THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN THE TWELVE MEMBERS OF THE EUROPEAN UNION AND TURKEY

Assist.Prof.Dr. Mehmet Ufuk TUTAN, Izmir University of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of International Trade and Finance, ufuk.tutan@ieu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to compare the human and gender-related development indices’ results of the twelve members of the European Union to Turkey’s results. Besides, this study is to recommend some policies to the countries above to improve human development at the conclusion if necessary. The contribution of this paper to the existing literature is to present a comparative perspective to the readers about the reflection of the human and gender development between the selected countries of the European Union and Turkey.

JEL classifications: B54, J16, O15, P16

Keywords: capability, gender, income, inequality, European Union, poverty, Turkey

1. INTRODUCTION

This study will focus on human and gender indices of two different regions of the European Continent: a wealthy and industrialized region, the oldest members in the European Union, and a poor and underdeveloped region, Turkey. The theoretical framework of this study is founded on the capabilities-entitlements approach of gender economics literature. This approach, which has improved new arguments since the year, 1995, focuses on human and gender indices; creates newly established comparable data set; makes clear distinction among countries; and introduces the newly established concepts of “capabilities” to the gender economics literature.
The capabilities approach introduced by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), expands the definition and measurement of human and gender indices on non-income factors among various countries such as the Human Development Index (HDI), to the existing literature: Human Poverty Index for developing countries (HPI-1) and for selected OECD countries (HPI-2), Gender-related Development Index (GDI), and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM).²

Although Durbin (1999)-Jackson/Palmer-Jones (1999)-Kabeer (1999)-Klasen (1999)-Saith/White (1999)-Sen (1999)-Sen/Anand (2000), United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) Reports from 2000 to 2008 have discussed such definitions and measurements, those academicians could not establish comparable indices because of the lack of data set in many countries. However, after UNDP has started to collect such data set from all over the world in the late 1990s and to establish human and gender indices based on both income and non-income factors, she has eventually opened up new horizons to compare gender differences among countries.

On the one hand, the capabilities-entitlements approach focuses on establishing indices on non-income factors; On the other hand, another approach, namely, the new poverty agenda³, focuses mainly on income factors indicators such as improving income and wealth through employment, reducing wage discrimination, GDP per capita, mortality statistics and life expectancy. In other words, as the latter approach takes the indicators of income factors as the most comprehensive measurements for establishing the comparable indices, the former approach mainly studies non-income factors and then, takes income factors into the comparable indices.⁴

In this study, we perceive both income and non-income factors in the comparable indices as the complex combination of opportunities and choices to human development that enhance quality of life with all dimensions including material well-being.⁵ Therefore, we perceive human development with all dimensions that requires enlarging opportunities and choices for all people, not just for a few classes or groups in a society. For instance, we believe that if one part of a society such as females is excluded from the benefits of any development in any country, this development process is considered as unjust and discriminatory. As a result, we emphasize that the continuing exclusion from all dimensions including economic, political and social opportunities eventually leads various inequalities including gender inequalities in a society.

2. THE TWELVE EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES AND TURKEY⁶

Although it has been hard to collect the complete data set for underdeveloped countries including Turkey, the UNDP’S Human Development Reports has achieved to organize, develop and improve new data sets since the year, 1995. Each report has released a fully revised set for many countries and Turkey
since then. Because almost all data are available and comparable to each other, all the definitions we use in our theoretical framework and all data, if it is not indicated otherwise, are borrowed from various Human Development Reports of the United Nations Development Programme. The recent data set covers the time period between the years, 1975 and 2003. In order to establish reliability and integrity in the data set we employ, this study has not gone beyond the years before the year, 1975 and after the year, 2003.

As of the time the study written in the year, 2008, Turkey has been one of the candidates for the full membership to the European Union (EU), and the full membership application has already been put in a progressive process. During the candidateship process, Turkey needs to meet many minimum requirements and standards on economic, political and social areas that the oldest members of the European Union countries already fulfilled. In order to compare those requirements and standards, in this study we have decided to select some members of the European Union, since the oldest members have been able to fully meet those minimum requirements and standards. Therefore, we have selected the oldest members of the European Union as one side of the data set, and put Turkey at the other side of the data set.

