

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF POPULATION STUDIES

**WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF
FAMILY COMPOSITION: AN ANALYSIS OF THE
STATUS OF SINGLE MOTHERS IN TURKEY**

Neriman Başak ALTAN

Department of Demography
Master's Thesis

Ankara
January 2023

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With struggle and solidarity...

ABSTRACT

Existing literature puts less attention on the status of single-parent women with a focus of intra-household dynamics. The aim of the thesis is to analyze the level of empowerment of women with respect to different household types with a specific focus on single-parent households and understand how women's empowerment varies by the age, region, place of residence, and wealth status. The factors behind this issue were employed by using mixed-method approach from a feminist perspective. 2018 TDHS data is utilized in order to answer the research question, through factor analysis using a polychoric correlation matrix, the women's empowerment variable was constructed, and the multinomial logistic regression method was used to identify the relationships between women's empowerment and explanatory variables. After quantitative analysis, in-depth interviews were conducted with 18 women while women's life course experiences, coping strategies, perceptions of empowerment, and self-image were discussed. Existing literature indicates that women living in single-parent households are particularly disadvantaged due to poverty, while women in higher income groups with own resources - regardless of household status - are already in an advantageous position to decide to divorce or to overcome the challenges of being a single parent woman. On the other hand, by focusing on the differences between household types, the thesis has once again revealed findings that are not unexpected and re-emphasize persistent inequalities: Childcare and household responsibilities are significant barriers to women's empowerment. Therefore, the study argues that single parent women, with the support of internal and external resources, develops autonomy and coping mechanisms to deal with the challenging aspects of being a single parent and are relatively more empowered. By understanding and supporting these mechanisms, single parent women's empowerment could be promoted to a wider scale.

Key words: Women's empowerment, household composition, single-parent women, mixed-method approach.



ÖZET

Kadınların güçlenmesinde önemli bir rolü bulunan “hane içi dinamiklere” odaklanarak tek ebeveynli ailelerdeki kadının durumunu inceleyen çalışma sayısı azdır. Bu tezin amacı, kadınların güçlenme düzeyini tek ebeveynli hanelere odaklanarak farklı hanehalkı tiplerine göre analiz etmek ve kadınların güçlenmesinin yaş, bölge, kent-kır yerleşim yeri ve refah durumuna göre nasıl değiştiğini anlamaktır. Bu sorunun ardındaki etkenler, feminist bir bakış açısıyla karma yöntem yaklaşımına başvurularak ele alınmıştır. 2018 TNSA verileri kullanılarak, polikorik korelasyon matrisi ile faktör analizi uygulanmış ve kadınların güçlenmesi değişkeni oluşturulmuştur. Daha sonra kadınların güçlenmesi ve açıklayıcı değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek için multinomial lojistik regresyon yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Nicel analizin ardından 18 kadınla derinlemesine görüşmeler yapılmış ve kadınların deneyimleri, baş etme stratejileri, güçlenme algıları ve benlik imajları tartışılmıştır. Tek ebeveynli hanelerde yaşayan kadınların özellikle yoksulluk nedeniyle daha dezavantajlı olduğu, öz kaynaklara sahip yüksek gelir grubundaki kadınların ise -hanehalkı statüsünden bağımsız olarak- boşanma kararı alma ya da tek ebeveyn kadın olmanın getirdiği zorlukların üstesinden gelme konusunda zaten avantajlı bir konumda olduğu şimdiye değin yapılan çalışmalarda ortaya çıkan sonuçlardır. Öte yandan, tez hane halkı türleri arasındaki farklılıklara odaklanarak, beklenen ancak hâlâ süregelen eşitsizliklere vurgu yapan bulguları bir kez daha ortaya koymuştur: Çocuk bakımı ve hane halkı sorumlulukları kadınların güçlenmesinin önünde önemli bir engeldir. Bu nedenle, çalışma tek ebeveyn kadınların, iç ve dış kaynakların da desteğiyle tek ebeveynli olmanın zorlu yönleriyle başa çıkmak için özerklik ve başa çıkma mekanizmaları geliştirdiğini ve güçlenme düzeylerinin görece daha yüksek olduğunu savunmaktadır. Bu mekanizmaların anlaşılması ve desteklenmesiyle, tek ebeveyn kadınların güçlenmeleri daha geniş ölçekte teşvik edilebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Kadının güçlenmesi, hanehalkı kompozisyonu, tek ebeveyn kadınlar, karma yöntem yaklaşımı.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	i
ABSTRACT	iii
ÖZET	v
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
ABBREVIATIONS	xv
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background	1
1.2. Aim.....	1
1.3. The rationale.....	2
1.4. Research Problems	2
1.5. Scope of the Study	3
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
2.1. Conceptualization of Women’s Empowerment	5
2.2. Historical Background of Women’s Empowerment.....	8
2.3. Measurement of Women’s Empowerment.....	12
2.4. Overview of Single-Parent Households	20
2.5. Policies toward Single-parent Households.....	27
CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	31
3.1. Doing Feminist Demography	31
3.2. Women’s Empowerment.....	32
3.3. Family Composition.....	34
CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY.....	37
4.1. Quantitative Research and Analysis.....	40
4.1.1. Data	40
4.1.2. Construction of the Empowerment Variable: Factor Analysis	41
4.1.3. Multinomial Logistic Regression (MLR)	49
4.2. Qualitative Research and Analysis.....	54
4.2.1. Aim of the Qualitative Component	54
4.2.2. Sample.....	55
4.2.3. Sample Selection Method	56
4.2.4. Mode of Data Collection	56
4.2.5. The Semi-Structured In-Depth Interview Guideline.....	56
4.2.6. Qualitative Analysis	57

4.3.	Triangulation	57
4.4.	Ethical Consideration	57
CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS		59
5.1.	Quantitative Findings	59
5.1.1.	Descriptive Findings	59
5.1.2.	Multivariate Analysis Results	63
5.2.	Qualitative Findings	66
5.2.1.	Profiles of Women Participated in in-depth Interviews	66
5.2.2.	Structures.....	67
5.2.2.1	Participating in labor market	67
5.2.2.2	Family structure and dynamics	72
5.2.2.3	Cultural norms and values.....	78
5.2.2.4	Laws, policies, and support mechanisms	84
5.2.3.	Resources	86
5.2.3.1	Education, knowledge, and skills	86
5.2.3.1	Ownership and control of assets.....	88
5.2.3.2	Bodily integrity	89
5.2.3.3	Critical consciousness	92
5.2.4.	Agency	93
5.2.4.1	Conceptualization of empowerment by women.....	94
5.2.4.2	Self-Images of the women.....	95
5.2.4.3	Collectivity	96
CHAPTER 6. TRIANGULATION AND DISCUSSION.....		99
6.1.	Single (Divorced/Separated/Widowed) Women without Any Children....	99
6.2.	Single-parent Women with at Least One Dependent Child	99
6.3.	Single-parent Women with Independent Children Only	101
6.4.	Married Women without Any Children	102
6.5.	Married Women with at Least One Dependent Child.....	102
6.6.	Married Women with Independent Children Only	103
CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSION		105
7.1.	Then, who is more empowered? In which aspect?.....	107
7.2.	Recommendations	109
7.3.	Contribution of the Thesis.....	110
7.4.	Limitations and Recommendations for Further Studies.....	110
REFERENCES.....		113
APPENDIX-A. DISTRIBUTION OF EXPLANATORY VARIABLES BY WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT LEVELS.....		121
APPENDIX-B. CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN BY EMPOWERMENT LEVEL		122

APPENDIX-C. MLR RESULTS	124
APPENDIX-D. REVISITING THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS	126
APPENDIX-E. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDELINE (TURKISH)	136
APPENDIX-F. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDELINE (ENGLISH)	138
APPENDIX-G. ETHICAL APPROVAL	140
APPENDIX-H. CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW	141



LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Component of Women's Empowerment Index	18
Table 2.2. The Percentage of Single-parent Households in Turkey	23
Table 4.1. Components of the Empowerment Index	44
Table 4.2. Names and Labels of the Variables Used in MLR Analysis.....	50
Table 4.3. Distribution of Women by Their Empowerment Status	51
Table 4.4. The Distribution of Women by Family Types which They Reside in	52
Table 4.5. Distribution of Women by Age Groups.....	52
Table 4.6. Distribution of Women by Place of Residence	53
Table 4.7. Distribution of Women by Region	53
Table 4.8. Distribution of Women by Wealth Status.....	53
Table 4.9. Profiles of the Participants.....	55
Table 5.1. Determinants of High and Middle Level of Women's Empowerment: Odds ratios**	63
Table 5.2. Profiles of Women Participated in In-depth Interview	66
Table A.1. Explanatory Variables by Empowerment Levels	121
Table B.1. Characteristics of Women by Empowerment Level.....	122
Table C.1. MLR Results.....	124
Table D.1. Revised Variables List for the Factor Analysis	127
Table D.2. Distribution of Women by Revised Empowerment Variable	130
Table D.3. Comparison of MLR Results for Previous and Revised Women's Empowerment Variables	132
Table D.4. Overall MLR Results after Robustness Check.....	134



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Domains of Women’s Empowerment	13
Figure 2.2. Component of Women’s Empowerment	14
Figure 2.3. GDI and GII	14
Figure 2.4. Component of SIGI.....	15
Figure 2.5. Schematic Measurement Models	17
Figure 2.6. The Percentage of Single-parent Households in the World.....	22
Figure 2.7. Poverty Rates by Household Type, 2021	24
Figure 3.1. Conceptualization of Women's Empowerment	33
Figure 4.1. Steps in the Study	38
Figure 4.2: Factor Analysis.....	47
Figure 4.3. Factor Analysis: Standardized F1 Scores	48
Figure 4.4. Construction of Women's Empowerment Variable	49
Figure 5.1. Women’s Empowerment Level by Family Types	59
Figure 5.2. Women’s Empowerment Level by Age.....	60
Figure 5.3. Women’s Empowerment Level by Wealth.....	61
Figure 5.4. Women’s Empowerment Level by Place of Residence.....	62
Figure 5.5. Women’s Empowerment Level by Region.....	62
Figure 5.6. The Most Frequently Mentioned Words Associated with Women’s Empowerment	94
Figure D.1. Factor Analysis Results.....	129



ABBREVIATIONS

ASAGEM	General Directorate of Family and Social Researches
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CEİD	Association for Monitoring Gender Equality
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EU	European Union
GDI	Gender Development Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
HUIPS	Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies
OECD	The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's
RFST	Research on Family Structure in Turkey
SES	Socio Economic Status
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
TDHS	Turkey Demographic and Health Survey
TURKSTAT	Turkish Statistical Institute
UNDP	United Nations Development Foundation
UNCSW	United Nations Commission on the Status of Women

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Conceptualization of women's empowerment in the literature, as well as measuring it is a very challenging and controversial issue. Discussion within the development field around the 1960s underestimated women in their analysis and considered women as a means of development (Toksöz, 2011). Since the 1970s, the unchanging position of women despite efforts in global development objectives has been highlighted by feminist scholars, and the causes of inequalities have been questioned in the context of class, culture, ethnicity, and politics. Most demographic studies examine women's position in terms of education, employment, and involvement in decision-making mechanisms (Upadhyay et al., 2014). Although there are many studies focusing on the economic factors affecting the status of women, current literature agrees that women's empowerment should be examined in a multidimensional way (Akadlı Ergöçmen, 1997; Bayissa et al., 2018; Calve, 2009, Crenshaw, 1989; Hooks, 1984; Rathgeber, 1990). Women's empowerment is closely related to the definition of power and can be defined as women being aware of their own internal and external resources, being able to make a decision on their own lives, and being a political subject acting together with other women.

The debate on welfare policies has drawn particular attention to the increasing proportion of single-parent households around the world and the poverty of women-headed households, and that they are considered as a risk group. Literature mainly concentrates on the status of households; however, intra-household dynamics had a significant role in affecting women's empowerment. Therefore, women's life courses and biographies are worth a comprehensive analysis.

1.2. Aim

The main aim of the thesis is to determine how women's empowerment varies by family composition and to examine how it differs according to the age, region, place of residence, and wealth status of women. It is aimed to analyze the level of empowerment of women living in single-parent households, which differs from that

of currently married women. The factors behind this issue were employed by quantitative and qualitative methods, and the findings are interpreted from a feminist perspective.

1.3. The rationale

The main justification of the study could be associated with gaps in the literature on examining the status and experience of single-parent women. Studies on single-parent households, which are generally seen as "broken families", mostly focus on the difficulties experienced in these households, household welfare, the psychosocial status of the child growing up in the households, etc. There are limited number of studies that focus on the position and experiences of women in single-parent households.

Considering the traditional family norms in society, these indicators show that single-parent women are not only economically but also socially disadvantaged. However, as seen in many studies, it can be observed that women have developed new tools to struggle with both the patriarchal system and economic difficulties by using different "bargaining" methods (Kandiyoti, 1988). One of the most important contributions of this thesis is to address the determinants of women's empowerment from different aspects by aiming to reveal this mechanism from a critical and holistic perspective. Finally, there are few research and analysis produced using the mixed method in this field, which put forward both representative analysis and in-depth insights simultaneously. This study will also contribute to future studies in terms of developing social policies for women and families with the outputs offered by the disciplines of demography and sociology.

1.4. Research Problems

The main research problem in this study is how women's empowerment varies by the household types in which women live because their resources and control over resources are highly manifested by household dynamics as well as policies towards families. The literature indicated that women living in a single-parent household are

disadvantageous especially due to poverty, on the other hand, some studies indicated that women gained autonomy and developed a coping mechanism to deal with the challenging aspects of being single-parent.

In this aspect, the main research question is raised as *“Is there a significant difference between the empowerment level of women by household types they live in, and how could this difference be explained?”*

To discuss the main research question, the following subquestions are also tried to answer in the study:

- What are the components of women's empowerment and how could it be measured by quantitative methods?
- Does women's empowerment vary by age, wealth status, region, and place of residence of the women?
- What other factors affect women's empowerment and how do they shape women's empowerment?
- How can women's empowerment be understood within the context of life course experience? How it differs by family composition, particularly for single-parent women?
- What kind of coping mechanisms did women develop and how could they be understood in terms of empowerment? How do they differ by family composition, particularly for single-parent women?
- What kind of gaps exist in the policies and services for single-parent families and women living in these families?
- What kind of policies should be developed to contribute to the empowerment of women living in single-parent families?

1.5. Scope of the Study

The study was designed and implemented using a mixed-method approach. The "Sequential Explanatory Design" is utilized in this thesis even though there are numerous varieties of mixed methods research (Creswell and Clark, 2015). The study is divided into two stages in line with the Sequential Explanatory Design. First, quantitative analysis is conducted. After the quantitative data has been evaluated, the

qualitative data is collected and processed to explain and elaborate on the quantitative findings.

Quantitative analysis is based on data from the 2018 Turkey Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS), which is a representative study across Turkey. The unit of analysis for this study is women, not households. The analyses focus on the distinctive characteristics and experiences of ever-married women in comparison with their different types of households. Therefore, the women in the dataset were grouped based on household types to enable to demonstrate of this comparison as follows: (1) Married women without any children, (2) Married women with at least one dependent child, (3) Married women with independent children only, (4) Single (divorced/separated/widowed) parent women with at least one dependent child, (5) Single parent women with independent children only and (6) Single (divorced/separated/widowed) women without any children. To investigate the main research question, the “women’s empowerment” variable consisting of 3 categories (higher, middle, lower) was constructed through factor analysis using a polychoric correlation matrix (UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group, 2022), and descriptive and multivariate analyses were conducted.

In the scope of the qualitative component, 18 semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with women from the aforementioned family categories. From each category, 3 women were interviewed based on each socioeconomic status (SES) (high, middle, and lower). Qualitative findings were analyzed in MAXQDA within the identified themes related to empowerment. Quantitative and qualitative findings were interpreted from the feminist perspective and triangulated in line with the findings obtained from secondary analysis and literature review.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is the crucial step since (a) it constitutes a basis for the design of the research methodology, (b) leads to the drive for the theoretical and conceptual framework that forms the pillars of the thesis, and (c) provides insights for the triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative findings presented in the discussion section.

It includes four subsections. In the first sub-section, the definitions of women's empowerment from different perspectives are presented with their historical background. Secondly, discussions on the measurement of women's empowerment and existing indices are presented. Thirdly, family composition and the situation of single-parent households in Turkey, which is the focus of the thesis are presented. In the last section, existing welfare state policies in the world and Turkey are analyzed to provide a basis for discussion and recommendations.

2.1. Conceptualization of Women's Empowerment

The concept of “empowerment” with a long history in sociology, psychology, and politics, is based upon research and social intervention in United State towards groups in poverty and marginalized, however, the discussion on “women's empowerment” dates back to the 1970s in which have been defined and treated officially in development field around the 1980s (Calves, 2009).

Oxall et al. (1997) stated that despite its prevalent use in the development literature without a clear definition, women's empowerment is used interchangeably with gender equality or the status of women (Batliwala, 2007). Alongside its meaning shows variety among institutions, it is even used differently within the same organization (Calvès, 2009). In the early 1970s, although it has cultural, political, and social dimensions as well as economic, it is observed that international organizations and scholars associated women's empowerment basically with economic development (Duflo, 2012). Women were considered as passive recipients who “need to be emancipated”. Just before the 1970s, it was believed that women's participation in the labor market would directly lead to their empowerment. Nevertheless, global economic development efforts failed to contribute to “women's empowerment”.

Therefore, scholars revised their conceptualization of this concept although this common understanding has been integrated into the welfare state policies and programs as Calves (2009) argues. However, in contrast to the definition within the scope of statu quo reducing women's empowerment to eliminating poverty around the 1980s, the term women's empowerment is handled by more radical understanding by highlighting women's own efforts in gaining awareness and developing their own capacity to create social transformation by defending their right and stand against the unequal power relationship.

Although, as agreed by several scholars, its definition and measurement are highly controversial (Akadlı Ergöçmen, 1997; Bayissa, et al.,2018), and it has been attributed to different meanings historically and ideologically; in a simple terms, empowerment could be defined as individuals' ability to improve their potential for both controlling and determining their lives as a result, to act accordingly (Luttrell et al., 2009).

On the other hand, for some schoolers, the concept itself was considered problematic. Vijayamohanan and Asalatha (2012) argue that, for instance, this concept is problematically defined because the understanding of the term toward power itself is defined as controversial. Therefore, it is primarily necessary to analyze this concept and the epistemological background notion of power and empowerment (Cornwall, 2014; Kabeer, 1999).

According to Rowland (1997), power is analyzed within four aspects: (a) *Power over*, (b) *Power to*, (c) *Power within*, and (d) *Power with*. The first one, *Power over*, is related to control, and it refers to a conflict between an individual or group having power and without power. In other words, power is defined within the scope of the domination and subordination relationship. In contrast to domination, *Power To* refers to developing a capacity for making decisions and problem-solving. New possibilities and actions are emphasized with creativity and productivity. *Power Within* is considered in the individual sense. It is more associated with psychological empowerment. It corresponds to an individual's self-confidence and respect. Rather, *Power With* is attributed to a collective understanding. It means that women assess their social interests, engage in a common endeavor, and act together with other community members.

At this point, Kabeer's (2001) and Young's (1993), the conceptualization of empowerment should be understood within the frame of power within. Kabeer explained women's empowerment with the concepts of *resources*, *agency*, and *achievement*. Empowerment is considered a process for women to be *the agency* by having the capacity of assessing and controlling their *resources* including both economic, cultural, and political, identifying their priorities, and making transformative actions, in other words, making an *achievement*.

