revealed that women face greater social pressure compared to men. In the public sector, there is a common perception that the workforce operates under stress and pressure. Cross-country analyses have also indicated that stress in working life is associated with violence, conflict, and pressure (Cameron, 2003). Furthermore, some studies suggest that women feel more pressure regarding time management than men (Huxley et al., 2005). In terms of task performance, 81% of women reported feeling under pressure compared to 66% of men who reported the same experience (Eborall & Garmeson, 2001). Considering that high stress levels can reduce employees' motivation to work (Michie, 2002), the findings suggest that women in Türkiye work with lower motivation and consequently exhibit lower productivity. To address this issue, both policymakers and employers should adopt targeted measures aimed at improving women's working conditions and raising their standards in professional life.

To compare public and private sectors, data reveal a notable gender imbalance in both sectors. In the public sector, women account for 37.3% of employees, while in the private sector their share drops to 27.7%. This discrepancy suggests that women's participation in formal employment remains limited, particularly in the private sector, where structural barriers and informal labor practices are more prevalent. Wage-related problems stand out as a key point of divergence between the two sectors. In the public sector, women are more likely than men to report problems related to wage differences (28.9% vs. 25.3%) and wage amounts (31.8% vs. 28.7%). This aligns with the broader literature on gender pay inequality, where women tend to express greater dissatisfaction due to systemic wage disparities. Problems related to working conditions are somewhat higher in the public sector (19.1% of women and 15.2% of men) compared to the private sector (12.3% of women and 15% of men). This indicates that rigid hierarchies, bureaucratic procedures, and resource constraints in the public sector may contribute to perceived difficulties.

Beyond labor market structures, deeply embedded traditional norms continue to shape gender roles and hinder women's equal participation in economic life. Women face not only institutional barriers but also cultural pressures that reinforce the perception of employment as secondary to domestic responsibilities. The findings of this study demonstrate that more than 10% of women employed in both the public and private sectors experience social pressures arising from traditional customs. Such pressures perpetuate inequality and constrain the potential gains from increasing women's labor force participation.

From a policy perspective, these findings underline the urgent need for comprehensive strategies to reduce gender disparities in employment. Policies aimed at formalizing employment, strengthening enforcement mechanisms, and expanding social protection coverage are crucial to mitigate the negative effects of informality. In addition, targeted interventions—such as promoting affordable childcare, encouraging flexible yet secure working arrangements, and implementing gender-sensitive labor laws—would enhance women's opportunities in the labor market. Furthermore, public awareness campaigns and educational programs could help transform traditional attitudes, thereby creating a more supportive social environment for women's participation in economic life.

Taken together, the persistence of high gender employment disparities in Türkiye highlights the need for an integrated policy framework that addresses both structural labor market deficiencies and entrenched socio-cultural norms. Without such measures, women's increasing participation in the labor market will continue to be overshadowed by systemic wage inequality and social barriers.

7. Research Limitations

This study is based on the 2023 LSS (Life Satisfaction Survey) and HBS (Household Budget Survey) microdata published by TURKSTAT. Gender-based differences in social pressure and income distribution across sectors in Türkiye were examined through comprehensive microdata analyses. Individual-level data were employed to provide a more detailed and nuanced account of people's circumstances, enabling the identification of disparities that might otherwise remain hidden in aggregate statistics. The use of microdata also allows for a more refined exploration of intersectional factors, such as age, education level, and regional differences, which may shape individuals' socioeconomic experiences in distinct ways.

Although the research presents the situation for 2023, studies covering a broader time span would allow for the observation of temporal dynamics and long-term transformations in these issues. Longitudinal analyses could also help distinguish structural patterns from short-term fluctuations influenced by economic or political contexts. Moreover, future research that statistically evaluates microdata using advanced quantitative techniques could contribute significantly to both national and international literature by offering robust evidence on gendered inequalities.

In addition to single-country analyses, an increase in studies incorporating multiple countries into their samples is crucial for drawing greater attention to the social problems that arise both in professional life and in daily life. Comparative cross-national research would not only highlight shared challenges but also reveal best practices and policy differences that can inform more effective interventions. Such studies could ultimately deepen global understanding of gender-based inequalities and encourage collaborative solutions at both regional and international levels.