Since, from economic, social and political perspectives, those countries represent the core, wealthy and the mostly well-developed members of the European Union, the selected countries have already developed many solutions to the problems of human development. However, Turkey has focused on improving income factors such as GDP and GDP per capita, and ignored to improve most of the non-income factors such as human development and gender indices. In other words, Turkey seems to have focused on improving her income factors instead of non-income factors. Nevertheless, human development should be addressed in all dimensions, not income factors alone. Consequently, since Turkey has not been able to achieve human development with all dimensions, it has not been possible to enhance opportunities for everyone and not to develop strategies for gender equality as well.

In the next chapters, we will compare non-income factors with income factors. Although we were aware of the importance of income factors, such as GDP and GDP per capita growths or economic stability, to sustain human progress, we believe that the ultimate and permanent target is to increase the quality of life of human beings. Therefore, we have studied non-income factors, such as life expectancy, education, health, political and economic participation, that improve human development.

2.1. Population, Life Expectancy, Unemployment and Education

In this chapter, various differences between the two regions will be discussed depending on the data set and indices. First, the data that form the indices will be discussed. Later, human and gender-related indices of the twelve EU countries and Turkey will be compared.
The annual average population growth rate of the twelve European Union countries has been 0.5 percent between the years, 1975-2003 while Turkey's annual average growth rate exceeds 2 percent at the same period. Furthermore, the annual average population growth rate is projected to remain unchanged for the EU countries in the next decade; however, the most optimistic projection for Turkey's rate is calculated around 1.2 percent. Turkey, which has experienced a fast population growth in a few urban centers for a few decades, is expected to catch up the EU countries' urbanization level in terms of population density within the next decade. Moreover, with the young population and the high fertility rate, Turkey is expected to become one of the most urban populated countries in the European Continent at the end of the first quarter of the twenty-first century.

**Figure 1: Annual Average Population Growth, Selected Years, 1975-2003 and 2003-2015**

The rate of life expectancy in Turkey has been improved from age, 57 to age, 69 for the last 35 years despite the fact that Turkey's life expectancy is 10 years less than that of the EU countries. However, the gap is still wide if one considers the infant mortality rate and maternal mortality rate. The EU countries have been able to reduce the numbers of infant deaths per 1000 live births from 24

**Source:** UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006
losses in the year, 1970 to 4 losses in the year, 2003. Nevertheless, Turkey has not demonstrated such a great success at infant mortality rate that the numbers verify 150 infant deaths per 1000 live births in the year, 1970 to 33 losses in the year, 2003. In the context of the maternal mortality ratio, Turkey has been demonstrating better efforts for the last few decades; however, there is still a huge gap between the EU countries and Turkey that the average maternal mortality ratio is 130 losses per 100 000 live births per year for Turkey against 6 losses for the EU countries between the years, 1985 and 2003. It is a fact that with the mass migration into urban centers, Turkey has seemed to provide better health services and improve the health of both mothers and infants for a few decades; however, with her growing young population and increasing fertility rate, Turkey should still need to apply serious reforms into health programs.

Table 1: Life Expectancy and Death Rates, Selected Years, 1970 and 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Life Expectancy (Years)</th>
<th>Infant Deaths per 1000</th>
<th>Maternal Deaths per 100000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU</td>
<td>72   78</td>
<td>24  4</td>
<td>6   6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>57   69</td>
<td>150  33</td>
<td>130  70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

Education has always been one of the most important factors for human development. Both the EU countries and Turkey have increased the ratio of public expenditures on education to GDP between the years, 1990 and 2002. However, although Turkey has augmented those expenditures by almost 70 percentage points, Turkey’s expenditures have still remained half of the EU countries’ expenditures.