In her article, Calvès (2009) wittily criticizes the way the concept has been treated in the literature and the popularity of the concept of women's empowerment in the field of global development Calve (2009) defines empowerment as follows:

“A multifaceted process of transformation from the bottom up. It is a process that permits women and the poor to gain awareness, individually or collectively, of the dynamics of dominance that marginalize them, and to build up capacities to radically transform inequitable economic, social, and political structures.” (Calve, 2009, p.13)

Similarly, Walby (1990) highlights the importance of the conceptualization of patriarchy before defining women's empowerment. It corresponds to a struggle against the intersectionality of inequalities. Therefore, she rather prefers to use the concept of “political capacity” instead of “empowerment” because, in case of an increase in inequality, the political capability may either increase or decrease. In other words, an action or situation empowering women may refer different meanings for women with different backgrounds.

Walby et al. (2010) also mentioned that the high status of wealth itself could not be attributed to a high level of empowerment. Micro-credit support is crucial to increase the status of women, however, domestic roles and responsibilities need to be transformed to achieve empowerment.

As a result, when power is described as control over the property, or intellectual resources and ideology, “empowered” women could be referred to as women who explored their capacity to identify their needs, expectations, and resources including economic, social, and intellectual, and has control over them; not only individual sense but also act together with other women collectively. Its definition covers both an individual power including having the ability of self-expression and self-esteem (Sen,

1997), and as Batliwala (1993) and Rowlands (1997) highlight, it also refers to having transformative power.

To be simple, as Mosedale (2005) summarized, (a) empowerment implies a change in the position from disadvantageous or unequal to equal, (b) empowerment could be achieved by women's own efforts and cannot be given by other individuals or institutions, they could only provide instruments for women to empower themselves, (c) it is related to women's ability to make an individual decision, finally, (d) it is not a state, but rather a process.

2.2. Historical Background of Women's Empowerment

Immediately after discussing the concept of women's empowerment epistemologically, it would be useful to look at the historical process that forms the background of this concept to comprehend it better. Discussion on the implementation of empowerment would put light on the Discussion and Suggestion Chapters, by discussing lessons learned in the history of development efforts within the feminist movement.

In the literature, women's empowerment and development are examined within the following historical breakdowns: "pre-1970s", "70s", "80s" and "90s to the present" (Serdaroğlu, 2010). In this frame, the Women in Development Approach (WID) as a reflection of liberalist theory, Women and Development Approach (WAD) originated from Marxist Feminist Approach, and the Gender and Development Approach (GAD) emerged as a response to them are examined in this section.

Pre-1970s: Women as an instrument of development

Following the global war, the United Nations (UN) was established in 1945 and the "United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW)" was established a year later. As consequence of the resistance and struggle of women's associations and organizations during the drafting of the United Nations Charter, the UNCSW failed to become operational, even though the Charter stipulated that women and men had equal rights and that their representation in the United Nations would be equal. Due to the inoperability of the Commission, it is seen that gender differences between

men and women were not included in the studies of the First Development Decade (Ertürk, 1996).

In the 1950s and the first half of the 1960s, economists theorized that all nations must go through a series of economic growth stages in order to achieve full development. The recipes for development, in other words, economic growth, have been presented. With sufficient investment and support, all countries would historically go through the same stages and be developed. As a result, the term development came to be used interchangeably with economic growth. (Todaro, 2003). In his book, *The Theory of Economic Growth*, Lewis (1955) put his efforts into addressing the ways of economic growth. Women and their positions were not considered in the discussion of development around this period. Ethnocentric and culturally blind development policies are dominantly implemented through the “underdeveloped” part of the word. Population control-based policies with impunity were adopted (Khan, 1984). Toksöz (2011) mentioned that women were considered as a tool for other objectives of development in this period.

The 1970s: Women’s empowerment in the focus on inequalities between women and men

By the 1970s, feminist scholars started the focus on existing inequalities despite all development efforts, and inequalities between men and women become the focus of the discussions. Boserup’s (1970) book was seen as a pioneer of the perspective of the *Women in Development Approach* in this period. In her book, she addresses the inequalities between men and women in the labor market, especially in agriculture. She addresses the position of women and inequalities between the West and the colonial world. Through technological development, women become more disadvantaged. Development efforts in the past did not change the position of women, rather, technological innovations in the labor market and production process bring about workload and lead to women’s inferior jobs. Therefore, as long as they gained the necessary skills and knowledge, they would take participate in the labor market more. From the WID perspective, international donor organizations focused on providing this balance. Labor and education policies started to be implemented by a variety of organizations.

In line with these discussions, the conference on the status of women was held in Mexico City, Mexico, in 1975, as a first-world women's conference. The goal of the decade was to achieve complete gender equality and the abolition of gender discrimination, integrate and fully involve women in development, and boost their contribution to reinforcing world peace. (United Nations, 1975).

However, Boserup's approach seems unique at this time in terms of presenting evidence base analysis for an explanation of inequalities between men and women but is criticized by scholars because she ignores the other structural factors and power relationships (Calve, 2009; Grigg, 1979). Today, WID Approach is still implemented by many women's organizations. It is crucial for women's equal participation in the labor market since its benefits for women cannot be denied. On the other hand, class-based inequalities, invisible labor, emotional labor, women's attributes, and household dynamics stand as an obstacle to women's empowerment, in the scope of definitions discussed in the previous section.

As a response to American liberal feminists who believe that policy change directly will bring about women's empowerment, the Women in Development Approach address that exploitation relationship. According to this approach, integrating women in development strategies is not a solution, and argues that women's empowerment is a long process related to power relationships and the reproductive role of women. Without a doubt, class-based inequalities stand as a huge obstacle to women's empowerment. On the other hand, women's empowerment is more complex and it is necessary to analyze intersectionality characteristics of inequalities such as ethnicity, religion, and patriarchal ideology, as highlighted by several scholars (Rathgeber, 1990, Hooks, 1984; Crenshaw, 1989; Calve, 2009).

The 1980s: Women's Empowerment in the focus of multiple inequalities

The second conference on women's equality and rights was held in Copenhagen in 1980. Its focus was on providing equality for women's access to employment, education, and health services (United Nations, 1980). However, by underlining limitations in the achievement of women's empowerment in the previous decade, a conference held in 1985, in Nairobi had a different discourse. In this conference, objectives on Equal rights under the law, and social and political participation of

women in the decision-making process were determined as the aims of the decade (United Nations, 1985).

As a response to WID and WAD approaches, the GAD approach suggests analyzing gender inequalities in the private sphere and directs its attention to household dynamics and power relationships. Moser (1993) and Young (1993) prominent argued that the cause of inequalities derived from the constructed roles attributed to men and women. There was a paradigm shift in the 1990s. The focus of the discussion shifted from women to gender in a more comprehensive sense. This approach centers on women as active agents. Therefore, the collective transformative power dimension of empowerment has been underlined. Due to complex and multiple understandings of inequalities, GAD offers multiple and holistic perspectives on women's empowerment objectives.

After the 1990s: Women's empowerment in the focus on a holistic perspective

The fourth conference in China, Beijing, is accepted as the most significant conference of all. With the participation of above 3000 community members, the action plan was accepted by 189 countries. 12 main objectives were identified in this conference women and the labor market, poverty, education, violence, health, decision-making, environment, media, conflict, the girls, and institutional adjustments. It is declared that only a holistic perceptive and implementations provide women's empowerment.

In 2000 in New York, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) included an objective namely "Promote gender equality and empower women by 2015" as one of the objectives. By 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) took MDGs' place and "Achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls (Goal 5)" was listed among 17 goals (UN, 2012).

Today, some thinkers believe that there has been a return to the pre-1970s approach to development and that the concept of women's empowerment has been eviscerated (Calve, 2009). On the other hand, it is also possible to say that the pseudo-modern approach that prevailed after the 1980s has continued. In short, it can be said that multiple understandings and programs continue at the same time. Luttrell et al. (2009) present a great analysis of the policies and approaches of all international

organizations. It is understood that both the definition of women's empowerment and the diversity of development initiatives are due to the complexity of societies. Just as the elements of women's empowerment are not the among all societies, it is understandable that efforts to achieve this are also different. On the other hand, as underlined by their analysis, today, there is a shift from a charity-based approach towards a right-based one. Focus on advocacy and activism for women's empowerment is rising. Finally, after the 2000's Women, Culture and Development (WCD) Approach also has been rising as a response from third World women, highlighting cultural variety among women (Serdaroğlu et al.,2008).

2.3. Measurement of Women's Empowerment

Given the discussion and gaps in definitions of women's empowerment and actions taken to advocate women's empowerment, it is inevitable to think about how difficult it is to measure the level of empowerment, with scientific criteria. It would not be wrong to say that these challenges are not only due to the complexity of the historical definition of women's empowerment and the diversity of actions taken to achieve it but also to the difficulty in generating and accessing data. In other words, gender data production and dissemination are also political.

Although efforts have been made to measure quantitatively on the axis of certain indicators, it would be quite appropriate to resort to qualitative methods reflecting women's participation if one has an empowerment perspective that focuses on women as “subjects”. Keeping in mind the difficulty of this issue, it should be emphasized the importance of measuring the level of women's empowerment with specific and scientific indicators. In the report of the CEİD, one of the rights and advocacy-based civil society organizations in Turkey, it is mentioned that indicator-based measurement of women's empowerment is crucial and it provides a roadmap for civil organizations, local governments, and the public sector in both identifications of existing gaps in gender inequality and developing policies to contributing women's empowerment (Sancar et al., 2021).

In their article, Céline et al. (2021) review the methodologies of existing indices designed in the last 5 years in the literature and identify the dimensions and indicators common to their measurement. It presents the gaps and challenges in measuring

women's empowerment. They review around 30000 publications, and 170 of them are examined in the final step. Their research summarized the following 7 domains of women's empowerment.

Figure 2.1. Domains of Women's Empowerment

Domains	Economic
	Health
	Human development
	Leadership
	Psychological
	Security and justice
	Sociocultural

Source: Celine et al (2021)

Within the scope of these domains, they review 38 surveys. Half of them were designed within the field of humanitarian action. They explore that earlier studies concentrate on dimensions related to health such as fertility, family planning, and maternity/health. Contraceptive use has been associated with a high level of women's empowerment. More recently, literature on measuring women's empowerment mainly centers upon sociocultural domains: 81% of the studies on the measurement of women's empowerment include sociocultural domains such as early and child marriage, the experience of violence, awareness of violence, opinion on gender equality and women's right, and attitudes towards sexuality. Health, economic participation, and justice follow sociocultural dimensions. Each of these dimensions is covered by 40% of the related studies. Economic dimensions include ownership and control over ownership, access to employment, types of employment, paid/unpaid work, formal/informal work, source of income, child labor, economic violence, and economic leadership. Health-based indicators include access and barriers to health services, survivorship, health perception, the decision on health, reproductive health, abortion, awareness, and communication on sexuality, and reporting violence to health personnel. The human development domain involves indicators related to literacy, education, knowledge and skills, access to information and aid, change in gender attitudes, and self-esteem. Human development indicators seem closely linked to

sociocultural ones. 15% of the studies involve psychological domains and indicators such as access to support, self-esteem, feelings about the future, etc. Analysis by Céline et al. (2021) indicates that leadership and justice are covered in only 9% of the studies. They include indicators of community engagement and political participation of women, access to the justice system, and so on.

As aforementioned, Kabeer (1999) presents a comprehensive understanding of women's empowerment by resources, agency, and achievement, which was borrowed by many scholars and institutions. From this perspective, World Bank (2022) identifies dimensions and indicators to measure women's empowerment, which is presented in the following figure.

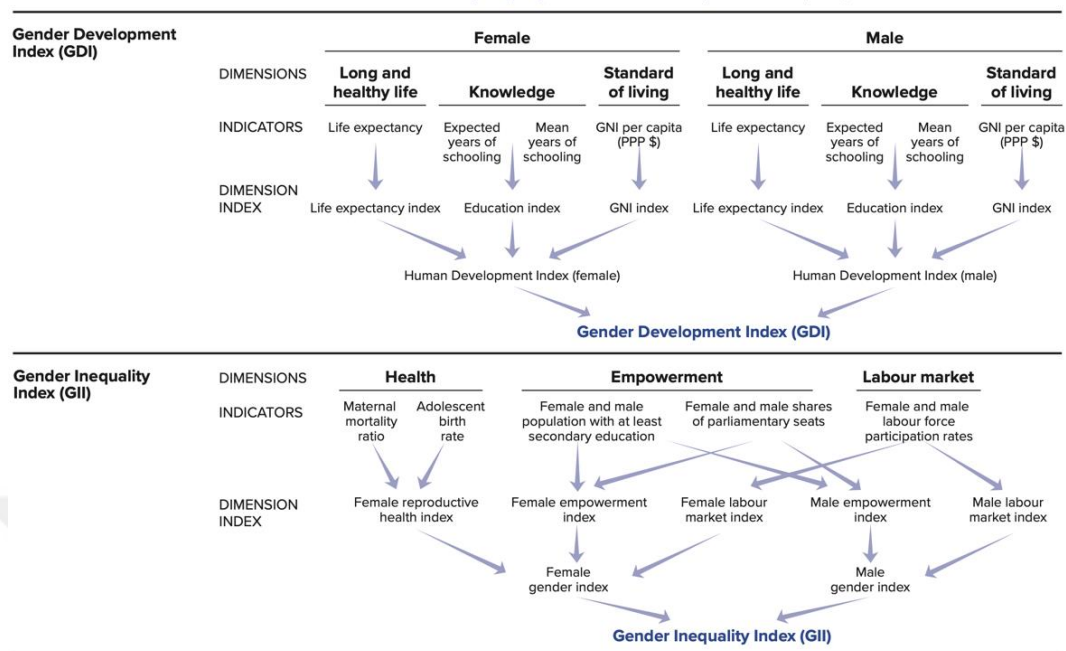
Figure 2.2. Component of Women's Empowerment

Resources	Agency	Achievements
•Health •Education (including basic literacy and numeracy, digital and financial literacy) •Willingness to take risks, optimism, determination (grit) •Soft skills (e.g., communication skills and teamwork) •Work experience •Personal access to networks •Time	•Ability to set goals in accordance with own values •Self-efficacy •Decisionmaking power over household expenditures •Decisionmaking power over savings and investment •Decisionmaking power over productive assets (assets with documented ownership or that the respondent has the right to use, purchase, sale, transfer, inherit or bequeath) •Increased financial independence/autonomy •Ability to act on individual or group goals	•Value of household expenditures controlled •Value of savings and investment controlled •Value of productive assets controlled •Absence of stress/economic well-being ("peace of mind") •Leadership roles •Self-confidence/self-esteem

Source: World Bank (2022)

As mentioned in the previous section, several steps have been taken to monitor women's empowerment and gender inequalities. United Nations developed Gender Development Index (GDI) and The Gender Inequality Index (GII).

Figure 2.3. GDI and GII



Source: United Nations Development Foundation (UNDP) (2022)

Figure 2.3 presents the dimensions and indicators of GDI and GII. Overall, women's participation in the job market, political empowerment, educational attainment, and health are considered in the calculation of the index.

Figure 2.4. Component of SIGI

Social Institutions and Gender Index				
Discriminatory family code	Restricted physical integrity	Son bias	Restricted resources and assets	Restricted civil liberties
- Legal age of marriage - Early marriage - Parental authority - Inheritance	- Violence against women - Female genital mutilation - Reproductive autonomy	- Missing women - Fertility preferences	- Secure access to land - Secure access to non-land assets - Access to financial services	- Access to public space - Political voice

Source: OECD (2012)

The components of The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) (2014) Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) are presented in Figure 2.4. The OECD's index covers a wide range of indicators on traditional norms and values, violence, basic needs, health, property ownership, decision-making, and legal rights.

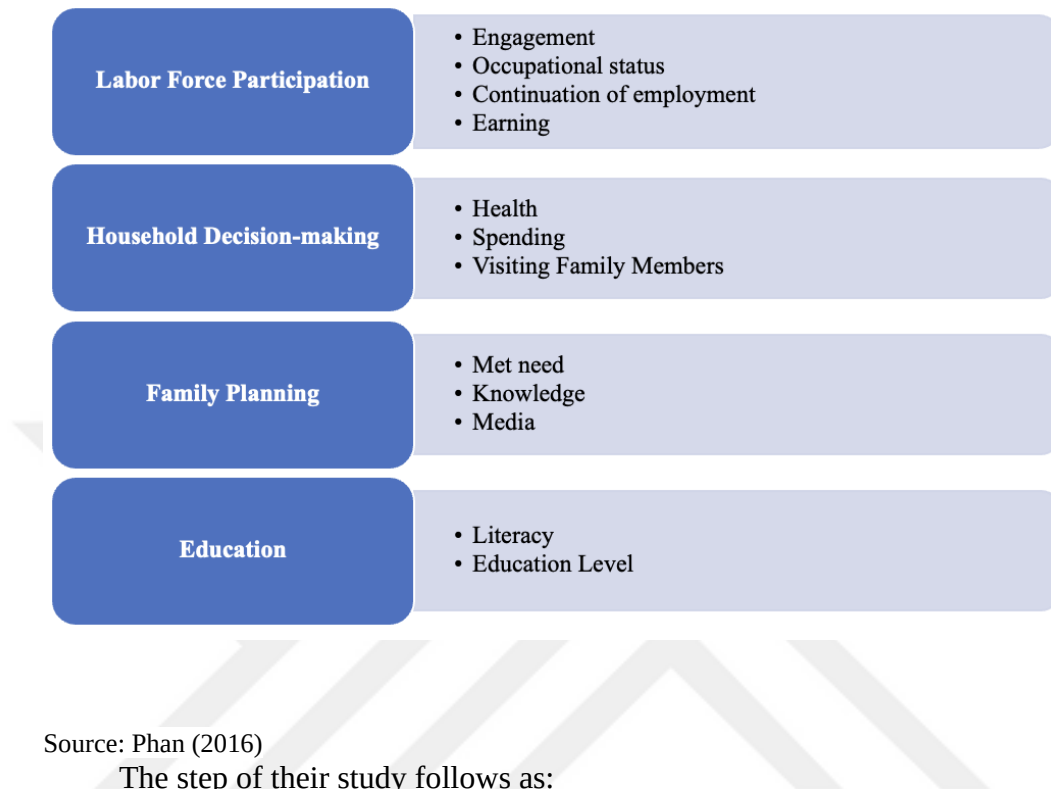
Measurement of Women's Empowerment in Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) data

One of the empowerment index models in the literature is developed by Phan (2016) which is shown in Figure 2.5. Phan uses Demographic Health Survey data for the measurement of women's empowerment. Accordingly, women's empowerment could be measured by taking into account these four elements: "Women's labor force participation"; "Women's household decision-making"; "Women's use of contraception"; and "Women's education".

They are formed by several dimensions of women's empowerment at a subjective level. The first part of the components includes the following points: "the engagement of women into the cash economy"; "their occupational status"; "the continuity of employment throughout the year"; and "types of their earnings". The second one includes "decision-making on health"; "household spending"; and "visiting people". Concerning the use of contraception, "Met need"; "access to family planning messages on media"; and "knowledge of contraception" constitute the third element. Lastly, a component of women's education includes "women's literacy" and "completion of a level of education". These components are ranked according to the level of women's empowerment.

Ewerling et al. (2017) also developed an index for the measurement of women's empowerment which is based on the DHS data and includes the following modules: "Woman's participation in household decisions"; "Employment and earnings"; "Control over resources"; "Opinion on wife-beating"; "Personal ownership of a house or land".