8. Conclusion

In this study, gender-related social pressures and income distribution among employees were examined using microdata. For the microdata analysis, data from TurkStat's Life Satisfaction Survey and Household Budget Survey were evaluated specifically for Türkiye in 2023. The findings indicate that women employed in the public sector face more challenges compared to those in the private sector. In both sectors, women were observed to experience more problems and greater social pressure than men. Furthermore, women reported that the greatest source of social pressure stemmed from their gender. These findings are consistent with the results of Ulutürk-Akman (2021). In addition, the results indicate that 10% of individuals working in the private sector are not registered with the Social Security Institution. The Gini coefficients were calculated as 0.394 for men and 0.422 for women, indicating a more unequal income distribution among women. Both the Gini coefficients and the percentile share analysis revealed that income inequality is higher among women. This finding indicates the presence of gender-based income inequality, and it is consistent with previous studies in the literature reporting similar results (Amate-Fortes et al., 2021; Henle & Ryscavage, 1980; Jędrzejczak & Trzcińska, 2024; Sutherland, 1997). For comparison, wage disparities in Türkiye worsened from 3.1% in 2010 to 10% in 2023 within the OECD. Additionally, the study by Demir (2021) highlights that Türkiye shows the lowest performance among OECD countries in terms of female labor force participation.

An important aspect to consider in gender-focused research is its link to economic growth. According to Oska (2024), narrowing gender gaps in employment, education, and

access to resources can enhance productivity, foster innovation, and support overall economic development. Furthermore, advancing gender equality can strengthen social cohesion, alleviate poverty, and contribute to achieving sustainable development goals. Several studies in the literature also demonstrate that improvements in gender equality in both education and labor market participation have a substantial and positive effect on economic growth (Braunstein, 2011; Esen & Seren, 2021; Mitra et al., 2015; Pervaiz et al., 2023). Achieving gender-equitable inclusive growth additionally requires a more balanced distribution of unpaid work between women and men. To facilitate this, both employment structures and social protection systems must be redesigned. Gender-equitable inclusive growth should be viewed as a transformative process that enables both women and men to participate equally in paid and unpaid work, encompassing both production and social reproduction (Elson, 2025).

The fact that women face greater social pressure and report their gender as the main source of this pressure underscores the continuing influence of societal norms on workplace experiences. The comparatively greater challenges faced by women in the public sector suggest that institutional structures may not fully address or mitigate gender-specific disadvantages. Moreover, the presence of unregistered workers in the private sector points to vulnerabilities in employment conditions, particularly in terms of social security coverage. The higher Gini coefficient observed among women further reveals that income inequality is more pronounced for female employees, a trend reinforced by the percentage share analysis. Taken together, these findings indicate that women encounter both socioeconomic and structural disadvantages within the labor force, reflecting broader patterns of gender inequality.

Given the finding that women in Türkiye's public sector face higher levels of social pressure than men, targeted policy measures are needed to strengthen institutional safeguards. Introducing clearer legislative provisions against gender-based discrimination and informal coercion, alongside mandatory reporting and investigation procedures, would enhance accountability. Additionally, issuing gender-sensitive workplace guidelines and providing structured training for supervisors could help reduce implicit biases. Regular gender-equality audits within public institutions would further ensure that these measures are effectively implemented and sustained over time.

Contemporary societies remain male-dominated. Although individuals in the 21st century have become more aware of gender inequality, women continue to be disadvantaged in terms of social status. This issue may lead to women being employed at lower wages despite performing the same work as men, reinforcing their disadvantaged position in working life, and ultimately pushing them out of the labor market. Another manifestation of gender roles is observed in domestic labor. As women's household duties and responsibilities increase, their opportunities for employment and labor force participation diminish accordingly (Becker, 1985).

Income distribution is undoubtedly a multidimensional concept. To ensure fairness in income distribution, it is essential for policymakers to take steps to address issues such as gender, education, justice, rule of law, and equal opportunity. Policymakers can contribute to reducing gender discrimination by establishing a strong legal framework, implementing affirmative action policies that encourage female employment in both the public and private sectors, expanding rights related to childcare, and organizing educational programs aimed at raising citizens' awareness of gender equality. Furthermore, it is important to note that gender is not the only source of inequality faced by employees. Therefore, other issues in working life—such as promotion, assignment, equal treatment, income disparities, and low wages—also warrant closer examination by academics, policymakers, and activists. Overall, results highlight the persistent gender-based disparities in Türkiye's labor market.

In the context of Türkiye, more targeted policy measures are necessary to address the structural barriers that women face in the labor market, particularly those related to childcare and unpaid domestic responsibilities. Expanding access to affordable and high-

quality public childcare services, including extended-hour daycare centers, would significantly ease the caregiving burden on working mothers. Introducing employer-supported childcare facilities and providing financial incentives or tax reductions to companies that establish such services could further promote women's labor force participation. Additionally, policies that encourage flexible work arrangements—such as remote work options, part-time employment with social security coverage, and flexible scheduling—would help women balance professional and caregiving responsibilities without compromising job security. Strengthening parental leave policies by extending paid maternity leave, promoting the uptake of paternity leave, and ensuring non-transferable parental leave quotas for fathers would also contribute to a more equitable distribution of care work within households. Finally, enforcing gender-sensitive workplace evaluations and transparent promotion criteria would help reduce discrimination and create a more inclusive working environment for women across sectors.

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