Turkey has considerably increased the amount of expenditures in both GDP and total government expenditures on education, especially tertiary education, during the last decade. However, those expenditures have been surprisingly reduced to the half in primary education compared to the previous decade. The different expenditure levels on different education levels such as primary, secondary and tertiary education may imply that Turkey with her young population demography, the high fertility rate and rapid urbanization rate has principally aimed to prioritize the education of qualified technicians, engineers and professionals, who are mostly, located at the most urbanized centers within the last decade. On the other hand, not surprisingly, the EU countries, whose expenditures on each levels of education have been much higher than Turkey, have seemed to spend almost equal amounts of expenditures to primary, secondary and tertiary education for the last decade.
Table 2: The Shares of Public Expenditures on Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Tertiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

Turkish female population has received less and less on tertiary education expenditure in the last decade. In other words, most of Turkish females have not been able to find an opportunity to enroll the tertiary education level after the completion of secondary education. The latest data also support the conclusion above that while the ratio of female to male enrollment on primary education exceeds 90 percent, the ratio decreases to 75 percent on tertiary education. Not surprisingly, those enrollment ratios are higher than 100 percent for the EU countries that there is more enrolled female population than enrolled male population at all levels of education while, for each education levels, the ratio of Turkish enrolled female population to enrolled male population is less than 100 percent. In other words, gender equality in education in the EU countries has almost reached to the highest levels; however, Turkey has still suffered from the problems of the gender inequality in terms of education facilities and opportunities despite the fact that there have been admirable efforts on expenditures in the last decade.

Table 3: The Enrollment Ratios on Different Education Levels in the year, 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Ratios of Female to Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Tertiary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

Although all Gender Empowerment Measures are discussed at the next section, we need to discuss the differences in political and employment participation between the EU countries and Turkey in this section in order to emphasize the results of the poor education levels of the females in Turkey. The Turkish female population has substantially owned her different and more serious problems such as political participation and employment participation topics compared to female population in the EU countries. For example, although females in Turkey had earned earlier voting rights in the mid-1930s than some of the EU countries have, as of the year 2003 only 4 percent of the total Turkish parliament members is female while the number is one-fourth of the total parliament members for the EU countries’ parliaments. The other example is about female
participation to labor force that the participation rate of Turkish female population is half of that of the EU countries.\(^8\) Since female population in Turkey have relatively less opportunity on higher education compared to females in the EU countries have, that makes almost impossible to achieve gender equality in Turkey in terms of job, employment, political and other participations for the next decades. The labor force participation rate supports our comments that females in Turkey cannot fully participate into labor force. Furthermore, Turkish female unemployment rate has always been higher than females in the EU countries have. Those Turkish females, even those who can find jobs and opportunities and participate in labor force, work in very different economic activities compared to females in the EU countries do. For example, while 4 percent of European female workers work in agriculture, more than half of Turkish female workers involve in agricultural activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

It is a stylized fact that education is one of the most important factors for any society to improve human development and to reduce gender inequality. As Durbin (1999)-Jackson/Palmer-Jones (1999)-Kabeer (1999)-Klasen (1999)-Saith/White (1999)-Sen (1999)-Sen/Anand (2000)-UNIFEM Report (2000)-World Bank Report (2001)-Human Development Reports (1995-2006) state that education is one of the most important factors for the well-being of any society. Education promotes human development and gender equality in a society since education, which offers possibilities and opportunities to access to any resources, knowledge and information that eventually reduce child mortality, stimulate economic growth and provide further improvement in well-being, improves the conditions of longevity, literacy, and poverty in a society.