Figure 2.5. Schematic Measurement Models



1. Recoding variables
2. Calculate individual scores for each domain
3. Standardization
4. Determining the cut-offs in categorizing women's empowerment
5. Grouping domains as low, medium, and high empowerment status

They first selected 23 components for the analyses; after the evaluation, some of the indicators were excluded. In the last step, they decided on 15 components for the index as presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Component of Women's Empowerment Index

Domains	Beating not justified if wife goes out without telling husband
	Beating not justified if wife neglects the children
	Beating not justified if wife argues with husband
	Beating not justified if wife refuses to have sex with husband
	Beating not justified if wife burns the food
	Frequency of reading newspaper or magazine
	Woman education
	Age of respondent at cohabitation
	Age of respondent at first birth
	Age difference: woman's minus husband's age
	Education difference: woman's minus husband's years of schooling
	Who usually decides on respondent's health care
	Who usually decides on large household purchases
	Who usually decides on visits to family or relatives

Source: Ewerling, et al. (2017)

They made a principal component analysis which was shown using “Poisson regression” on Stata, they estimate the correlation between indicators. The 15 variables are presented. The factors which are grouped above Table, are analyzed as (a) Social independence; (b) Attitude to Violence, and (c) Decision Making.

After 3 years, in 2020, they developed and adopted this method for analysis for global monitoring after the expert meeting held in 2018 to improve the index. A list of recommendations was raised by the experts (Ewerling et al., 2020). The first one is the removal of the woman's working status variable from the index because it was found controversial. Experts suggest that working status itself does not address high empowerment, and paid/unpaid work, working conditions, and forced work should be considered. Therefore, Ewerling and her colleagues removed this variable. The second improvement was held in the indicators related to a person who decides on individual health issues and household expenditures. They are equally weighted joint decisions and woman's deciding alone. Thirdly, experts recommended adding indicators on decisions on women's reproductive health and access to technology. Finally, they also suggested that women who do not have a partner also should be covered in the analysis of empowerment. The last two recommendations have not been added to this index yet however they stated that they are working on the index for future research.

Based on these improvements, factor loading was employed for each country and then they were combined. After the validation with global indexes, the index developed by them was evaluated as international standards and better results to monitor women's empowerment, which also become a guideline during designing the methodology of this thesis.

Measurement of Women's empowerment in Turkey

In Turkey, Association for Monitoring Gender Equality (CEİD) is a prominent civil society organization that put significant efforts into developing indicators, and monitoring gender equality and women's empowerment in Turkey (CEİD, 2021). In 2022, a Report on Monitoring Gender Equality in Turkey was published. The report identified indicators on population, fertility, disability, marriage, family life, divorce, education, labor force, occupational choice, satisfaction with job and earnings, political life, violence and security, time use, poverty, mortality, and so on. In addition, TURKSTAT also produces data on women's statistics and designated them every Women's Day.

Gaps and challenges in the measurement of empowerment and solutions

In literature, gaps, and challenges in the measurement of women's empowerment can be summarized as follows (CEİD, 2021; Alloatti, 2019; Laszlo, 2020):

- Lack of data in all dimensions as aforementioned fields
- Outdated data
- Difficulties in accessing data sources
- Lack of data quality
- Low sample size
- Hard to include women's experiences and life stories

Measurement of Women's Empowerment through qualitative tools

Cornwall, A. (2014) emphasizes qualitative measurement techniques could present a broader understating of women's experiences and it would be beneficial in the analysis of biographic histories, and revealing cultural varieties among women. As feminist research methodology premises, conducting focus group discussions and in-depth interviews would be helpful to build on the non-hierarchical relationship and put

women at the center of the research (Harding, 1986; Gilligan, 1982; Ackerly et al., 2019).

Alloatti (2019) underlines that building a strong theoretical and conceptual framework is at the center of better measurement. Given this important note, the theoretical framework of the thesis is presented in Chapter 3-Theoretical and Conceptual Framework.

2.4. Overview of Single-Parent Households

In the previous sections, the dimensions of women's empowerment have been reviewed. There is an important point that many authors emphasize: women's empowerment is measured by indicators such as wealth, participation in work and decision-making, and so on, however, women's life course and the passages they go through have a significant impact on all these dimensions. For this reason, some scholars have argued that important transitions in women's lives, such as marriage, divorce, or loss of a spouse, directly or indirectly play a decisive role in women's empowerment.

Walby (1990) is one of the authors who emphasize the household type. She recommends analyzing the presence and absence of a spouse in the household and investigating the role of the spouse. In the same way, in her article, Chant (2006) critically addresses the feminization of poverty and examines the definition of poverty. Women's feminization of poverty is usually associated with the increasing proportion of women-headed single-parent households. She added that poverty does not only mean the absence of income, but it should also be analyzed by the concepts of women's decision-making, capacity, and deprivation. When women's poverty is considered in this context, it should also be analyzed as a situation that affects women's ability to make important decisions that affect their lives.

As Chant (2006) underlined, together with the changes in the social, economic, and cultural settings of the countries, the demographic structures of households have gradually changed in almost all countries in the world. Today, a significant decrease is observed in the size of the household as well as a transformation in the types of households. In most countries, the share of the extended family type has dramatically

decreased. It also brought about a transformation in the understanding and perception of the types of “traditional family”. Depending on increasing divorce rates and changing cultural and social environments, single-parent families have also increased. Considering the structure of all single-parent families, a substantial share of all single-parent families consists of mother-headed ones. It may be expected that such a trend will show the same pattern in the future. As a result, most of the OECD countries take action to develop policies to provide well-being for both women and their families. Therefore, understanding the dynamics of mother-headed single-parent families becomes more and more important not only due to a considerable increase in these types of families but also growing concerns about women’s equality and empowerment. Therefore, analyzing women’s empowerment in the concept of household types constitute the main focus of this thesis. This section provides a conceptual definition of single-parent households, followed by a review of studies focusing on household types in terms of women's empowerment.

Definition of single-parent families

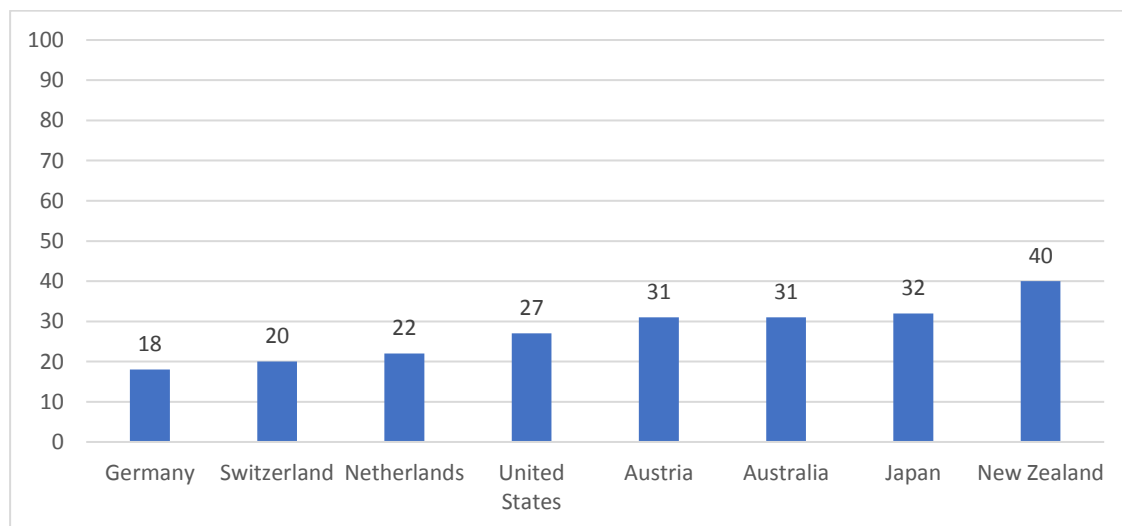
There are different factors affecting the composition of a family. Divorce, the passing away of the other spouse, or separation or adopting a child without marriage can lead to single-parent families. However, “a family composed of a mother and at least one child” is considered as the common criteria in the definition of a women-headed single-parent family". The age of children also shows a variety within the definitions. For example, in OECD (2011) family database, a mother-headed single-parent family is defined as “household with only a mother and at least one child under age 25”. However, in Turkey, the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT) (2018) defines this type of family as “families with sole parent and at least one child.” The age of the family is not clearly defined but it may be understood that it refers to a dependent child. Lastly, in the Single Parent Study which is the official research conducted by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family, Labor and Social Services (MoFLSS) (2011), “households composed of a mother who lives with her dependent children under the age of 18, whose spouse either passed away or who lives apart from

her spouse due to divorce or separation” is considered as a mother-headed single parent family.

Socio-Demographics Characteristics of Single-Parent Families in the World and Turkey

As mentioned before, the demographic structure of single-parent families shows a gradual trend around the world. In the world, nearly 5-10% of all households are single-parent households among OECD countries (OECD,2011). The study by European Union (EU) Policy Department for Citizens’ Rights and Constitutional Affairs Directorate (2020) indicated that between 2009 and 2019, the proportion of households with children headed by a single adult increased from 12% to 14%. The study underlined that single-parent households are gendered: only 3% of them are male-headed while 13% of them women-headed. %43 of the single-parent households are at risk of poverty, which is almost half of the two-parent households. Among EU-27 countries, a higher number of single-parent adults is observed in Estonia, Denmark, and Sweden by approximately 20%.

Figure 2.6. The Percentage of Single-parent Households in the World



Source: OECD (2018)

As seen in the figure below, according to OECD (2018), the highest number of single-parent households is observed in New Zealand at 40%.

Table 2.2. The Percentage of Single-parent Households in Turkey

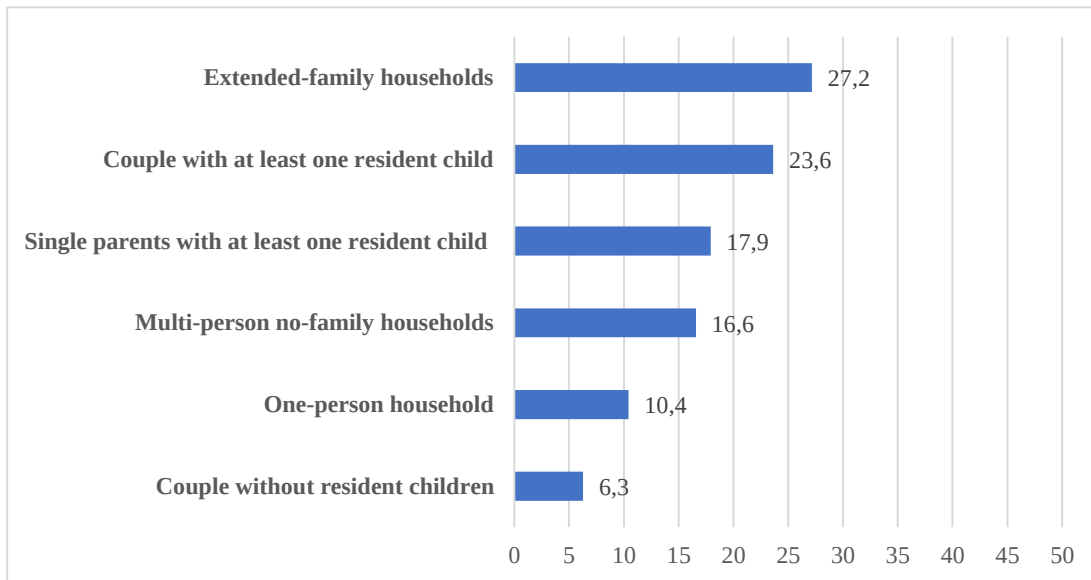
Types of households	Number of households	%
One-person households	4 781 600	18,9
One-family households	16 323 612	64,4
Couple without resident children	3 429 705	13,5
Couple with at least one resident child	10 344 507	40,8
Single parents with at least one resident child	2 549 400	10,1
Single fathers with at least one resident child	585 315	2,3
Single mothers with at least one resident child	1 964 085	7,8
Extended-family households	3 425 631	13,5
Multi-person no-family households	798 990	3,2
Total	25 329 833	100,0

Source: TURKSTAT (2022)

According to TURKSTAT (2022), 10.1% of total households in Turkey include a single-parent and children 2021. The gender structure of these families shows a similar trend with the globe: it was observed that 2.3% of total households consisted of households with a father and children and 7.8% of total households consisted of households with a mother and children.

The status of single mothers has been studied as a significant issue in the literature due to both an increase in the number of women-headed single-parent households and the disadvantageous position of these types of households. It is seen that economic difficulties are more common in families where single parents are women due to reasons such as insufficient job opportunities and receiving low wages. The lack of nursery opportunities with affordable amounts prevents women from participating in the labor market. In addition, if childcare services are inadequate women have to work in low-paid jobs for meeting children's needs, which causes poverty in families, especially where women are single parents compared to men.

Figure 2.7. Poverty Rates by Household Type, 2021



Source: TURKSTAT, 2022

The results of the income and living conditions survey indicate the overall poverty rate, which was calculated based on 60% of median equivalized household disposable income criteria, is 21.3% in 2021. Accordingly, 27.2% of households consisting of extended families, 23.6% of a couple with at least one resident child lives below the poverty line, and 17.9% of single-parent households. The number of households consisting of a couple without residence children seems low risk of poverty compared to couples with children or one-parent with children-families.

When the employment rate is analyzed according to marital status, divorced women are the most employed with 39.4%. This is followed by never-married women with 31.9% and married women with 29.3%. The proportion of working women who have lost their husbands is low, only 6.7% of these women are employed. (TURKSAT,2022).

In addition, single-parent women may face difficulties in work life. For instance, they often have lower wages for the same job than men, they have to work in precarious and flexible jobs. Under these circumstances, being a single parent requires taking over multiple roles (MoFLSS, 2018)

When the literature on the single-mother issue is reviewed, it is understood that most of the studies focus on “being a single mother” within the context of welfare state regimes and the labor market. For instance, the study of Edwards and Duncan (1997) could be considered one of the most comprehensive studies examining the status of single mothers. It is indicated that the status of single mothers is determined as either mother or worker depending on the types of welfare regimes.

In addition to macro-level analysis, other studies mostly concentrate on the welfare status of single-mother-headed households by emphasizing the poverty status of the households or psychological problems experienced by children or women in these household types (Brown et al., 1997; Franz et al., 2003; Van Den Berge & Duyulmus, 2015).

On the other hand, the common point of view in the literature is the fact that single-parent households are more likely to be subject to poverty compared to two-parent households (Pendy & Zhan, 2004).

Considering the studies on single mothers in Turkey, Research on Family Structure in Turkey (RFST), is considered to be the most recent and comprehensive one. Family structure in Turkey is examined in the scope of Advance Statistical Analyses of RFST, which is the most recent report having been published in 2018. One chapter in this report focuses on single-parent households. In this study, Koç (2018) uses the method of logistic regression to assess the determinants of single-parent households. The research indicates that although there are significant improvements in the socioeconomic status of single-parent families in recent years, they are still vulnerable relative to other family types in terms of monthly income, spending, and saving. Also, according to the study, these families need social assistance or receive loan from either banks, or their relatives. Lastly, it is also observed that they have a lower level of happiness compared to other types of families.

In addition to RFST, the Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry General Directorate of Social Assistance (ASAGEM) (2012) conducted research on Single Parent Families to identify how single-parent family members experience becoming a single-parent family in terms of economic, psychological, and social, legal and cultural factors. The study includes 473 participants and is based on qualitative and quantitative methods. Parents aged between 18-55 age and children between 7-17 living with a

single parent were involved in the study. One of the important findings of the study is the fact that women, as single parents, have difficulties in working life. Therefore, both employment opportunities and access to childcare services should be improved with a well-established monitoring system. In addition to public services of the free nursery, there should also be available services supporting family members psychologically. Another finding addresses that since single-parent household members are exposed to some prejudices, therefore, there should be single-parent families becoming more visible in public campaigns, published works, or TV programs to raise public awareness. The study also highlights that single parents should be provided free legal advice on legal procedures such as divorce, property division, and so on.

To further research, the study recommends two important conclusions. First, of them, women's ever work experience since marriage should be analyzed well. Studies indicate that in the case of women had no work experience or who have work experience in unskilled jobs, they mostly prefer to return to their parental family, which is identified as the most difficult experience for women with a low socio-economic status face. In particular, women living in rural do not receive alimony from ex-husbands.

Considering that the mother is also responsible for childcare, the lack of free daycare facilities, or the fact that the mother has not worked in a skilled job since the first day of marriage is the biggest barrier for the mother to work after becoming a single parent. Therefore, especially among young mothers, returning to the paternal home is a necessity. It is also noteworthy that mothers from low SES groups living in rural areas do not receive support from their ex-husbands in terms of alimony. Therefore, women's SES and ever work experience could be analyzed in detail in further studies.

Secondly, it is underlined that most of the studies focus on challenging experiences and the low socio-economic status of single-parent households. On the other hand, their study indicated that experiencing single parenting is more complex and multidimensional since there are positive feelings or experiences. Therefore, the study suggests further research may focus on the experience of single parents holistically.

On the other hand, Kader (2018) highlights that despite some single-parent women having positive feeling and experience such as freedom and autonomy after divorce, policies in Turkey does not support women during such positive expectations, Kader argues, rather the policies make them a more disadvantaged position. In addition to Kader (2018), Unal (2018) also suggests that better labor policies are necessary for women's economic independence and provision of work-family balance because they have to maintain work and family life in the absence of a partner, and they also find it difficult to bear both the physical and financial burden of caring for their children.

2.5. Policies toward Single-parent Households

Global trends in the development literature indicate that changes in the household structure should be focused more, as well as risks that may arise should be analyzed and policies should be developed accordingly (Burch et al.,1987).

In this context, it is possible to examine welfare regime policies on family types in three main aspects. Thévenon (2011) exemplified the three main assistance typologies: absence allowances, cash transfers, and allocation of services. He categorizes welfare regime policy models as Nordic Countries, Continental European Countries; Anglo-Saxon Countries and Switzerland; Southern Europe, Japan, and South Korea; and Eastern European countries.

Nordic Model

Nordic and Anglo-Saxon models show two different characteristics to accomplish to encourage women to take part in the job market. In the Nordic Countries, support for working mothers is ensured sufficiently. It is continuous, which enables women to work, in fact, to have full-time jobs, which is a crucial component of women's empowerment. Also, balance in work life and family is provided by the state. Childcare services are affordable and there are incentives for the family.

Anglo-Saxon Model

For women with young children, part-time work is a critical component in striking a balance between work and family life. Out of average payment, the benefit

offered to a single parent with a child under the age of three is 16%, compared to 10% for the OECD as a whole (Thévenon, 2011). As a catalyst for cash transfers to support families, policies are used here more than in other nations. In comparison to Nordic and Continental European countries, effective tax rates are low, particularly for single parents. For an additional earner in the household, Anglo-Saxon countries provide considerably amount of tax advantages compared to households in which only one earner exists. Also, formal childcare is mostly privatized. (Thévenon,2011)

Continental European Model and Others

Policy structure in Continental European countries is mixed according to Thévenon (2011)'s model. Working parents with young children in continental countries receive special assistance through parental leave and daycare services. The availability of formalized childcare services is restricted (Thévenon, 2011). Long working hours combined with insufficient official childcare help for working parents handling family duties result in low levels of fertility, women's withdrawal from the labor market, and a higher level of poverty, particularly in Eastern and Southern Europe and Japan.