2.2. Human-Gender Development Indices\(^9\)

In the previous section, the data set that influences human development and gender equality has been analyzed. In this section, the primary human development and gender-related indices will be analyzed and discussed. In order to evaluate human development and gender equality, we will emphasize the capabilities-entitlements approach which prioritizes non-income factors and secondarily, takes into consideration of income factors as well. In this section, those factors will be investigated on a region basis and differences between the two regions will be concentrated on.
2.2.1. Non-Income Factors

Human Development Index (HDI) is one of the non-income factors. The official definition of HDI in the UNDP’s Human Development Reports is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions: a long and health life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. The average HDI value for the EU countries is 0.93 but it is at the level of 0.75 for Turkey in the year, 2003. The factors of the HDI values for the EU countries’ average life expectancy, education, and GDP index are, respectively, 0.89, 0.97 and 0.94 but the values for Turkey are, respectively, 0.73, 0.82 and 0.70. It is clear that there are considerably wide gaps in terms of human development based on non-income factors between the EU countries and Turkey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5: Human Development Index, Non-Income Factors, in the year, 2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HDI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

The historical HDI trends between the years, 1975 and 2003 demonstrate that the EU countries have had much better results in the time period compared to Turkey does. However, although there are still huge differences along all those years, Turkey has improved her performance after the year, 1990.
The next non-income factor is the Human Poverty Index for developing countries (HP1-1). The official definition of HP1-1 in the UNDP’s Human Development Reports is a composite index measuring deprivations in the dimensions of a long and health life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Turkey, which is ranked in the medium human development countries, is at the 19th order among the 100 developing countries. As a result, if one compares Turkey with the other developing countries, Turkey’s human development indicators have not still presented promising results. However, the EU countries have been ranked at the highest levels among the most developed countries in the world for the last 35 years.11

Table 6: Human Poverty Index in the year, 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>HPI-2</th>
<th>HPI-1</th>
<th>Population Below Poverty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006
The other non-income factor is called Gender-related Development Index (GDI). The official definition of GDI in the UNDP’s Human Development Reports is a composite index measuring average achievements in the dimensions of long and health life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living adjusted account for inequalities between women and men. The average GDI index value for the EU countries is 0.93 but 0.74 for Turkey. Since the indicators such as income earned by females and combined enrollment ratio of the female population for education have been much lower in Turkey compared to the EU countries have, the differences between the GDI index values above has, consequently, been considerably huge. In order to illustrate the argument, one should study the income differences between the genders. The average income of females at the EU countries is around 20,000 USD but 4200 USD in Turkey in the year, 2003. The numbers are, respectively, 40,000 USD to 9200 USD for males. It is obvious that the ratio of female to male earnings in Turkey is less than that of the EU countries. In other words, females in Turkey earn much less money compared to females in the EU countries do.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7: Gender-related Development Index in the year, 2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDI</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

The last non-income factor is Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The official definition of GEM in the UNDP’s Human Development Reports is a composite index measuring gender inequality in the dimensions of empowerment like economic participation and decision making, political participation and decision making and power over economic resources. The average GEM value for the EU countries is 0.73 but 0.28 for Turkey. The main source of that huge gap between the EU countries and Turkey comes from the ratio of female to male earned income. Furthermore, the seats in the Turkish Parliament held by women are 4 percent but almost 25 percent in the EU countries. In other words, females in Turkey have much lower human and gender development index values compared to females in the EU countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8: Gender Empowerment Measure Index in the year, 2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GEM</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006
2.2.2. Income Factors

The average GDP per capita for the EU countries is 30,000 USD, it is around 6,700 USD for Turkey. It is obvious that from the perspective of income factors, there are still huge gaps between the EU countries and Turkey in the year 2003. The average growth rates of GDP and GDP per capita of Turkey have been around 1.5 percent per year for the last 35 years. However, the twelve EU countries’ average has been around 2.3 percent per year. The different average growth rates in GDPs have eventually created huge gaps between twelve EU countries and Turkey at the end of the last three decades. While each of the EU countries produces 800 billion USD at average, Turkey’s GDP has reached the level of 240 billion USD in the year 2003. Nevertheless, the GDP per capita results are more dramatic for Turkey. The GDP ratio of the EU countries to Turkey is four to one while the GDP per capita ratio is five to one because Turkey’s annual population growth rate itself has considerably been greater than the EU countries’ average has. On the one hand, Turkey’s annual average growth of GDP per capita has been almost half of the EU’s average for the last 35 years, and furthermore, the ratio has been in the direction of more deteriorating trend during the last decade; on the other hand, Turkey’s annual average population growth is twice of the EU’s average during the last decade. As a result, the inequalities in GDP per capita growth rate and population growth rate between the EU countries and Turkey have eventually produced further gender inequalities in Turkey.

Alleviating the gender inequality in all over the world necessitates a new way of thinking. However, increases in income could not be the main or sole goal of a new philosophy to change the stereotype thinking on gender economics. Instead of targeting income factors for the gender equality in any nation, people themselves should be considered as the main sources of the wealth of nations. Therefore, without underestimating the importance of GDP growth and economic stability, one should primarily target to improve non-income factors that makes possible the increase of well-being, standard of life style and quality of life of human beings. As a result, the new philosophy as a brand-new approach to gender economics should broaden the definitions of wealth and well-being of societies and nations, and establish a complex relationship between income and non-income factors.

When the results of this chapter are analyzed, there are incredibly large gaps in terms of human development between the EU countries and Turkey for the last three decades and in the year 2003 as well. These results demonstrate that Turkey has been far behind the EU countries in terms of both non-income and income factors in human development. On the other hand, Turkey has considerable but insufficient success in income factors and human development indices in the last decade. From the view points of the gender economics, Turkey is behind the twelve countries in the EU, specifically, the representation of females in social and political areas. If we relate this result to the conclusion of the previous section, Turkish females who are not supported enough in the
education field, cannot find opportunities in the representation of social, economic and political areas.

Table 9: Selected Indicators of Non-Income and Income Factors in the year, 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HDI Index</th>
<th>GDI Index</th>
<th>GEM Index</th>
<th>GDP Per Capita USD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Twelve EU Countries</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>6,700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995-2006

3. POLICY RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

Although there are important improvements in terms of employment and earnings in many underdeveloped countries since the last three decades, there are still many problems in human development and gender equalities in the context of both non-income and income factors. According to the World Bank Report (2001) and the UNIFEM Annual Report (2008), females have still not been equal to males in terms of legal, social, and economic rights in most of underdeveloped countries for the last three decades. Since females in such underdeveloped countries cannot access to and control over resources, knowledge and information, and benefit from political and economic opportunities, not only women will bear the costs of inequalities but also the costs will broadly spread across, and harm the society. The UNIFEM Reports from the year, 2000 to the year, 2008 always introduce very detailed studies on the literature of female’s empowerment. Those reports indicate that as the income of an underdeveloped country or of the people in those countries increases, that may facilitate new opportunities to acquire capabilities and create greater personal autonomy for females in those countries. However, without investing in female education, and consequently human development, those achievements will not be sustainable and permanent in those countries. In other words, education may help females in underdeveloped countries permanently and continuously acquire knowledge and gain abilities to generate further choices and exercise continuous bargaining power in the future. Therefore, illiteracy of females is considered as one of the serious threats to the promising future of human development of those countries. Societies with a continuous illiteracy problem in female population pay a higher price of problems of human development such as decent standard of living, life expectancy, and human poverty such as malnutrition, illness, and other deprivations. Consequently, reducing illiteracy of females in underdeveloped countries helps to close gender gaps and to expand the possibilities of economic and political progress. Those are some of the capabilities of societies that will help to improve human development and enhance women’s capabilities in such countries.
Turkish State Planning Organization and UNDP (2005) determine Turkey’s goals for the new millennium. In order to improve human development, education in all levels is considered as one of the key factors to improve income distribution, economic growth and labour productivity, and to alleviate poverty. However, World Bank report (2005) indicates that Turkish education system has favored an elite few to some good schools at the expense of the standard public schools. Therefore, it is rightfully believed that the problems in Turkish education system arise not from the fact that schools aiming at very high quality does not exist but from the extent of the disparities. As a result of the facts above indicated, we recommend that Turkish education system as a whole including vocational education and life-long learning need to be further restructured and improved toward eliminating disparities among different types of schools and different types of social classes as well as establishing accessible quality to adapt and contribute to the knowledge economy driven process. Within any country high levels of inequality in income and opportunity are a constraint on human development. However, favoring privileged few in education results with very serious negative impacts for human development process of any country and as well as economic dynamism, growth and social cohesion. Such negative impacts may limit the conversion of growth into human development in any country. We also believe that all children should be able to access to quality early childhood education. Considering the role that early childhood education plays in a child’s performance in primary school and in later stages of educational life, expanded opportunities for early childhood education is a key component of an education system that promotes quality and equal opportunity for all. However, Turkey lags significantly behind the EU countries in terms of enrolment rates in pre-school education for a long time. Therefore, although there are some improvement in Turkish education system for the last decade we recommend that Turkish governments need to specifically give higher priority to early childhood education in its education investment plans.