In addition to Thévenon's categories, Trifiletti (1999) uses Esping Anderson's tropology of the welfare state and elaborates on four types of welfare state regime types which are Breadwinner; Universalist; Mediterranean, and Liberal Welfare Regimes. The breadwinner regime, as prevalent in Germany, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, wherein the women work largely part-time and receive entitlements from their husbands. Turkey may also be examined within this regime type. In the second type (Italy, Greece, and Spain), the state does not protect to rights of women in the labor market. They earn their social protection only from their working status. The third one is the Universalistic Social Democratic Welfare Regime in which state intervention is common in the labor market and also state regulates both family and work by legal actions and policies. In the liberal welfare regime type, which can be seen in the USA, the state does not intervene in the labor market which is highly privatized. It is a portrait of the neoliberal capitalist society, where women highly participate in the labor market but with poor condition of work.

Turkey

There has been limited data on mother-headed single-parent families in Turkey. As mentioned before, the most comprehensive and detailed one is the Single Parent Study (2011) conducted by ASAGEM. Accordingly, in the study, policies on single-parent families –particularly on mother-headed- are presented in detail. There have been certain development, a comprehensive family policy in the European Union countries such application has not yet been fully implemented in Turkey. Although there are family benefits and cash benefits, it is possible to say that these are insufficient and make families more dependent. Foundations affiliated with the ASAGEM also provide social support. However, for this assistance, there is a requirement to not receive regular-based income from social security institutions in any way. In this case, women who are single parent cannot benefit from these benefits.

As explained above, policies show variety from country to country in accordance with the types of welfare regimes. When welfare regime policies are examined in the framework of the feminist-demographic approach, it could be said that welfare-state regime in most countries is gendered in their nature. Rather than providing freedom to women who are single parent, the welfare regime in Turkey reinforce inequality and patriarchal norms within the society. As mentioned in the breadwinner model, within the conservative policies, women are not encouraged to participate in the labor market, rather, it forced to work mostly informal sector or low-payment jobs (Ecevit, 2003). Another problem with single mothers' participation in the labor market refers to policies encouraging part-time jobs. At first, a part-time job seems beneficial to women, on the other hand, it refers to low-payment and low-status jobs. This situation is a reflection of the Breadwinner Model of the Welfare State regime which attributes to women's traditional role of mother instead of an individual. Lastly, Turkey's welfare regime policies focus on social assistance rather than giving them autonomy.

Unal (2014) also mentioned that support provided by the General Directorate of Social Assistance to women whose husbands pass away has a significant impact on providing regular income. On the other hand, this opportunity is not provided for divorced or separated women. On the other hand, the provision of services such as shelter, psychological and financial assistance, and support in finding a job for women who have been subjected to violence in women's guesthouses, regardless of their

marital status, is considered to have positive effects on women and their children. However, it is not sufficient to provide these services only to survivors of domestic violence. Finally, although it is considered a good practice that children of single parents with insufficient economic power can benefit free of charge from a 5% quota of at least two children in private daycare centers, it is not sufficient therefore it should be increased, especially when the increasing trend of the single-mother household is considered.

Various policy suggestions for single-parent family members could be presented. Among the recommendations on legal procedures, the units where parents could receive free legal consultancy services on issues such as child support, property regime, and custody during the divorce period or after divorce should be made widespread. Another point emphasized in the study is to create priority employment policies for single parents and especially for mothers who are single parents. Another issue related to labor force participation is the free nursery and day nurseries where working single-parent mothers and fathers will leave their children during the working period. The study also suggests that single-parent families should benefit from the tax credit, family allowances, or child allowances. However, despite the risk of abuse of these incentives, the establishment of a control mechanism is important for such incentives to reach the right target audience. In the other OECD countries, it is possible to argue that Nordic Model has been more successful in providing women to exist in the labor market as a result of the policies encouraging and enjoying women in both the public and private domains of social life.

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Doing Feminist Demography

In this section, both the theoretical framework and the operational definition of women's empowerment and family composition are elaborated. Williams (2010) states in her article, *Doing Feminist Demography*, demography discipline based on the positivist approach, which is highly criticized by feminism due to the positivist approach's emphasis on objectivism. On the other hand, the feminist approach considers knowledge production could not be separated from social reality constructed in line with the social relations of power, class, gender, or race.

Demography and the feminist approach can be combined. Williams argues that feminist epistemology does not ignore scientific investigation. Rather, feminist epistemology considers power relationships during knowledge production, which could improve and expand demographic research, which is vital for the provision of services and developing policies that directly affect women. For that reason, demographic research is a significant tool for fighting against social inequalities.

As Abbot (2005) stated, the research findings do not speak by themselves, they needed to be interpreted and explained by the researcher. In this thesis, the methodology is guided by feminist epistemology. Without a doubt, feminist theory shows variety based on its conceptualization of malestream social, political, and cultural theory. On the other hand, Abbott (2005) argues that although feminism is classified as, Marxist, radical, dual-systems, postmodernist, critical, and Black/post-colonial, these classifications are considered problematic because they become more interrelated gradually. Epistemologies also differ by the researcher's position: Feminist empiricism, Standpoint, and Feminist Constructivism are common epistemologies. On the other hand, there are common points of feminist epistemologies. They have enabled women to conceptualize their worlds. Feminist theories consider experience, which is interpreted and reproduced by the researcher with contributions of the theories. A feminist perspective treats women as subjects at every stage of the research, rather than adding the disaggregation between women and men to any data or research. By giving attention to individual biographies and experiences, the world they live in is examined in terms of society, politics, culture, and class. As Harding (1987) argues,

the production of knowledge is considered a political activity. She concludes feminist research (a) should raise the problems concerning women, (b)presents an alternative explanatory proposition, (c) aim to play a role in women's empowerment, and (d) construct a unique and non-hierarchal relationship between researcher and subject of the research.

As aforementioned, this thesis primarily addresses women's empowerment. After examining the definition of this concept in the literature, it aimed to measure it with quantitative methods. However, although the representativeness of the sample is high, due to variable-related limitations based on the conceptualization of women's empowerment, it was planned to understand women's own experiences. In this endeavor, the study also included qualitative interviews. In this study, the factors affecting women's empowerment in different types of households are discussed and interpreted from a feminist perspective together with the existing literature. Intersecting inequalities are considered in detail.

3.2. Women's Empowerment

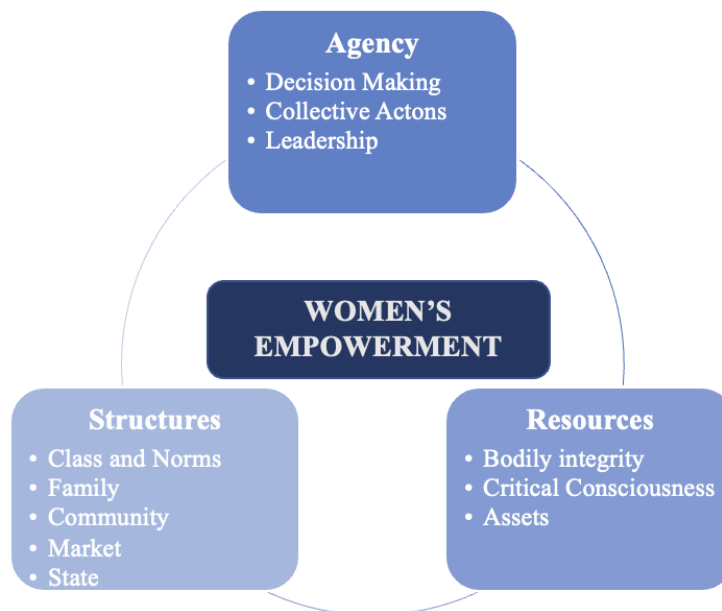
In the literature, the conceptualization of the "status of women" is quite controversial as well as the measurement of the status of women. During the quantitative analysis, by using 2018 TDHS data, the women's empowerment variable is constructed with 7 dimensions including 14 variables, which are discussed in the Methodology Chapter in detail. Dimensions include (1) Education, (2) Marriage, (3) Labor, (4) Ownership and Control, (5) Opinion on Gender Equality, (6) Decision Making, and (7) Access to Media.

On the other hand, although women have educational levels or working experience, they may not make strategic decisions about their lives due to cultural factors or household dynamics. Literature also shows that women's current working status is not itself address a high level of empowerment (O'Hara et al., 2018). Rather, a researcher always should look deeper into the background and other determining factors behind the research problem. Therefore, qualitative research was conducted to understand the broader women's empowerment, and its interplay with the agency, resources, and structures.

The conceptual framework of the thesis is drawn upon Ewerling (2017), Calve (2009), Kabeer (1999), Batliwala (1993), and Sen (1997)'s conceptualization of empowerment. When women's power is considered as control over assets, intellectual resources, and ideology, then "empowerment" is described as a woman investigating and attempting to control her own capacity to determine her own needs, expectations, and resources, including economic, social, and intellectual resources, which all of them are also shaped by class, ethnicity, normas, and values. Women's empowerment relates not just to individual empowerment, but also to women acting together with other women. Ewerling's (2017) conceptualization of women's empowerment follows as:

"Women's empowerment entails the entire set of transformations requiring for a woman to be aware of her rights. The interplay of them resides in the **agency**: correspondingly, her own capabilities and expectations; in **structure** which affects her life as a whole, and **resources**. All of them are shaped by each other." The figure above summarized the conceptualization of women's empowerment in the work of Eweling and her colleagues.

Figure 3.1. Conceptualization of Women's Empowerment



Source: Ewerling (2017)

They elaborate on the concept of resources, structure, and agency as such:

*“Institutional structures are the social arrangements of formal and informal rules and practices. They shape and influence the expressions of agency as well as women and girls’ control over resources. **Institutional structures** can be found in the arenas of the family, community, market and state. They comprise formal laws and policies, the norms that underpin them, and the ways these are practiced in the context of human relations. **Resources** are tangible and intangible capital and sources of power that women and girls have, own or use individually or collectively in the exercise of agency. Resources include women and girls’ critical consciousness³, bodily integrity (health; safety and security) and assets (financial and productive assets; knowledge and skills; time; social capital). **Agency** is the capacity for purposive action, the ability to pursue goals, express voice and influence and make decisions free from violence and retribution. It is at the heart of empowerment. The model highlights three specific expressions of agency: decision-making, leadership and collective action.”*

Findings are analyzed based on this conceptual framework and presented in Chapter 5.2.

3.3. Family Composition

Family composition examines the family structure such as a single parent, couple with children extended family, and so on; as well as union formation or re-formation including marriage, divorce, or separation (Weden, 2008). Family composition is a variable purposively constructed in SPSS to understand women’s position in the household they reside in. The unit of analysis is women, rather than households. Therefore, women in different households were grouped into 6 categories as follows:

- Married women without any children
- Married women with at least one dependent child
- Married women with independent children only
- Single-parent women with at least one dependent child
- Single-parent women with independent children only
- Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children

In the determination of “single-parent households with dependent children”, OECD (2018)’s definition is used. Accordingly, single-parent household refers to families consisting of one parent and at least one resident child below age 25. Because the age 18-24 corresponds to the period of university level of education and during university education of children, families may continue to economically support their

children. Being with a single mother is also another criterion in the definition of a single-parent household.

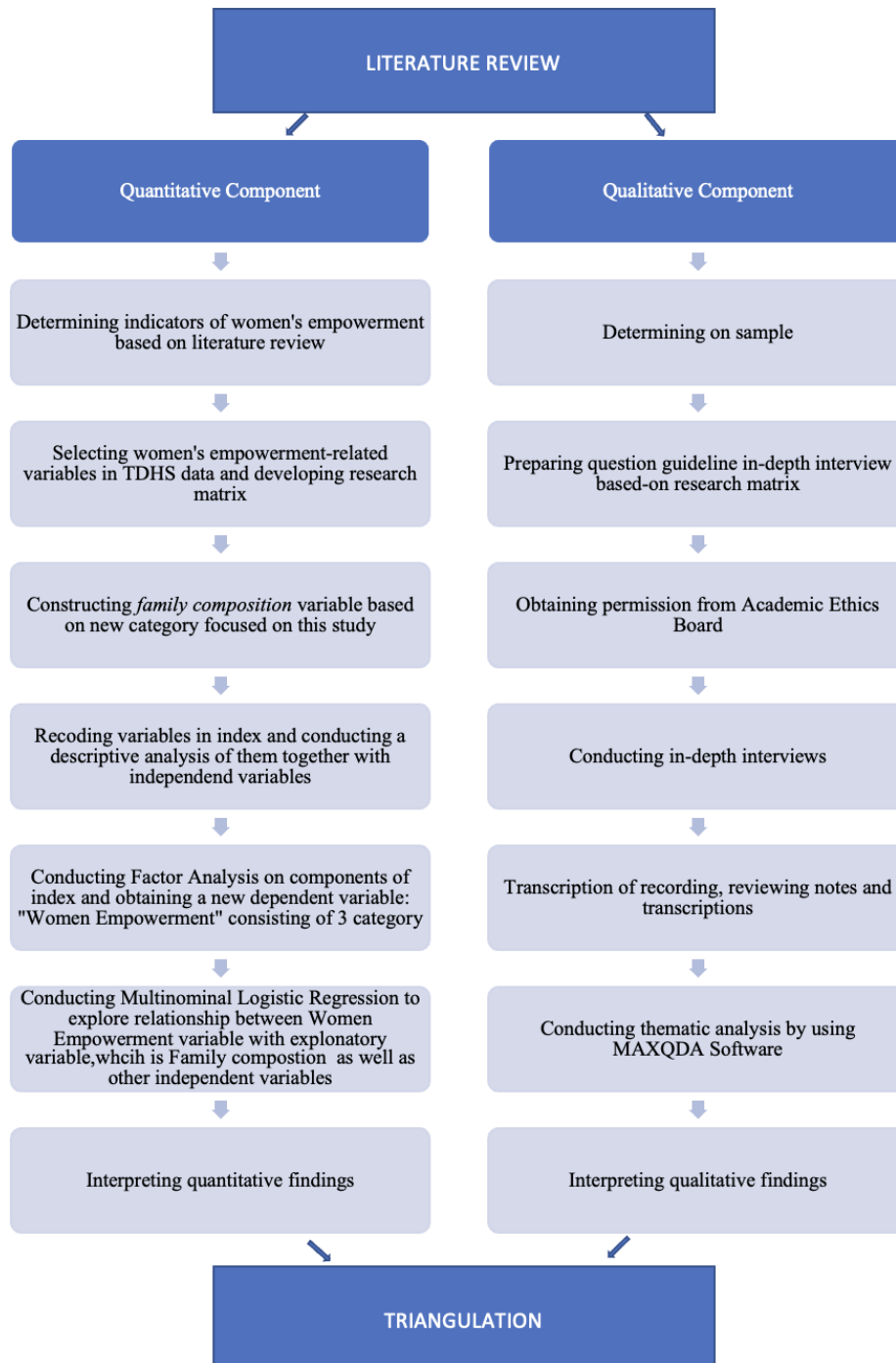
It must be recognized that the theoretical background and underlying factors behind “being divorced” versus “being widowed” are quite different. The former entails a decision-making process already in place -whether voluntarily or involuntarily-, while the latter is on the other hand, refers to an experience arising from without any decision and a “forced” separation. Surely, exploring the reasons for this situation will have different implications for women's empowerment. However, recognizing this limitation, this thesis focuses on being a single parent regardless of the reason for being a single parent.



CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

The mixed method is used as the main method in this thesis. According to Ivankova, Creswell, and Sheldon (2006), mixed-method research involves both quantitative and qualitative research processes and data obtained by quantitative and qualitative research integrated for an in-depth understanding of the research problem. Alongside there are many types of mixed-method research, “Sequential Explanatory Design” is used in this thesis. In “Sequential Explanatory Design”, the research consists of two phases. First quantitative research is conducted. After quantitative data is analyzed, in the qualitative part of the study, data is collected and analyzed to explain and elaborate on the quantitative results. The steps of the methodology are presented in the Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1. Steps in the Study



The research problem in this study is *how the status of women in single-parent families changes compared to the other family compositions*. To answer whether there is any difference between the empowerment status of mothers in single-parent

families and other types of families, quantitative analysis is used in the first stage. In this part, quantitative data obtained by the 2018 Turkey Demographic and Health Survey is analyzed using IBM SPSS Version 14. To measure the empowerment level of single mothers, first, an empowerment index has been developed. Ewerling et al. (2017) and Phan's (2016) models are used as guidelines. *Woman's employment, education, decision-making, and ownership of assets* is the core components of the index, which emerge from the combination of both models. In addition to these variables, the index also includes the component of women's *opinion, access to media, and age at first cohabitation* variables. The index employs the dependent variable. Accordingly, regression analysis was conducted to measure the empowerment level of single mothers. The multinomial logistic regression model was developed in order to assess women's empowerment and its association with the main independent variable, which is household composition. In addition to family composition, *place of residence, region, household wealth, and age group* are analyzed as independent variables.

In the second part of the research process, semi-structured in-depth interviews with women from different types of families have been conducted. Since the qualitative dimension provides deep knowledge about the research problem and provides further explanations of the issue, in-depth interviews have been preferred. Considering this thesis concentrates on women from the empowerment perspective, the in-depth interview technique becomes more valuable in terms of rising single mothers' voices, from their standpoint. Thanks to the qualitative research, the research problem has been employed in-depth by presenting descriptive knowledge on the status of women in different family types. Going beyond the description, it explains how and why family types and other independent variables affect their empowerment. It also enables to overcome data-based limitations and brings to light other factors affecting women's empowerment.

After quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed, data obtained from secondary data and primary data analysis were blended with the literature review. In other words, triangulation is conducted. Triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods and data in research (Williamson, 2018). It provides to discuss the research problem broadly.

4.1. Quantitative Research and Analysis

4.1.1. Data

Data from the 2018 TDHS was used in the analysis. TDHS, carried out by the Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies (HUIPS) is the 6th of the survey series which includes several demographic indicators, in terms of both individual and household levels. It covers indicators such as fertility and mortality, reproductive health, and nutrition. It also includes several indicators of women's empowerment.

With the TDHS data, which has nationwide representation, the analysis could be conducted for Turkey in general, for urban-rural, and five demographic regions as well as for NUTS 1 regions for some topics. Sampling methodology based on a weighted, multi-stage, stratified cluster sampling approach. The sample selection was conducted using the National Address Database supported by the Address-Based Population Registration System (ABPRS). The definition of urban-rural has been changed due to Law No. 6360 but in the TDHS data, an urban-rural distinction was included as a research variable according to the former administrative status and population size of each cluster. A total of 754 clusters and 100 households in each cluster were obtained from TURKSTAT. In cases where cluster information was not clear and in rural areas, the listing was carried out. In the second stage, 21 households from each cluster were selected through systematic random sampling from household lists. The total number of selected households is 15775. Of these households, 13962 were found to be suitable for an interview and 11056 households were interviewed. Household Questionnaire was applied to the selected households. In the Household Questionnaire, data on the SES of the households and the demographic information of the members were collected. In the case of the detection of women between the ages of 15-49 in the household, a Women's Questionnaire was applied to these women. 9056 women in 11056 households interviewed were found suitable for individual interviews. Women's interviews were completed with 7346 of them. On the other hand, this study includes 5484 women (the unweighted number of women is 5141) who are ever married. Never-married women were not included since the main focus of the study is to examine women's empowerment in the context of single-parenting experiences. Having dependent children is also another criterion for the

analysis. It should be noted that it is possible to have children outside of marriage. Although the average proportion of children born outside of marriage is 42% among OECD countries, in Turkey, it is 2.8% (OECD, 2020). Due to the low share of this sample, never-married women were excluded from the research scope.

Women's Questionnaire includes modules on socio-demographic characteristics of women, fertility, reproductive health, mother and child care, nutrition, migration and marriage history, marriage, experiences in the labor market and status of women. In this thesis, although the data obtained from the modules on the status of women was mainly used, other relevant modules have also been included in the analysis.