Turkey as a candidate to the European Union has improved GDP per capita and life expectancy values for the last decade. Nevertheless, Turkey needs to spend more effort in improving non-income factors to improve human development and gender equality. For the last three decades educational development in Turkey has given great positive influences on both income and non-income factors such as employment, health and economic progress, there is, however, more pressing need for a focus on female education from primary to tertiary education levels to improve human development in the country.

For the last 35 years as can be observed in the Turkish case, economic growth may generate increases in private income. However, without redistributing resources to enhance Turkish females’ capabilities on certain non-income factors such as healthcare, basic education, and life expectancy, the success in economic growth or the increases in private income will not be permanent in the long run. It is a fact that with economic growth and the expansion of private income, a society can afford to initiate some capabilities but the success completely depends on the continuous redistribution of the newly generated
incomes on non-income factors. In other words, rising incomes and economic growth may not be enough to improve human development. This income should be channeled into the means of enhancing the capabilities of the society; first to the education of females, then to the non-income factors.

The EU countries have produced very high and close HDI, GDI and GEM values for the last 35 years; on the other hand, Turkey’s HDI and Gender-based Indices values have always been low and distinctly different from each other. In other words, Turkey’s HDI value has always been higher than GDI and GEM values. We conclude that although Turkey has achieved some successes on income factors, the country has not been satisfactorily able to succeed to improve human development based non-income factors, especially on gender issues, for the last 35 years. Therefore, Turkey has still continuous problems in improving human development and eliminating gender inequality as the country’s economy has generated more income during the last three and half decades than she used to. Nevertheless, UNDP’s Human Development Report for Turkey (2008) indicates that among the most important problems, the female youth population in Turkey has worse HDI, GDI, GEM and income indicators compared to the female adult population had during the last decade. In other words, there are serious problems in human development process of Turkey among not only females and males but also within female population.

UNDP’s Annual Reports (1995-2007), World Bank Report (2001), Champernowne/Cowell (1998), Dayioglu (2000), Dijkstra/Hanmer (2000), Folbre (2001), Jill/Smith/Fagan (1999), Kasnakoglu/Dayioglu (1996), Knowles/Lorgelly/Owen (2002), Nussbaum (2000), Tansel (1996), TUSIAD (2000) indicate that many observed results of country-level economic analyses recognize that low levels of education and training not only deteriorate human development process but also hinder economic efficiency and growth. Hence, promoting and improving human development need to be pursued, for reasons of equity and social justice and also because it makes economic sense and is good development practice. Therefore, new strategic objectives for human development for Turkey should be re-prepared that specifically emphasize education. Education should be considered as enhancing future human capacity, increasing access and opportunities in the labor market and having greater control over their personal lives that helps stimulating economic growth, reducing poverty and improving human development.

END NOTES

(1) In this study, we introduce the perspectives of the capabilities-entitlements of the gender economics literature since we believe that the other approaches have eventually combined their arguments with the capabilities approach.

(2) For more detailed and up to date information for non-income factors, readers may study the Human Development Reports between the years, 1995 and 2008.
THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN THE
TWELVE MEMBERS OF THE EUROPEAN UNION AND TURKEY

(3) See World Bank Report (2001), which clearly explains the definition of the new poverty agenda.