To obtain information on the same issues within the scope of 2018 TDHS, a separate sampling design was made for Syrian migrants residing in Turkey. With the sample of Syrian migrants, population and health indicators for Syrian immigrants were calculated for the first time at the household level in Turkey. On the other hand, since the analysis of the refugee sample requires a broader literature and discussion, to be able narrow down and focus on the research question and literature, the frame of analysis in this thesis was generated from the Turkish sample.

4.1.2. Construction of the Empowerment Variable: Factor Analysis

Most of the social phenomena are multi-dimensional and therefore cannot be measured by a single variable. Women's empowerment is one of the phenomena which includes multiple dimensions. Therefore, factor analysis was used to decide whether and how the information on these dimensions should be combined to measure empowerment. Factor analysis could be defined as:

“Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical method for obtaining a small number of identifiable and significant variables from a large number of variables that measure the same structure.” (Büyükoztürk, 2002, p.177).

It identifies a latent factor or factors that underlie observed variables. Factor analysis helps answer the question of how accurately the sum of variables measures the latent factor or factors (Wu, 2018). Through Factor Analysis, one could identify (a) the number of latent factors underlying observed variables, (b) the relationship

between these latent factors and observed variables, and (c) what exactly these variables imply. In this study, factor analysis using a polychoric correlation matrix (UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group, 2022). was used to first identify the component and contribution of each component to women's empowerment. Secondly, after employing factor analysis, to assess components of women's empowerment, using factor score, the "women's empowerment" variable consisting of 3 categories was constructed.

The first step of the study was to create a study matrix including the main research question and sub-questions. This study matrix is considered as a guideline for both the quantitative and qualitative components of the thesis. The second step is the construction of an empowerment index and the development of a "women's empowerment" hypothetical variable, which will be employed as the dependent variable in the analysis. To obtain this variable, variables related to women's empowerment were determined, and factor analysis was conducted with these variables.

Since the focus of the thesis is women's empowerment, and as discussed in the previous chapters, considering women's empowerment includes several determinants, after reviewing the literature and TDHS data, the following 7 dimensions that determine women's empowerment were listed as follows:

1. Educational status,
2. Marriage,
3. Labor force participation,
4. Ownership and control over ownership,
5. Opinion on gender roles and responsibilities
6. Decision-making and autonomy,
7. Access to media.

In these 7 dimensions, the following 14 variables were identified:

1. Educational attainment
2. Educational differences between spouses
3. Age at first cohabitation
4. Labor force participation
5. Control and Ownership: money
6. Control and Ownership: house

7. Control and Ownership: land
8. Control and Ownership: car
9. Opinion on only men's decision making
10. Opinion on divorce
11. Opinion on the gender division of labor,
12. Opinion on domestic violence against women
13. Decision on women's own health
14. Internet use

In Table 4.1, each dimension, domain, DHS indicator name, variable names in the data, response categories, and recoded versions used in factor analysis are presented.

As discussed in Chapter 2, each index has certain weaknesses and strengths. For instance, Eweling et al. (2020) revise their index, as a result of a 3 years-of-study. The index constructed in the thesis was calculated on the basis of their index but with a slight difference. Ewerling and her colleagues removed the working status of women since they found it controversial. On the other hand, this thesis includes working status, by agreeing on working status does not simply high-level empowerment, therefore it includes the dimension regarding “working with social security or not” by the assumption that working with social security could be associated with regular income and formal employment.

In terms of limitations, the question related to the current use of the contraceptive was generally asked to currently married respondents, it does not provide the analysis by the category of women employed in this thesis. As Ewerling and her colleagues suggested indexes are required to include indicators of decisions on women’s reproductive health. To overcome this limitation, qualitative research was conducted to bridge these gaps.

Table 4.1. Components of the Empowerment Index⁵

Dimension	Domain	DHS Indicators	DHS Variable Name	Response Categories in DHS	Category Used in Factor Analysis	Recode
Education	Educational Attainment	CS-Educational attainment	SEDUC	0 No edu/prim inc; 1 primary; 2 secondary; 3 high and higher; 8 dont know	0 No edu/prim inc; 1 primary; 2 secondary; 3 high and higher; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 0 and 1, Code 1 if 2, Code 2 if 3
		Educational Differences between spouses	V715	Continuous	husbanded	ed- husbanded=ediff; Code 0 if edif<0, Code 1 edif >=0
	Age at first cohabitation	Age at first cohabitation	V511	Continuous	ed	Code 0 if <18, code 1 if 18-25, code 2 if >25
Economic Status	Labor force participation	Currently Working	V714	0 No; 1 Yes	Work: 0 currently not working; 1 working without coverage; 2 working with coverage	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2
		Social Security	S740\$01-10	1 full time; 2 part time		
	Money	Have money to spend by herself	S793	0 No; 1 Yes	0 No; 1 Yes	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1
Ownership and Control over Ownership	House	Owens a house alone or jointly	V745A	0 Doesnt; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only; 3 both alone and jointly	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2 owns alone but jointly	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3

⁵ After the qualitative analysis, it was decided to conduct a robustness check. Therefore, some variables were removed or included to the index and analyses were re-implemented. The results are presented in **Appendix-D** in detail including new variables list, factor analysis results, distribution of the new empowerment categories, and MLR results.

Dimension	Domain	DHS Indicators	DHS Variable Name	Response Categories in DHS	Category Used in Factor Analysis	Recode
	Land	Sell the house by her own	S792B	0 No, 1 Yes	cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	
		Owens land alone or jointly	V745B	0 Doesn't; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only; 3 both alone and jointly	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2 owns alone but cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3
		Sell the land by her own	S792A	0 No, 1 Yes		
	Car	Owens car alone or jointly	S791C	0 Doesn't; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only; 3 both alone and jointly	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2 owns alone but cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3
		Sell the car by her own	S792C	0 No, 1 Yes		
Opinion on Gender Roles and Responsibilities	Opinion on only men's decision making	Opinion on: family decision by men	S794A	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 1 or 8, Code 1 if 0
	Opinion on divorce	Opinion on: better to divorce	S794H	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 0 or 8, Code 1 if 1
	Opinion on gender division of labour	Opinion on: husband should do housework	S794B	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 0 or 8, Code 1 if 1
	Opinion on violence exercised by men	Beating justified if wife refuses to have sex with husband	V744D	0 No; 1 Yes; 8; dont know	0 No; 1 Yes; 8; dont know	Code 0 if 1 or 8, Code 1 if 0
Decision Making	Health	Person who usually decides on respondent's health care	V743A	1 Alone; 2 With husband; 3 Respondent and other; 4 Husband alone; 5 someone else; 6 other	1 alone; 2 with partner; 3 partner/someone else alone	Code 0 if 3 / Code 1if 2 / Code 2 if 1

Dimension	Domain	DHS Indicators	DHS Variable Name	Response Categories in DHS	Category Used in Factor Analysis	Recode
Access to media	Internet	Use internet	S796E	0 No; 1;irregularly;2 regularly		Code 0 if 0; Code 1 if 1 or 2

Figure 4.2: Factor Analysis

Factor analysis/correlation			Number of obs	=	5376
Method: principal factors			Retained factors	=	2
Rotation: (unrotated)			Number of params	=	27

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
Factor1	3.82269	2.54416	0.6876	0.6876
Factor2	1.27853	0.72715	0.2300	0.9175
Factor3	0.55138	0.11922	0.0992	1.0167
Factor4	0.43215	0.18163	0.0777	1.0945
Factor5	0.25053	0.09039	0.0451	1.1395
Factor6	0.16014	0.13980	0.0288	1.1683
Factor7	0.02035	0.03521	0.0037	1.1720
Factor8	-0.01486	0.01507	-0.0027	1.1693
Factor9	-0.02993	0.05431	-0.0054	1.1639
Factor10	-0.08424	0.03354	-0.0152	1.1488
Factor11	-0.11777	0.09825	-0.0212	1.1276
Factor12	-0.21602	0.01526	-0.0389	1.0887
Factor13	-0.23128	0.03075	-0.0416	1.0471
Factor14	-0.26203	.	-0.0471	1.0000

LR test: independent vs. saturated: chi2(91) = 2.5e+04 Prob>chi2 = 0.0000					
--	--	--	--	--	--

STATA output for the factor analysis is presented in the figure above. First of all, the eigenvalue which represents the proportion of total variance explained by that factor should be examined (Pallant, 2010). The significant factor(s) with eigenvalues greater than 1 is considered significant and retained in factor analysis. It indicates that the factor(s) explains more common variance than unique variance (Shrestha, 2021). As presented in the output, the eigenvalues of Factor 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 have positive values. In addition, in terms of explanatory characteristics of the variance, which is greater than 1, only two factors were considered as “retained factors” as indicated in the output. Therefore, Factor 1 and Factor 2 have the largest explanatory variance. Column “Proportion” presents the size of the variance explained by each factor and column “Cumulative” presents it cumulatively. Accordingly, 91.75% of the total variation is explained by these two factors (68.67% by Factor 1 and 23.00% by Factor 2). Therefore, Factor 1 was used for the construction of the women’s empowerment variable.

The next step is to calculate the standardized f1 score. After Factor Analysis was conducted on Stata software, a standardized factor score was calculated (f1).

Figure 4.3. Factor Analysis: Standardized F1 Scores

```
. sum f1, detail
```

Scores for factor 1				
	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	-1.543132	-2.08847		
5%	-1.184334	-2.082208		
10%	-.9300846	-2.020074	Obs	5376
25%	-.5903383	-2.020074	Sum of Wgt.	5376
50%	-.1043172		Mean	.0047863
		Largest	Std. Dev.	.7854551
75%	.610469	2.049844		
90%	1.127063	2.150152	Variance	.6169397
95%	1.39114	2.150152	Skewness	.2626435
99%	1.731096	2.182064	Kurtosis	2.378372

```
.
. histogram f1
(bin=37, start=-2.0884705, width=.11541984)
.
.
.
. egen std_f1=std(f1)
(108 missing values generated)
.
. sum std_f1, detail
```

Standardized values of (f1)				
	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	-1.970728	-2.665024		
5%	-1.513925	-2.657051		
10%	-1.190228	-2.577945	Obs	5376
25%	-.7576813	-2.577945	Sum of Wgt.	5376
50%	-.1389049		Mean	2.28e-10
		Largest	Std. Dev.	1
75%	.7711232	2.603659		
90%	1.428823	2.731366	Variance	1
95%	1.765033	2.731366	Skewness	.2626435
99%	2.197846	2.771994	Kurtosis	2.378372

```
.
. histogram std_f1
(bin=37, start=-2.665024, width=.14694644)
```

Figure 4.4. Construction of Women's Empowerment Variable

```
. gen emp=1 if std_f1<0
(2519 missing values generated)

.
. replace emp=2 if std_f1>=0 & std_f1<=1
(1393 real changes made)

.
. replace emp=3 if std_f1>1
(1126 real changes made)

.
. tab emp, m
```

emp	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
1	2,965	54.07	54.07
2	1,393	25.40	79.47
3	1,126	20.53	100.00
Total	5,484	100.00	

```
.
```

The empowerment variable was constructed as follows: In cases where the standardized factor score (f1) was less than 0, the empowerment was coded as 1 (empowerment=1), when it was between 0 and 1, the empowerment was 2 (moderate), and when it was higher than 1, the empowerment was coded as 3 (high). The further steps include the calculation of descriptive statistics for the Women's Empowerment (emp) variable as well as explanatory variables, namely "Family Types" (family) and independent variables. These are presented in the following chapter.

4.1.3. Multinomial Logistic Regression (MLR)

In this section, after overviewing the use of Multinomial Logistic Regression, the variables are explained and descriptive results of the model variables are presented. The result of MLR is presented in the Findings chapter. In order to model the variation

of the dependent variable considering a list of independent variables, logistic regression is used. The dependent variable in logistic regression only has two categories, under the likelihood of the variable coded as 0 and 1 (Alves et al., 2020). On the other hand, it is possible to develop a model for the variation of ordinal (ordinal logistic regression) and polychotomous variables (MLR). MLR includes a dependent variable with more than two categories, which distinguishes it from logistic regression. By using a combination of binary logistic regressions, MLR compares different groups of variables. It is based on the assumption that the choices for the dependent variable are independent. In other words, the selection of or membership in one category is independent of the selection of or membership in another category (Anderson and Rutkowski, 2008; Garson, 2014).

This thesis aims to assess the relationship between household types and women's empowerment. In addition, the study also aims to indicate how empowerment varies according to age, wealth, region, and type of residence (rural or urban). In this thesis, the dependent variable named Women's Empowerment has three categories including low, middle, and high, hence MLR regression analysis was conducted.

The variable names and their labels used in the analysis are presented table below:

Table 4.2. Names and Labels of the Variables Used in MLR Analysis

Types of Variables	Variable Label	Variable Names
Dependent Variable	Women's Empowerment (Dependent Variable)	emp
Explanatory Variables and Covariates	Family Types (Main Explanatory Variable)	family
	Age in 5-year groups	V013
	Type of residence	V025
	Region	V024
	Household wealth index combined	V190

In the analysis, the data was weighted. In the following sections, the weighted and unweighted frequencies of the variables and their percentages are presented.

Dependent Variable: Women's Empowerment Status

As mentioned previously, the variable Women's Empowerment was constructed through Factor Analysis. This variable is employed as the dependent variable by selecting "the category Low" as a reference category because the study aims to assess the determinants of "having a higher of empowerment".

Table 4.3. Distribution of Women by Their Empowerment Status

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
Low*	2965	2633	51.2%
Middle	1393	1335	26.0%
High	1126	1172	22.8%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

Half of the women (51.2%) are in the low empowerment category. The proportion of women with high levels of empowerment is relatively low, corresponding to 22.8% of all women while 26.0% of women are in the category of middle empowerment.

Explanatory Variables and Covariates

The variable Family types consisting of six categories was constructed in SPSS. As mentioned previously, the criterion of having a dependent child refers to women who have at least one resident child below age 25. The reference category of this variable was identified as the category "married with at least one dependent child."

Table 4.4. The Distribution of Women by Family Types which They Reside in

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
Married without living children	366	349	6.8%
Married with at least one dependent child*	3863	3633	70.7%
Married with independent children only	927	837	16.3%
Single mothers with at least one dependent child	171	180	3.5%
Single mothers with independent children only	104	88	1.7%
Single women without living children	53	53	1.0%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

Table 4.4 indicates the distribution of women by the family types they live in. The table indicates that most of the women reside in the second category, which is married and having at least one dependent child (70.7%). 144 women are one-parent, corresponding to 5.2% of all women. 1% of the women are separated or widowed without any child.

Table 4.5. Distribution of Women by Age Groups

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
15-19	73	60	1.2%
20-24	453	424	8.2%
25-29	831	766	14.9%
30-34	1065	976	19.0%
35-39	1104	1052	20.5%
40-44	1023	988	19.2%
45-49*	935	876	17.0%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

According to age distribution, women's age distribution concentrates on between ages 30 and 44. 20.5% of the women are between the ages 35-39, followed by 40 and 44 (19.2%) and 30-34 (19.0%).

Table 4.6. Distribution of Women by Place of Residence

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
Urban	3921	4021	78.2%
Rural*	1563	1120	21.8%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

78.2% of the women reside in urban and 21.8 % of them in rural.

Table 4.7. Distribution of Women by Region

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
West	1682	2277	44.3%
South	683	648	12.6%
Central	1109	1082	21.1%
North	673	273	5.3%
East*	1337	861	16.7%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

The majority of the women live in the West, it is followed by the Central region with 21.1%. It is observed that only 5.3% of women live in the North. When examining women's empowerment by regions in MLR, East was used as the reference category, in which 16.7% of all women live in.

Table 4.8. Distribution of Women by Wealth Status

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Number of Women (Weighted)	%
Poorest*	1106	803	15.6%
Poorer	1167	985	19.2%
Middle	1100	1057	20.6%
Richer	1070	1129	22.0%
Richest	1041	1166	22.7%
Total	5484	5141	100.0%

*Reference category

The distribution of women by household wealth, as one of the main determinants of empowerment, is presented in Table 4.8. Poorest category is used as a reference category in MLR, which include 15.6% of the women. 22.7% of the women, on the other hand, rank among the richest wealth category.

4.2. Qualitative Research and Analysis

4.2.1. Aim of the Qualitative Component

As mentioned in the introduction, the main research question was formulated as follows: *“Is there a significant difference between the empowerment level of women by household types they live in, and how could this difference be explained?”* The first part of the research question was answered by quantitative analysis. The findings of the quantitative analysis are explained in Chapter 5. Overall, the quantitative study indicated that, relative to women who are married with at least one dependent child, widowed/separated/divorced women without a living child 19 times are more likely to be in the high empowerment level compared to low. Single mothers with at least one independent child only are 5 times more likely to fall into high empowerment compared to the low empowerment category. This finding seems controversial at first glance because, as mentioned in the literature review section, single-mother-headed families more are associated with poverty and low level of empowerment usually. Therefore, in the qualitative component, the aim is to explain which aspects of family composition affect the empowerment of women, as well as to understand how they are experiencing single motherhood in the context of empowerment. In other words, the qualitative component employs as validation of quantitative findings, as well as presents an explanation of the reason behind the factors affecting empowerment.

The following sub-questions are also tried to answer within the scope of the qualitative component of the study:

- How do women conceptualize empowerment?
- How does women's empowerment vary by family type, age, wealth status, region, and place of residence of the women?

- What other factors affect women's empowerment and how do they shape women's empowerment? (Such as class, ideology, culture and so on)
- How could women's empowerment be understood within the context of life course experience? How does it differ by family composition, particularly for single-parent women?
- What kind of coping mechanisms did women develop and how can they be understood in terms of empowerment? How do they differ by family composition, particularly for single-parent women?

4.2.2. Sample

Between November 17- December 17, 2022, semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with 18 women. The main distribution of the participants is presented table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Profiles of the Participants

Types of Women	Number of Women by Household Income Level			
	Lower	Middle	Higher	Total
Married women without any children	1	1	1	3
Married women with at least one dependent child	1	1	1	3
Married women with only independent children	1	1	1	3
Single parent women with at least one dependent child	1	1	1	3
Single parent women with only independent children	1	1	1	3
Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children	1	1	1	3
Total	6	6	6	18

Based on the considerable share of welfare level's in women's empowerment as a result of the MLR, each family type category included 3 women from the low, middle, and higher wealth status. In determining the reference points at the welfare

level, the Income and Living Conditions Survey of the TURKSTAT (TURKSTAT, 2022) was used. Distribution of annual household disposable income by 20 percent groups was ordered by household disposable income, according to the median income amounts. Accordingly, lower refers to annual household income below 41761,88 TL; middle refers to households with income 41761,88- 82594,01 TL, and higher refers to households with income 82594,01 and higher. TURKSTAT data was based on 2021 year. Considering the economic fluctuations, the participant's income level in 2021 was considered.

4.2.3. Sample Selection Method

Participants were reached with a snowball and purposeful sampling. More disadvantaged women were reached through local civil society organizations (CSOs) working in the field of humanitarian aid in Hatay and Gaziantep and women's cooperatives.

4.2.4. Mode of Data Collection

Considering the pandemic conditions, time and costs, remote data collection tools were used. Although face-to-face interaction is important in establishing rapport, online qualitative studies are increasing day by day and their limitations can be eliminated (Roberts, 2021). Some of the women were interviewed through video calls, and some of them were by telephone. The interviews lasted around one hour.

4.2.5. The Semi-Structured In-Depth Interview Guideline

To answer the research questions, a research matrix was developed that includes the index used in the quantitative phase, but with additional dimensions. Using this matrix, semi-structured in-depth interview questions were prepared (Appendix-E and Appendix-F). The question guideline includes semi-structured questions on education, marriage, employment life, daily life practices, the domestic division of labor, decision-making mechanisms, difficulties experienced, coping strategies and current needs, and so on. By discussing questions related to the themes, it aimed to understand the determinants of women's empowerment and the experiences of women

in different household types. Due to the nature of semi-structured in-depth interviews, additional questions were also asked based on the flow of conversations.

4.2.6. Qualitative Analysis

A series of steps were followed in the analysis of the in-depth interviews. First, an interview report was written after each interview. These reports include the notes taken during the interview as well as initial observations, comments, and insights. The voice recordings of the interviews with the participants who consented to the voice recording were transcribed and added to the interview report. In the interviews with participants who did not consent to the voice recording, more detailed notes were taken during the interview. The interview reports were transferred to MAXQDA Version 2022. After reviewing all reports, main code labels were created in MAXQDA, based on the literature and conceptual framework. Coding was completed by adding the sub-labels identified during the analysis. Each of the interview reports is assigned a unique ID number between 1 and 18 to ensure the anonymity, and the quotes presented in the thesis include the ID number, age of the women and the family category in which she lives. Finally, the findings in the coding document file were interpreted within the context of the conceptual framework, and after the thematic analysis, they were presented in Chapter 5.2.

4.3. Triangulation

After the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed, the secondary and primary data analysis data were blended with the literature review. In other words, triangulation was done. Triangulation refers to the use of more than one method and data in research (Williamson, 2018). It provides a broad discussion of the research problem. Findings were discussed and interpreted within the frame of feminist epistemology.

4.4. Ethical Consideration

This study was approved by the Hacettepe University Ethics Commission with decision no. E-85844849-300-00002485335 dated 17.11.2022 (Appendix-G).

In addition, during all stages of the research, principles of feminist research ethics are considered. The literature on feminist research focus on the safety and well-being of the participants (McCormick, 2012). Interviews included challenging life course events women faced in their lives such as the passing away of a partner, divorce, multiple forms of violence, poverty, and so on. Therefore, in the Consent Form, the purpose, scope, voluntary participation principles, and confidentiality principles of the study were shared with the women at the beginning of the interview (Appendix-H). They were informed about they have a right to do not to continue the interview in case they do not feel good.

To ensure confidentiality, participants were assigned an interview code and their names were not included in the thesis. As stated in the consent form, the participants were asked during the interviews whether they consent to the recording of the interview, provided that it is only used within the scope of the study and then deleted. Voice recordings of the participants who approve the recording of the voice were recorded.

Finally, feminist research ethics also focuses on the effect of vicarious trauma. Due to the challenges, they face, researchers also may feel uncomfortable during or after the interviews, which is called researcher trauma.

After the qualitative analysis, it was decided to conduct a robustness check. Therefore, some variables were removed or included to the empowerment index and quantitative analyses were re-implemented. The results are presented in Appendix-D in detail including new variables list, factor analysis results, distribution of the new empowerment categories, and MLR results.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS

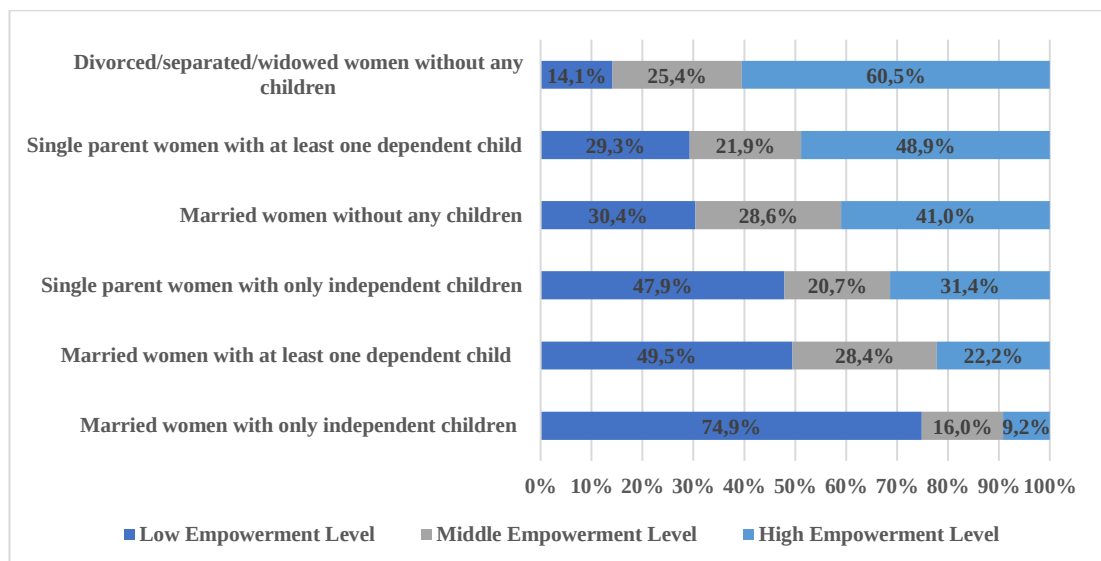
In this chapter, findings based on quantitative analysis and qualitative data collection are presented in separate sections. Descriptive statistics and MLR results are presented in Chapter 5.1, while the findings and analyses examined in MAXQDA in line with the identified themes are presented in Chapter 5.2. Additional tables including descriptive findings and MLR results in detail are presented in Appendix-A, Appendix-B and Appendix-C.

5.1. Quantitative Findings

5.1.1. Descriptive Findings

In this section, the descriptive results for the empowerment level of women by explanatory variables are presented. As mentioned previously, women's empowerment by the household categories is the main focus of the thesis. On the other hand, it is also determined by several factors such as women's age, wealth status, place of residence, and region they live in. To test whether a statistical difference between these variables and women's empowerment, the Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted, and the results were significant at the .05 level, which means there is a statistically significant difference between these explanatory variables and women's empowerment level.

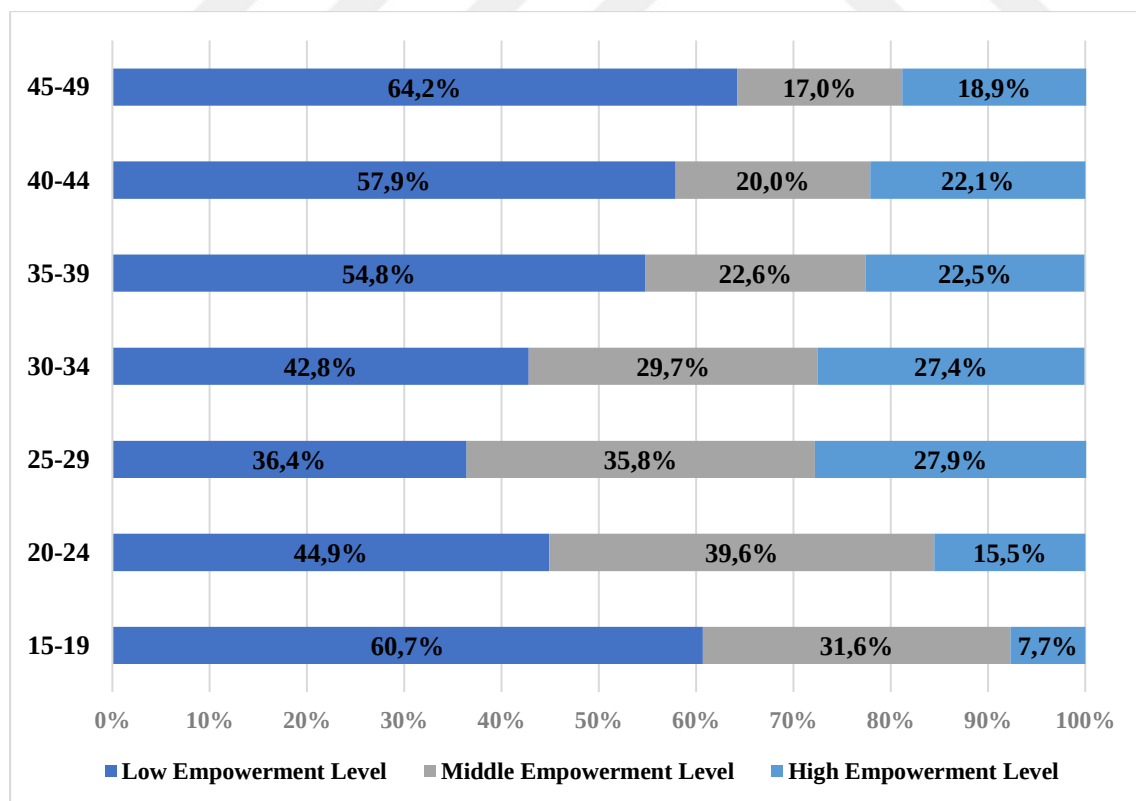
Figure 5.1. Women's Empowerment Level by Family Types



First of all, the single (divorced/separated/widowed) women without living children category includes most women who rank in the high empowerment level compared to women in other categories. 60.5% of single women without any child are in the high empowerment category. It is followed by single mothers with at least one dependent child: 48.9% of them rank in the high empowerment category. 41.0% of the married without children women and 31.3% of single mothers with at least one independent rank in the high empowerment category.

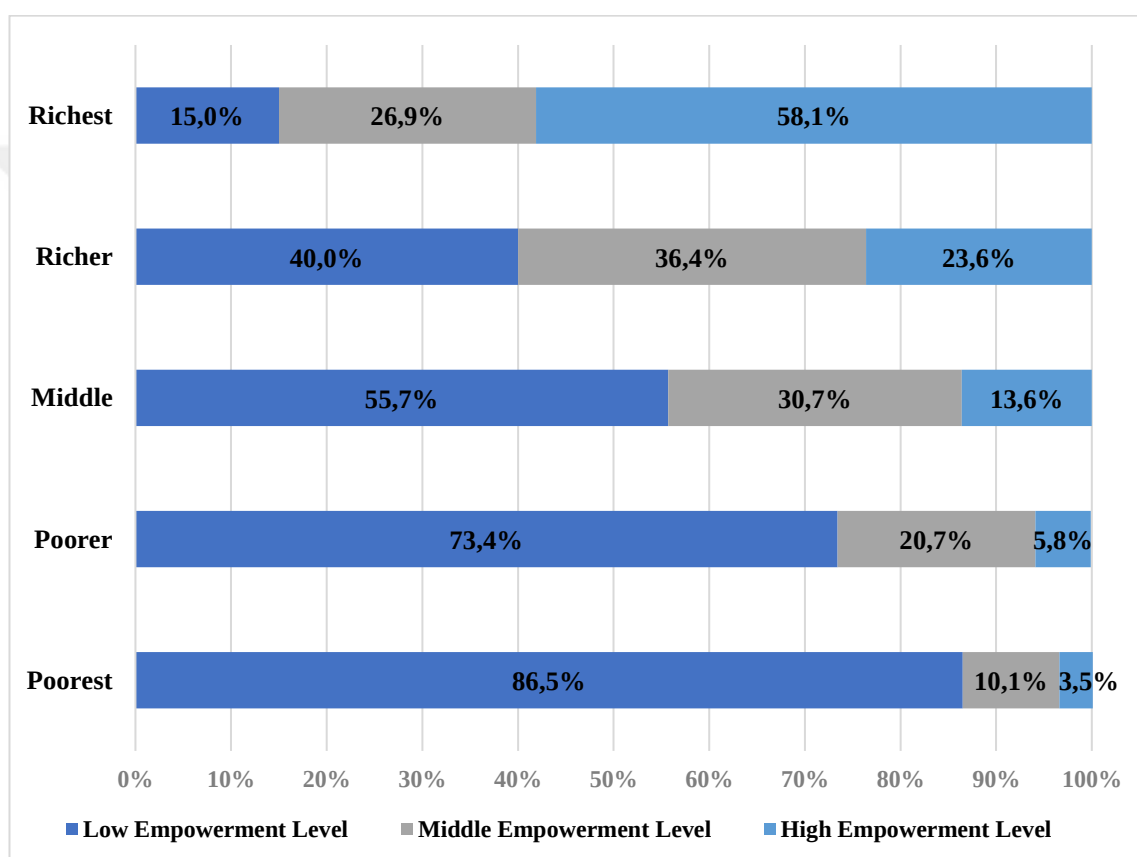
As indicated by the figure, whether with independent or dependent, currently married women ranked among mostly low empowerment level. 74.9% of the married women with at least one independent child only and almost half of the married women with at least one dependent child (49.5%) are in low empowerment level. It must be noted that these groups are not homogenous, and women's empowerment status is affected by many factors. These are further examined in MLR and the qualitative part.

Figure 5.2. Women's Empowerment Level by Age



When the women's empowerment levels are analyzed by age group, it is observed that most of the women between the ages of 29-30 have a high level of empowerment. 27.9% of women aged 25-29 and 27.4% of women aged 30-34 are at a high level of empowerment. On the other hand, most of the women aged 45-49 and 15-19 are at a low level of empowerment (64.2% and 60.7%, respectively).

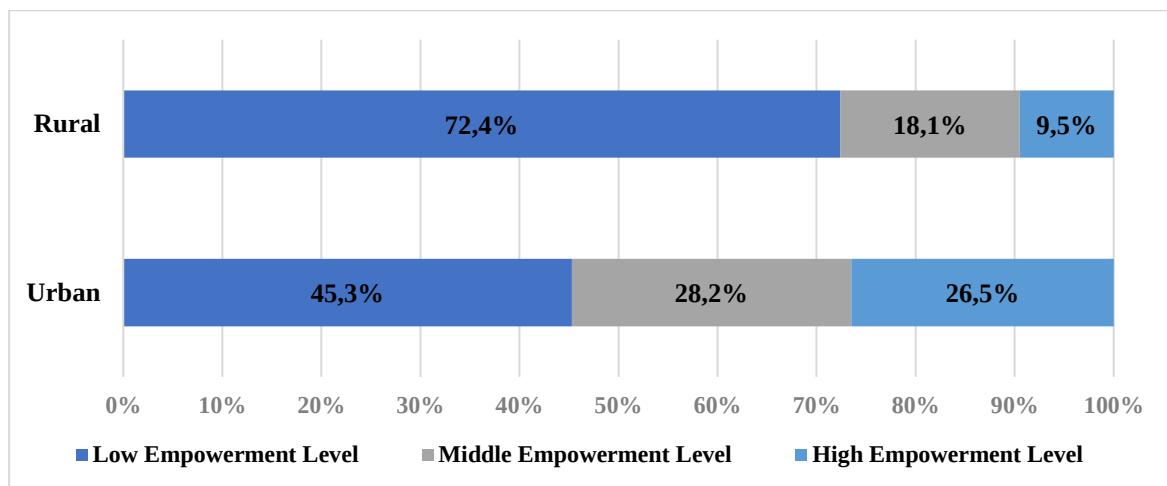
Figure 5.3. Women's Empowerment Level by Wealth



As presented in the figure, empowerment level seems to vary by household wealth status. 58.1% of the women ranked among the richest wealth group are highly empowered as well. Only 15.0% of the women in this group have low empowerment levels. However, 86.5% of the women in the poorest wealth category have low level of empowerment. On the other hand, although empowerment decreases when wealth status decreases, there is still a dramatic difference between women's empowerment level for the richest wealth status and the "richer" wealth status. Especially in richer and middle wealth status, the rate of women with middle-level empowerment is increasing, and 40.0% of women in the richer group still have a low empowerment

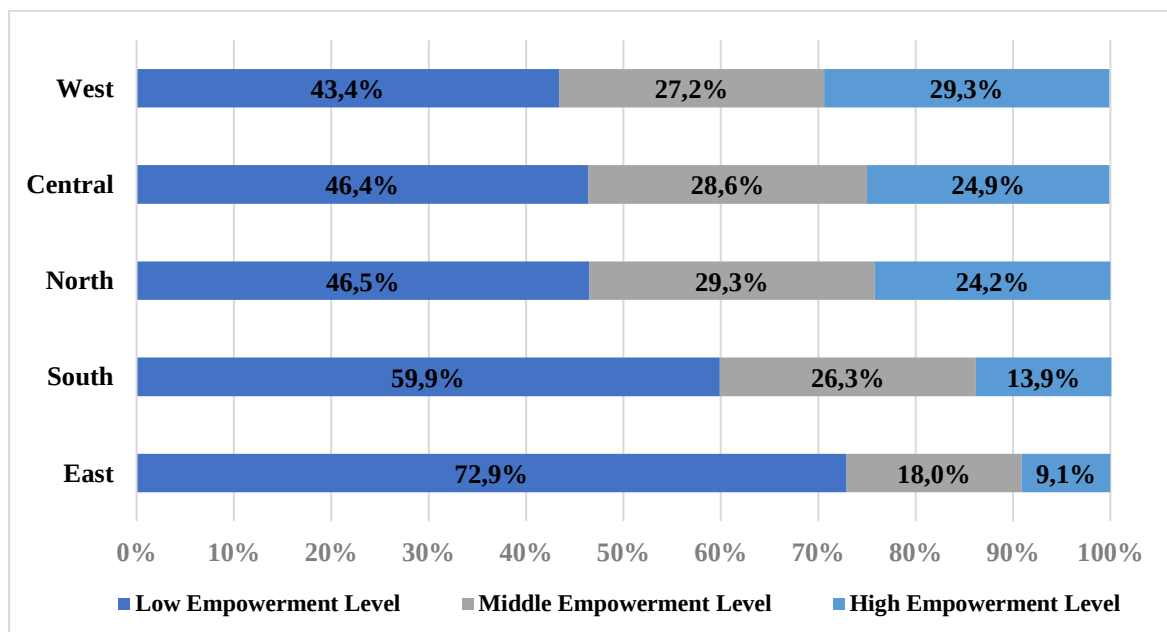
level. This means that while wealth is an important determinant of empowerment, there are other factors explaining women's empowerment.

Figure 5.4. Women's Empowerment Level by Place of Residence



In terms of place of residence, 26.5% of the women in urban have a high level of empowerment and 28.2% of them is the rank in the middle. However, 72.4% of the women in rural is a low empowerment level.

Figure 5.5. Women's Empowerment Level by Region



In terms of region, women's empowerment level does not indicate a significant variation among West, Central, and North. On the other hand, the empowerment level

of 72.9% of the women in the East and 59.9% of them in the South is low. The share of women in the middle empowerment level is also very similar in all regions except the East, where most women are in the low empowerment categories.

5.1.2. Multivariate Analysis Results

As mentioned before, due to the dependent variable (women's empowerment level) having more than two categories multinomial logistic regression is used. The main objective of the analysis is to assess the characteristics of women who are likely to belong to high empowerment levels, compared to the low empowerment level, given certain other information such as family types, age groups, wealth status, place of residence, and region.

Table 5.1. Determinants of High and Middle Level of Women's Empowerment: Odds ratios**

Variables	Middle Level Empowerment		High Level Empowerment	
	Coef,	p-value	Coef,	P-value
15-19	4,15	0	0,784	0,706
20-24	5,204	0	2,1	0,005
25-29	5,487	0	4,288	0
30-34	2,848	0	2,381	0
35-39	1,553	0,009	1,364	0,123
40-44	1,2	0,257	1,109	0,578
45-49*	1	,	1	,
West	1,494	0,001	1,869	0
South	2,064	0	2,135	0
Central	1,484	0,002	1,451	0,021
North	2,407	0	2,994	0
East*	1	,	1	,
Urban	0,847	0,146	0,555	0
Rural*	1	,	1	,
Poorest*	1	,	1	,
Poorer	2,576	0	2,05	0,006

Middle	6,108	0	8,442	0
Richer	12,035	0	25,255	0
Richest	28,353	0	206,997	0
Married women without any children	1,209	0,305	2,977	0
Married women with at least one dependent child*	1	,	1	,
Married with only independent children	0,585	0,001	0,29	0
Single parent women with at least one dependent child	2,387	0,001	7,555	0
Single mothers with only independent child	2,115	0,024	5,038	0
Widowed/separated/divorced women without any children	3,606	0,014	18,961	0
Constant	0,033	0	0,014	0

*Reference category

**Reference category for the dependent variable refers to low level of empowerment

Women's Empowerment and Family Types

Relative to women who are married with at least one dependent child, widowed/separated/divorced women without any children 19 times are more likely to be in the high empowerment level compared to low. Similarly, single parent women with at least one dependent child are 7.5 times more likely to be higher empowered, while single mothers with only independent children are 5 times more likely to fall into high empowerment compared to the low empowerment category.