(4) Since the measurement itself is not the focus of this paper, a table on how those factors are calculated has not included. For more information about the calculations, readers may analyze the Chapter “The Technical Notes” of the UNDP's Human Development Reports between the years, 1995 and 2008.

(5) For more information on the definition of non-income and income factors, readers may study the Human Development Reports. The definition has been improved at each of the successive UNDP's Human Development Reports since the year, 1995.

(6) The values for the EU countries are the average values of the 12 countries unless indicated. The historical data set covers the years between 1975 and 2003. We have established a data set for the well-developed and core members, and compare that set with Turkey’s set in order to make comments, if necessary.

(7) The selected twelve European Union countries are Luxembourg, Belgium, the Netherlands, France, Germany, Italy, Denmark, Ireland, the United Kingdom, Spain, Greece and Portugal.

(8) The Turkish informal economy is quite employed approximately half of the labor force. It is reported that most of those employment in the informal economy are males.

(9) In order to discuss more on the calculation about the Human-Gender Development Indices, readers may study the Chapter “The Technical Notes” of the UNDP’s Human Development Reports after the year, 1995. Performance in indices is expressed value between 0 and 1. The maximum value is 1 and the minimum value is 0.

(10) Saith and White (1999: 465-97) are one of the pioneers who try to improve the definitions of some factors of HDI such as being healthy and being educated, and to relate their results with other indices, such as HPI-1 and GDI. However, some economists, then, seriously object to the alternative “human poverty” measurements. For example, Durbin (1999: 105-06) indicates some of the practical, methodological, and conceptual problems of the alternative poverty measurements. Durbin’s first critic to the alternative poverty measurement is that there is no universal agreement on the causes of poverty. Second, there are some practical problems such as data availability. Such discussions have improved the quality of the literacy on alternative “human poverty” measurements and UNDP’s Human Development Reports have produced better results every year since then.

(11) The EU countries are ranked at the HPI-2 index that is specifically prepared to measure human poverty for the OECD countries, and HPI-1 is for developing
countries such as Turkey. Poverty line is below 11 USD for the EU countries but 4 USD for Turkey.

(12) Not surprisingly, if one subtracts HDI rank from GDP rank, the EU countries have the value of -0.75 but -18 for Turkey. In other words, while Turkey’s performance on GDP per capita has been at better level, Turkey’s HDI performance is relatively at much worse situation. On the other hand, the EU countries are doing almost equally well at both indicators.

(13) According to the World Bank Report (2001), in most of the developed countries, female education levels have improved considerably for the last 50 years. Also women’s life expectancy has increased by 20 years in those countries by the help of better access to health care and education. Furthermore, women’s labor force participation has risen by 15 percentages for the last two decades.

(14) There is a debate over the necessity and practicability of these reforms in the literature. Jackson (1996) argues that some women in some countries cannot benefit from all these policies because they enter into gendered social relations in households and women largely lose control of those benefits in household. Therefore, it is important to make a distinction between legal recognition and social recognition. For example, Agarwal (1994 and 1997) claims that a woman may legally inherit property, but this may remain only a claim if the law is not enforced or the claim is not socially recognized. In other words, legal reforms to gender equality may seem to potentially strengthen women’s position in front of the laws. However, as Razavi (1999) indicates, such reforms can only be exercised in some underdeveloped countries such as most Middle East countries or India if only if community recognizes this potential as a right.

(15) The UNIFEM Reports emphasize that the female’s empowerment should include acquiring knowledge and understanding gender relations, gain abilities to generate choices and exercise bargaining power, and develop abilities to influence social changes and to generate just social and economic order.

REFERENCES


246


TUSIAD (2000): The Walk towards the Equality of Women and Men, Istanbul: TUSIAD.


248


World Bank (2005): “Turkey Education Sector Study: Sustainable Pathways to an Effective, Equitable, and Efficient Education System for Preschool through Secondary School Education” Human Development Sector Unit, Europe and Central Asia Region in association with Education Reform Initiative/ Istanbul Policy Center, 2005