Women's Empowerment and Wealth Status

The results indicate that household wealth status is the most significant factor affecting women's empowerment. Compared to the poorest wealth status, being in the richest wealth status is associated with more likely to be highly empowered 206,997 times, relative to a low level of empowerment. Although the probability of being highly empowered is still high among richer wealth status, there is still a dramatic difference between the richer and the richest wealth status. Women with richer wealth status are 25 times more likely to have a high empowerment level compared to those who have the poorest wealth status.

Women's Empowerment and Age

Age is another factor affecting women's empowerment. The results indicate that, overall, women between 20-34 ages are more likely to be highly empowered compared to women aged 45-49. Women aged 25-29 are 4.3 times more likely to be in high empowerment and women aged 30-34 are 2.4 times, and 20-24 age 2.1 times more likely to be highly empowered compared to women age 45-49. The results for the probability of being highly empowered do not indicate any statistically significant difference for other age groups. On the other hand, the probability of having a middle level of empowerment significantly differs for all age groups except ages 40-44. Accordingly, women in the 20-24 and 25-30 age groups are more likely to fall into the middle empowerment level compared to the low one, by approximately 5 times.

Women's Empowerment and Place of Residence

Women residing in urban are more likely to be highly empowered relative to low by 0.5 times, compared to women in rural. On the other hand, results for the probability of falling into middle-level empowerment are not statistically significant for the place of residence (p value=0.146).

Women's Empowerment and Region

Women living in the North are 3 times more likely to be at a high level of empowerment compared to those in the East, and women in the South are 2.1 times more likely. Moreover, relative to having low empowerment, the probability of women living in the West being highly empowered are 1.8 times greater than those living in the East.

5.2. Qualitative Findings

The findings based on the interviews with 18 women is presented in this section in the scope of identified the themes. As mentioned in the conceptual framework, structures, resources, and the agency are constantly shaped by each other. Since it is difficult to make a clear-cut distinction between them, related findings are presented also with multiple themes.

5.2.1. Profiles of Women Participated in in-depth Interviews

The table below indicates information on participants including family composition, socioeconomic status, age, number of children, employment status, and region women live in.

Table 5.2. Profiles of Women Participated in In-depth Interview

Women by Household Composition	SES	Age	# of children	Completed education level	Current employment status	Region
Married women without any children	Lower	34	-	Higher Education	Full-time, paid, unregistered	South
Married women without any children	Middle	28	-	University	Self-employed, registered	Souteasth
Married women without any children	Higher	32	-	Higher education	Full-time, paid, registered	Central
Married women with at least one dependent child	Lower	38	3	Primary school	Full-time, paid, unregistered	Souteasth
Married women with at least one dependent child	Middle	36	2	Higher education	Self-employed, registered	Souteasth
Married women with at least one dependent child	Higher	39	1	Higher education	Not-working	West
Married women with independent children only	Lower	46	2	High school	Not working	East
Married women with independent children only	Middle	41	2	Higher education	Full-time, paid, registered	West
Married women with independent children only	Higher	50	2	Higher education	Retired	West
Single-parent women with at least one dependent child	Lower	40	3	No formal education	Full-time, paid, formal	Central
Single-parent women with at least one dependent child	Middle	39	2	Secondary school	Full-time, paid, formal	Central
Single-parent women with at least one dependent child	Higher	36	3	Higher education	Part-time, paid, formal	Souteasth
Single-parent women with independent children only	Lower	56	2	Secondary school	Full-time, paid, unregistered	West

Single-parent women with independent children only	Middle	51	2	High school	Full-time, paid, unregistered	West
Single-parent women with independent children only	Higher	56	3	High school	Retired	West
Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children	Lower	48	-	High school	Self-employed, registered	East
Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children	Middle	32	-	Higher education	Full-time, paid, formal	West
Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children	Higher	45	-	Higher education	Full-time, paid, registered	West

5.2.2. Structures

Within the structures, the labor market, family structure, and dynamics are examined. Patriarchal ideology, class and cultural norms, social policy, and legislation are also analyzed within the scope of structures. As aforementioned, all components continuously interact with each other and shaped each other.

5.2.2.1 Participating in labor market

Participation in the labor market is an important component of empowerment. It provides many advantages for women. On the other hand, working conditions should also be examined in detail when discussing women's empowerment. This section presents findings on the effects of participating in labor market on women from different household categories, challenges faced in working life, and reasons for not working.

It was observed that participating in the labor market has many benefits for women. Women from all categories who participated in the interviews primarily emphasized the social advantages of working life. They underlined that they also “exist” outside the home. For women who work outside the home, their visibility increases in the public sphere, and gain a social network. This contributes to their psychological well-being

"I didn't have much of a social network before I started working. When you work, one's social network, daily conversations, everything changes. I was actually social person, but I couldn't meet different people." (Married women with independent children only, 39, Middle SES)

"Women's employment means involving in social life. It brings many things." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 36, Middle SES)

Especially for divorced women, it seems that working is play a crucial role in coping with the negative feelings, difficulties, and conflicts experienced with the spouse just before divorce:

"Working.. refers to to have my own freedom. Not being dependent on someone. This improved my self-confidence. I feel happy. Even when I was very unhappy with my husband, I was distracting myself." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 40, Lower SES)

Similarly, entering in the labor market is vital for coping with the negative emotions and experiences after the loss of a partner or separation. A single-parent woman returned to work after the loss of her husband- despite her husband passed away when her children were younger- express this situation as follows:

"It took 1-2 years to recover after losing my husband. Of course, having children and family support are very important in this process. But what really brought me back to myself was working. I was taking care of my children at that time. After I lost my husband, I said I couldn't work anymore. Then, with the support of my relatives, I started working after 1 year. I am glad I worked, otherwise I would have loss my mind." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 56, Lower SES)

On the other hand, childcare responsibilities stand out as the main reason for married women with children not working, especially when they have husbands earning a regular income and do not equally share childcare responsibilities:

"I am 10 years older than my sister. My sister had to start working when she was 3 months old. But I was already taking care of her son. We were in Urfa because of my husband's job. I was at home. When my son started primary school, I worked in the private sector for 2 years. I left. Then I decided to have my second child. I took care of him until kindergarten, then I started working. But I left again. I prioritized my children. We had a regular income coming home. We had economic difficulties at that time, with only one salary, but I still didn't think about working. It was hard to raise my child with someone else. I spent productive time with the children. I graduated from high school with a degree in child development. I was doing activities with them. I never received any support from the father." (Married women with independent children only, 39, Middle SES)

One of the participants from higher SES stated that they had to retire earlier due to spending time her child aged 11 because her husband does not spend time with children adequately:

"Children are going to school, you know, someone else can take care of him until a certain time, and when the father is not enough to take care them, I felt it was better to leave the job and spend time with him. I mean, if your husband does not support you, you take him alone." (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

Even if women work before they have children, it is more difficult to return to work after a long recession:

"I went through the same thing and I felt very trapped, I didn't work for the first year, it was a difficult decision to leave the child and go to work at the end of a year. My mind was always staying at home, I wondered how the child is now, whether my child feels bad without me, whether the people at home can take care of her, whether she cried, whether she ate or drank anything etc. everything was a trouble." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

Childcare responsibilities are also valid for single-parent women. Nevertheless, while married women may decide to postpone entering or returning to the labor market if they have a husband who earns a regular income; single parent women have two options in front of them: entering the labor force and receiving assistance from their mothers to take care of children, or returning parental home. For single-parent women, "not working" was particularly associated with "returning to the parental family home". As often observed in the literature, women who are unable to work after divorce, separation, or loss of a spouse are likely to return to the family home:

"For the first 10 years after seperation, I didn't face many difficulties. They mostly went to grandma's. I was already doing housework, cooking... I would have been unhappy, I would have been in a very difficult situation. Now I have been the sole breadwinner for 5.5 years. I would have to go back to my mother's house otherwise I would have to. I couldn't take care of my own needs. There was nothing to do, either to my husband's home or to my mother's house. Or work. (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 40, Lower SES)

A participant who is married with dependent children, who is not currently working so that they could take care of her young children, but was previously a psychologist shared her observation about her patients:

"I also observe it in my consulees as well. When you don't have economic freedom, sometimes you really feel trapped, I mean, especially for some women, if they want to divorce, they can't divorce because they can't go back to their

family, let's say, and they have to stay in that relationship. Just to be able to continue her life, to be able to continue economically. For me, there is no such difficulty, I can work in a store or a restaurant if I need to, I can somehow earn money and provide for myself and take care of the child somehow, I know that I can go back to my family at the very least, but the idea of not earning money is something that makes me feel weak. (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

For women who do not receive support from the family or do not have the opportunity/do not prefer to return to their parental home, there is only one option:

"I have no family in the economically and emotional sense. No one gave me 5 Turkish lira. I can do it, I earn money, I work with my honor, why should I expect anything from anyone. I paid insurance for this money and retired." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

In cases where women do not work and receive financial support from their husbands, they stated that even if their children and household expenses are met, women cannot easily buy anything that they want. However, although their children's needs are met, they desire to be able to make expenditures for their children with their own money. All women with children especially from low and middle SES underlined that participating in the labor market and earning their own money make them strong because they could be able to afford children's education and basic needs.

"My eldest son goes to high school, he couldn't get to any private lesson apart from the school. Now that I am working, I enrolled my middle son, I enrolled him to private class with my salary, it is worth everything." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

Therefore, although women's basic needs are met because of their higher household wealth status, they do not freely meet their personal needs in line with their own wishes. This situation emphasizes the importance of women's participation in working life: the importance of earning their own money comes to the fore:

"I mean, I used to be able to shop for my child and myself without thinking with the money I earned when I was working, but now that I am not the one earning the money, yes, I can easily spend money on the child, I spend my husband's money, but when I am going to spend it on myself, I ask over and over again, "do I really need this, you might as well not buy it this month" because I feel like it is not my own money." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

"There was a period when I was married and not working. I wasn't earning money, the company (husband's company) already has money. I would go to the grocery store, but would I go, "would you give me 50 TL"... I would ask for permission. When I earned money, I would go, I wouldn't tell them. I would buy what I wanted. It is very difficult to be dependent." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

No doubt entering the labor market has a positive impact on women's empowerment in general. However, this impact varies according to working conditions. The precarious conditions of work constitute a risk to women's physical and mental health. For example, in the words of the woman herself, a single parent who has been working as a care worker under difficult conditions for many years:

"I couldn't go even when I was sick, even then you have to work. I got very tired, very worn out, I got a herniated disc in my neck." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

Working hours and environment is more crucial for especially married women because they have to maintain the order within the family. It is found that women developed a coping strategy to maintain their role as worker, mother and wife at the same time, which seems very difficult to sustain:

"With 3 children, housework and work at work require physical strength. Our working hours are longer in summer, and work is also waiting at home. While the order at home continues, the order at work must also continue. I do it the day before and in the evening. I do houseworks at the weekends." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

In terms of balancing work, family, and personal life, most women do not have time to enhance their own social or intellectual resources and enjoy their leisure time, which is a key component of empowerment. They devote their time outside of work to their children and family. This is especially true for married women with dependent children:

"Working means making compromises. Our single friends go on vacation every year. Sometimes I go if my mother can support the care." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 36, Middle SES)

"My wife had lots of friends. When the child was young, sometimes in the evenings after work I would leave the child with him, I wanted to make my own program, but I couldn't, there was a problem with alcohol. I compromised myself

to be good for the child. Did you have a life of your own, you didn't. The child is the matter" (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

"For the first two years after the child was born, someone always reminded me to go out, to do something for myself. By the end of the third year, I was already going out with my friends once every two weeks or so. I would say, "I'm going to relax at home for a while. But it's about the stress factor. Should I spend time for myself, should I spend time for the child, should I go to work, should I take care of the house, should I take care of my husband... On the one hand, we don't really have time alone since the child. So all these are pressure factors. And when I had one or two nights on my own, the first night was fine, but the second night I would get this restlessness. I shouldn't be on my own, I have a responsibility now, such a restlessness would set in. I mean, everything can bring a sense of guilt, there is such a situation." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

One of the retired participants stated that she established this balance after his retirement:

"That is what I realize the most right now, that is, many women who work today, who have children, unfortunately do not see what is going on outside, who are doing what and who are facing what, I shouldn't say that they are really insensitive to this, but they don't hear it, they don't see it, in their working life. There is such a limitation of working for women." (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

She mentioned about only working women have difficulties in socializing or getting news from their environment, however, when her previous expression was analyzed, it could be inferred that the lack of the husband's role in care responsibilities is a determinant for her retirement decision.

5.2.2.2 Family structure and dynamics

The family structure can be analyzed in terms of women's empowerment in the scope of the following themes: household decision-making mechanisms, division of labor, and women's coping strategies. Decision-making is found as directly related to women's empowerment in both quantitative and qualitative analyses. Issues such as women making decisions about themselves, making decisions about their own bodies and reproduction, and making decisions about their children and household expenditures were discussed during the interviews.

Decision mechanism

It was observed that the most autonomous women in decision-making were divorced/widowed/separated women and women without children. This is followed by single-parent women participants. This decision-making autonomy is more pronounced among women with higher socioeconomic status and education. An important point should be discussed herein: some women have lost their husbands or divorced/separated and who were determinant in the decision-making when they married. If the partner or the woman alone makes decisions within the marriage, the woman is the decision-maker in the household even after divorce. However, if the women do not play an active role in decision-making when they married; after becoming a single-parent, other individuals outside the household become influenced in the decision-making. For instance, if the husband was the decision-maker during the marriage, women may seek the help of family members. These people are mostly fathers, brothers, and adult children.

"Before we divorced, we both had a right to make decision. I used to make the final decision. I used to make the final decision about the children. If something was to be bought, he used to buy it. After the separation, only I make the final decision, not anyone." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

"After losing my husband, I started to get more support from my father. I consult him when I make important decisions." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

For most married women, decisions on expenditures are made by husbands, while expenditures and other decisions regarding children are made by the partner or the mother:

"My wife makes the economic decisions. Inputs, debts are with my wife. I have a say in children. What I say is implemented." (Married women with independent children only, 39, Middle SES)

It has been observed that women with higher socioeconomic status make decisions about their own health and fertility; after making the decision the first themselves, then they discuss it with their husbands and convince their husbands:

"First of all, my decision is valid, I mean, I used birth control for a while, after all, he was not thinking about children and we were not married. I continued to use it for a period after I got married, I was not ready for children yet. My decision was always valid there. Then I asked him what to do about it, I thought we could have children now and she was ready. After the first child, I had another accidental pregnancy and had an abortion, and my decision was also valid there. But my husband asked me every time what do you want because I was the one who had a difficult pregnancy. Although we have equal position in taking decision,, the whole burden of the child, I don't want to say the whole burden, but most of it is on the mother, she is glued to you, it is important whether you are able to take care of it. So I think the woman's decision is more prioritized. He already asks me about such things. The decision to abortion that child was also mine, and when the second child was being discussed, he asked me what I thought first, but then he explained his point of view from his own perspective. Even though I seem to be the priority, I can say that there is a partnership." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

Despite the high socioeconomic status of the household, the most important factor in the decision to make a health-related expenditure is the woman's income.

"I needed a nose surgery. But I told my husband about it only after I started working. I mean, psychologically, it's like you don't feel entitled when you don't earn the money yourself." (Married women with independent children only, 39, Middle SES)

Gender division of labor

Regardless of the SES group, it is observed that housework is not shared among unemployed married women with children. When the breadwinner of the household is the man, while housework and childcare are the responsibility of the women.

"However, on the other hand, there is a consciousness of one thing: I mean, we took such a decision as a family and came here and we made such an agreement, we have a division of labor, I do the invisible housework and he does the visible work that earns money. Actually, I am aware of that or my husband does not say anything about it, but one thing that makes me feel powerless is that I do not have my own economic freedom." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

For working women, the situation is a bit more complicated. The division of labor is relatively more equal for working women in higher socio-economic income groups. Especially precarious or irregular work, harsh working conditions, and long working hours are disadvantageous for all women. On the other hand, while this

difficulty can be overcome in households where there is an equal distribution of roles and responsibilities in the household, there is not much difference between married women in households with a gender-based division of labor and any single-parent women. In any case, the responsibility for the remaining time from work falls on the woman. However, women in low socio-economic income groups still spend most of their time on household responsibilities and childcare responsibilities especially considering they do not afford childcare services. Women at lower socioeconomic levels, on the other hand, are more likely to work, although most of the household responsibilities fall on them. While the responsibility for children is what women find most challenging, some women said that being married is a huge burden in itself:

"I mean, a married woman, even a woman without any children cannot spend time for herself." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

Patriarchal ideology and norms determine women's inclusion in the labor force and the unequal division of labor within the household. As mentioned previously, women have developed various strategies to stay in the labor force, especially when their husbands do not want them to work. While these strategies empower women by including them in working life, they also subvert the unequal division of labor among women, a finding that shows how complex the concept of women's empowerment is.

"The only condition for me to work was to maintain order at home. I get up at night or in the morning and prepare the chores and dinner for the evening. I iron my husband's shirts and he doesn't mind me working as long as this order continues." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

"With three children, housework and work at work require physical strength. Our working hours are longer in summer, and work is also waiting at home. While the order at home continues, the order at work must also continue. I do it the day before and in the evening. I take weekends off." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

Rather than empowering women, this strategy can be seen as challenging for them. However, for some women, this strategy has the potential to have a transformative effect on men. In particular, given that change in norms takes time,

some women negotiated with their husbands and realized that over time, their husbands started to change:

"I mean, not my husband, but I have regular responsibilities like every housewife. Cooking, cleaning, dishes, ironing, guests at work. My husband was always more disorganized before, when I was not working, for example. He is not messier anymore. He never used to help me set the table, now he does. He used to argue when the table wasn't ready, now prepare. Sometimes I say I am very tired, he says "don't cook then, let's eat out, let's order food" This is how he helps me now. (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

Compared to single-parent women, married women are expected to be more advantageous because their husbands could share the domestic responsibilities, however, findings indicated that due to patriarchal norms, women's domestic roles and responsibilities do not change even if a woman's husband is alive or still married. The absence of a husband was even considered an advantage for some women. Most single-parent women in fact reported they have fewer responsibilities than when their partner was alive or they were together. There is a considerable decrease in their responsibilities in both psychically and mental labor:

"Sometimes we just make toast and eat it. Sometimes I don't clean the house. I don't feel obliged" (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

"I think women without husbands have an advantage because when we are at work, we think about what we are going to do for dinner, or what time we are going to get home, will our husbands get angry because we left late. I think women without a husband are more comfortable." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

Married women living in households where the responsibility for childcare rests with the woman reported experiencing difficulties and feeling as trapped due to the emotional burden:

"Which I think is the hardest thing, physical fatigue, you can rest and recover, but the mental burden is something that takes a lot of energy, I think it also takes your physical energy of course. When you are mentally tired, you can't get up at all, I think women have a lot of mental burden. For you, for example, you go to work, you meet with me at one hour of the night for your master's degree, when are you going to rest, when are you going to spend time with your husband and friends or see your family... I mean, there is a feeling of being stuck." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

Married women with dependent children may specifically experience pressure to maintain their marriage due to preserving the existing order. It affects their decision power:

"I felt very weak when the children were young. Or rather, let me put it this way, you cannot make decisions very easily when the child is young. When my first child was young, I couldn't make decisions, you know, I'm a child, if I make a decision, I don't want my child to grow up without a father, or I don't want to disrupt the integrity of the family... When you think about that, you actually become less empowered. That is to say, then you consent to certain things, and I think many people experience this, and because of this thought, children are exposed to certain things when they are young. As I said, while you expect the child to live in the family, to grow up happier, you encounter negative things more often. After the child grows up, because you have also experienced it, I mean, as you get older, you stand on your feet more as you gain economic independence."
(Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

Even if the woman is divorced or separated, the desire to maintain this order continues, in fact, to become more challenging. Emotional labor emerges as a very important theme in single-parent women with dependent children. They undertake intense emotional labor to compensate for the absence of their spouse.

"The order will not be disrupted, the same order will continue..." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

The most important breakdown among single (divorced/widowed/separated) women is the presence of children. Single women without children, especially younger ones feel more empowered considering their limited roles and responsibilities both physically and emotionally. Another type of labor is mental labor. For some women, this mental workload is so difficult that they decide to "assign" economic management of the household to their husbands in order to cope with it.

"For example, I was worried because we get a daily wage. Let's say I spent too much this month. I was thinking in my heart, how will I pay the credit card this month, I can't pay the loan, I can't pay the mortgage... Bills... I was thinking a lot. But this month, for example, I didn't think at all, I didn't worry at all. Our salary was paid in the first week of the month. I sent the salary directly to him. I showed it to him. I said, "Look, I've been paid this much". He thought I was joking or something. ... I said "Look, I'll give it to you, but I won't interfere in any way. You'll give my allowance, the rest is your business, not my responsibility". My anxiety and mental fatigue decreased. (...) I haven't seen any disadvantages at the moment. (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36, Higher SES)

For women in single-parent households and women whose husbands do not take part in household responsibilities, the most important support mechanism is the woman's family:

"Because my husband is not very interested in us, because his priorities are others, his own family. For example, if I get sick, I go to the doctor by myself. I take my own medicine. I take my daughter to the doctor. I take her medicine. Or for example, my brother helps me with these things. Because my husband usually says he is busy, he cannot come. Or he tells me to wait, I can't wait. That's how it is." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36 ,Higher SES)

5.2.2.3 Cultural norms and values

As mentioned in the previous sections, cultural norms and traditions affect many areas of women's lives. These norms vary according to one's society, class, and political ideology. They determine several issues from domestic relations to women's personal decisions and their relationship with the wider public sphere. While some women have access to the necessary support and resources to challenge these norms, unfortunately, others do not. In this section, prominent norms affecting women's empowerment such as the roles and expectations attributed to women by a patriarchal society, early and forced marriages, and class norms are discussed.

Patriarchal ideology declares the expectations for women. Although they vary according to the categories of women in the household examined in this research, there are some similar points observed in all categories of women: the role and expectations that society assigns to women. The first of these is related to women's fertility.

This may be an issue the woman experienced in her family before marriage:

"In the past, our families said "without a son, your household would be perished" to us.. It made us feel bad..." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 39, Middle SES)

Or they may experience it in marriage:

"I got married in 2005 at the age of 28, it started in 97, I was married for 3 years in total. I got divorced in the 8th year. It was a tribal family, a wealthy family. They wanted children, I felt like a breeding sheep. (Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children, 45, Higher SES)

Early and forced marriages constitute a major obstacle to women's empowerment. Some women gave examples from themselves, some from their relatives, and some from their professional experiences. One of the participants, who is a lawyer, express their opinion on early and forced marriage and mentioned that this kind of marriage is a violation of human rights:

"It takes away your freedom, your right to be a child, your right to education, your talent. It is a matter of human rights. It is a slavery accepted by society. It leads to violence, adolescent pregnancy, health problems." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 36, Middle SES)

Another participant stated that it is an obstacle to decision-making, which is one of the most important components of women's empowerment:

"When she is very young, she can't make a decision, it creates pressure, she can't make a decision." (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

It was stated that such marriages negatively affect the development of human capital. Among the resources that will be discussed in detail in the following sections, the individual's human capital, well-being and time are considered as resources. Early and forced marriages deprive women of these resources:

"Early marriages... First of all, you are a child. The child will grow up, complete its development, then become an individual, then a wife, then a mother. Imagine, you experience all of these at the same time, you can neither be a mother nor a child nor an adult and you continue to grow in this way." (Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children, 45, Higher SES)

In terms of women's empowerment, sexuality is not only about fertility, but also about the relationship and experience women have with their bodies. Early and forced marriages also have negative effects on women's experience of sexuality, as expressed by the following health practitioner respondent:

"It brings so many deficiencies, I think it brings damage, I don't know, I think it continues to be a very big problem, from sexuality to personal development. For example, I have another friend, I saw him again recently. Once sexuality was very affected. I don't know, I mean, something in her past must have affected her, and it still does. She also didn't have children, for example. She couldn't experience neither sexuality nor the love of a child due to an unfavorable marriage. I don't

know, she tried to complete her education and got a job, but she still worry and stop thinking about these issues...". (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

A participant who experienced a forced marriage stated that she did not know her spouse and described the challenging aspect of these marriages as follows:

"My marriage was arranged, I didn't know my husband, I didn't want him. My family was a little bit, because they heard from others that his family was very good, very good people. So, the family factor affected me a lot. I didn't know him before. ... For example, we didn't know each other. For example, we didn't have the chance to get to know each other.. That's why we had a lot of problems when we first got married and our marriage was destroyed. I think people should get to know each other a little bit. (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

Norms affect the "intra-household division of labor" as discussed in the previous section. Due to gatriarchal norms, women work within the household and their labor is invisible, while men are more likely to be the breadwinners. Gender norms create oppression on women as well:

"My husband is more traditional. He wants such a culture to disseminated. For example, women should always be silent, women should always stand behind the man, what the man says goes... For example, he works, I work too, but for him, I should bring my salary and give it to him... He has this kind of mentality..." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

These norms are differently employed regarding household composition. All divorced participants, whether they have children or not, have developed awareness about these roles, and furthermore, they associated their divorce with these inequalities and oppression:

"Women raised men too. Men only earn money for the house, the mother does everything. Men should do it too." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

Although all women are affected by norms, single/divorced/separated women are more affected. Expecting them to be honorable creates pressure on women:

"I was married off at the age of 17. My husband was a few years older than me. I got married a few years later. He had to protect my honor..." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 56, Lower SES)

On the other hand, women with higher education and higher socioeconomic status struggled more to share responsibilities with their husbands within marriage. However, participants from lower socioeconomic status and education levels developed different types of strategies. While these strategies enable women to cope with the burdens of the patriarchal system, they also show how social norms are internalized:

"Bills, rent, expenses, grocery shopping... I think these should belong to the man. The woman already has a lot of roles, she works, she comes home, cooks, cleans, takes care of the child, she has classes. That's why I think these things should belong to the man, I think the man should take care of them." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

In the previous sections, it was mentioned that especially widowed/divorced/separated/women not participating in the labor market and not having their own income cause them to return to the family home after the loss of a spouse or separation. At this point, it is necessary to mention how returning to the family home is related to cultural norms. Foremost, returning to the parental family home means transitioning to a new environment of oppression for women. On the other hand, a participant from a lower socioeconomic status and a culture with different traditions stated that she could not go back to her parental family home and that this was the only reason why she continued her relationship. Still, it should be added that women's participation in working life has contributed greatly to overcoming these difficulties:

"I mean, I think, if my family doesn't support me... You know Antep, you know their mentality. I think it's very difficult, I say, it's impossible, I say what will they say, where will I stay... I can't go to my parents' house, there's a bachelor at home, I think what will my parents say, what will the neighborhood say. But I think if I work, if I do this while I'm working, if I do this action, at least I'll go to work, I'll clear my head, no one at home can say anything, I'll come home before going to bed." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

For instance, single-parent women explain difficulties due to she could not return to their parental family after divorce:

"It is very difficult without family support... You cannot come back to your father's house..." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

On the other hand, cultural norms as well as class differences become determinants. A participant from a high socioeconomic status stated that her family would be supportive of her if she divorced, therefore, returning to the family home after divorce would not be a problem because her family would support her financially and emotionally. Still, they would not prefer to return, rather they would like to work and stand on their own:

"I know that I can go back to my family if I get divorced, but the idea of not earning money makes me feel powerless too. My family would be understanding and supportive if I got divorced, but I wouldn't want that." (Married women without any children, 32, Higher SES)

These findings show that returning to the family home can be read in the context of cultural values as well as class distinctions. On the other, when women's parental family support is considered a resource. Family support has a positive impact on individuals' psychological well-being (Thomas et al, 2017). Therefore it is a resource for women's well-being, especially for single-parent women. On the other hand, it is observed that address how resources are shaped by cultural norms and class relationships. If a single woman is not working, especially if she has children, returning to the family home means an economic burden on their parental family. Therefore, women from lower-class families are under greater pressure to return to their parental families. If she is working, she feels that she can contribute to the household of her parents. However, here too, they may be subjected to restrictions on decision-making and certain areas of freedom in case of returning to it.

Women's self-perception and self-confidence are also considered within the scope of the agency. The society and family in which a woman grows up have important effects on the process of building self-perception. In addition, Access to resources such as education is also determined by these norms:

"I want to give an example from my father. When I was a child, my father showed me where the banks were on the street. He also showed me where to take the minibus and go home. I went with that responsibility, I paid all the banks, and as my father said, I took the minibus and went home. At night, for example, my brother was afraid to go to the grocery store, but I would go alone. You know, my father raised me, all of us, with that kind of self-confidence. ... My father always told us to "stand on your own two feet", "get your driver's license, girl",

*"get a job, girl, work with insurance, have a pension the day after tomorrow".
(Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36 ,Higher SES)*

In contrast to the previous example, women have also been prevented to access to resources due to patriarchal norms. For example, one married woman states that her husband did not allow her to read books:

"For example, my wife doesn't want me to read books. Because she doesn't read books. He feels uncomfortable when I read a book. He says come with me, watch TV, why do you go to a different room?" (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

As a result, it is observed that these cultural structures are not stable. Even though structural changes do not occur in a short time, they are flexible and transformable. Migration from rural to urban can be an important example of this. The following quote exemplified how her parental families changed after "encountering different cultures":

*"He (her father) had a family that she kept alive because of the culture he had seen, but on the other hand, he was exposed to another culture, he encountered women in her working life, he saw what women went through... For example, my mother had to wear a headscarf, or what, going out, traveling, she didn't have such a luxury, but when my father saw such free women in the working life, he had the idea that my children should experience these things, but it took a long time for my mother to implement this, I think there was a lot of culture clash there, my father was experiencing a lot of culture clash too. It is not easy to accept him like that, it is not easy to accept a culture that comes from the past, and he was reacquainted with something else, and it took time for him to change it in the environment he lived in. When did my father change, when we were in our hometown, I am from Muş, we were living there at the same time. After I left there and asked for a move to İzmir, my father's thoughts towards my mother changed. When he came here, she encountered the opinions of the men here and I think he questioned himself, then she believed that he needed to change and he did. It took time, did it change very fast, it changed slowly, but at least it was not like there."
(Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)*

In addition to migration, the presence of men in the public sphere also enables them to encounter other cultures, in this way, their attitudes change more. When asked about her mother, she stated that her mother still showed resistance to change. It proves that women mostly exist private sphere with a limited social environment. It also gives a clue about the role of the cohort while discussing women's empowerment.

5.2.2.4 Laws, policies, and support mechanisms

The findings on the effects of official legal rights, regulations, and policies on women's empowerment are presented in this section. There are some legal gaps as well as the effects of rights such as benefits, alimony, breastfeeding, and maternity leave provided by the social assistance foundation for the empowerment of women. In addition, it has been observed that whether women are aware of their rights or not also affects women's empowerment.

First of all, the financial support given to disadvantaged families by the Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundation has contributed especially to single-parent women's families:

"I received help from social assistance for my children. My children's needs were met. It was very good. Maybe it would have been better if the assistance continued throughout university." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)

"She needs to be economically empowered, her income is single but expenses are twice. Economic support for children is important." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 40, Lower SES)

Care work is unfortunately still discussed within the family today. Although care services should be covered by the state, since this is not adequate or not available, unfortunately, it is still discussed within the context of family. During the interviews, it was observed that most of the women internalize that the care work is their responsibility. Some of the women highlight the importance of free nursery services and rights, especially for single-parent mothers with dependent children. Nevertheless, another important point they underlined is the implementation of the laws. Most women stated that it is not implemented even though they exist:

"I used my 3-month unpaid leave and went back to work. I went to court after giving birth... Breastfeeding rooms and nurseries were not available in courthouses at that time. Actually, breastfeeding leave is legal, it should be enforceable. I used to express milk for my child and put it in the freezer. (Married women with at least one dependent child, 36, Middle SES)

Women need regulations regarding working life. The disadvantaged position of women, especially in the labor market, needs to be changed. Regarding alimony, as in

the literature, the opinions of women also differ. Some think that alimony is an obstacle to women's participation in working life, and some think that it is a practice that supports women.

Finally, in addition to the existence and enforceability of women's rights and laws, it is vital that women are aware of their rights. It has been observed that many participants do not know their rights. A participant working in the Women's Solidarity Unit of the Municipality shared her observations on this issue:

"We observed that women are not aware of their rights. Awareness activities are very important in this regard. We are conducting awareness raising activities on this issue. However, it needs to be more comprehensive and widespread. The more women know about their rights, the more they will demand support and fight for it. (Married women with independent children only, 39, Middle SES)

In addition to policies and laws that support women in working life, it has been observed that laws and practices that prevent violence are insufficient. However, it is also very important for women to be informed about the authorities they can consult when they are subjected to violence. Women's awareness on this issue should be increased as well as support channels:

"It is also important that places like shelters and Mor Çatı that work for women who have been subjected to violence are more accessible and numerous, and that women know how to reach them. In fact, if possible, they should do some work on how we can reach women even before they take shelter there. Especially there are many women who are still actively experiencing violence, who cannot get out of that marriage and relationship. Maybe awareness raising activities and projects can be increased for them." (Married women without any children, 28, Middle SES)

The following quotation indicates that there is a gap in both measurements, implementation, and legal punishment of violence against women. In addition to the inadequacy of the legal punishment given to men who exercised violence, the woman suffered a second trauma at the police station:

"I downloaded KADES application on my phone. I heard about it on social media. When I report it, the police don't immediately refer me. The police call back. There were times when I couldn't answer at that moment, he would take my phone from me and lock me in the room. How could I answer it. Of course, he couldn't reach me a couple of times. We went to court and 6 months were added to his sentence. Are the supports enough, they told me at the police station to leave the job and lose track of him, he said he would harm you. He couldn't protect me. Considering my age, how can I organize my life?. Instead of thinking about

protecting me officers talked to me in this way... " (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 40, Lower SES)

Public authorities need to change their attitudes toward violence against women, legal sanctions should be implemented in case of mistreatment. Their awareness of this issue should be increased.

5.2.3. Resources

5.2.3.1 Education, knowledge, and skills

Education is one of the important resources for women's empowerment. It is not limited to formal education only. Vocational training, skill courses, and women's efforts to expand their human capital are also evaluated in this context. In the previous chapters, it was discussed how social norms affect women's views and decisions. At this point, how receiving education manifest within the structures and affect women's life choices is discussed. Almost all women mentioned the importance of education. For instance, education is associated with changing the woman's environment surrounded by patriarchal norms; broadening her horizons; and gaining awareness of inequalities in the family:

"I was a rural child, I grew up in the village. I was in a large family and I was the eldest child. We were six siblings. My father was a civil servant and my mother was not educated. And my mother was actually an example for me, my mother's experiences taught me many things. I saw how my mother's lack of education changed my father's behavior towards my mother. How can I put it, my mother was having a hard time in this marriage. She was scorned, she was tormented, she was subjected to violence and my mother was actually carrying the whole burden of the family. When this happened, I thought to myself that I should definitely go to school, I was afraid that if I didn't, I would experience the same things. When you are in a boarding school, going to school, food is not a problem, the school pays for many things and you have a more comfortable life. That was my luck." (Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

It has been observed that getting an education transforms the woman, as well as the relationship between herself and others. A woman, who did not receive any formal education and described lack of education as a "deficiency", explains that she learned literacy after she had children and how being literate changed her perspective and the perspective of those around her:

"Last year I took a literacy course from Public Education Centre...Lack of education is a deficiency. Especially if this woman is a mother. My husband didn't care, but it was a fire inside me, I couldn't let it go. They didn't send me to school. I was only 12 or 13 years old, I asked a teacher I knew if I could clean at your house and teach me literacy. She said no. He said you are 15 years old. Women should know how to read and write, either in school or in vocational courses. The courses in Public Education are very good. We need someone to strengthen them. Otherwise she can't get out. She has always been oppressed, insulted and considered herself a second class person. Institutions will be strong. They will go to the families and tell them. They will direct those women to a profession from there. (...) The moment I felt the strongest was when I learned to read and write. The way my child and my friends at work looked at me changed." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 39, Middle SES)

Education level is often associated with having a job and earning money for women, and it is seen as a power in the hands of women in case of divorce:

"A woman who is educated becomes strong. A strong woman is a little bit difficult. Because why, in every way I say that even if I leave you, I can stand on my own feet. I can take care of my own child. And also because there is always the imposition that your mother is silent, so you will be silent... My mother was silent, but I will not be silent! I will not tolerate certain things, I will not ignore them. If this is something that I see as a problem in my marriage, I will not cover it up..." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36, Higher SES)

Education cannot be reduced to just formal education. It is also an investment in women's personal development. Interviews show that even if the woman is a high school graduate and from a higher SES, it becomes difficult for a woman to invest in herself when there is an unequal division of labor at home:

"I feel exhausted. I say "let them (her husband and children) go to work or school without an ironed clothes today." There are commissions at the bar association that I would like to follow, but I cannot go because I helped them in their lessons." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 36, Middle SES)

In addition, vocational training courses and certificates are very important, especially for women with lower levels of formal education. These courses can pave the way for women to work in a secure job with a regular income. Considering the difficulties experienced by single-parent women, it may be beneficial to expand projects in this field and set quotas for single-parent women. A woman stated that after working under difficult conditions for a long time without insurance and security, she attended to training and received a certificate on "home-based educated caregiver",

within the scope of project⁶ conducted by. Social Security Institution. A single-parent woman who had worked informally as a care worker for many years described her experiences after receiving the certificate as follows:

"My working hours got longer, they asked me to do other jobs, it didn't help me financially. I was tired physically and mentally. I was alone at home. Then one day I saw an advertisement on social media. It was a 2-year project. I attended the trainings, I studied like a child, I never missed a class. I learned a lot of things. I have been doing this job for years, why not be certified? There is nothing a woman cannot do." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

5.2.3.1 Ownership and control of assets

One of the important elements discussed within the scope of women's empowerment in both quantitative and qualitative analyzes as well as in the literature is to have financial and material resources, to have access, and to have the right to control. Among the material resources, basic needs, alongside money and assets could be listed.

During the interviews, it has been frequently emphasized that having an income and an asset is necessary for the empowerment of women. It is specifically linked with the women's well-being after the divorce or loss of a husband. Even if the income level of the woman's household is high, the fact that the woman does not own or jointly own the property makes the woman vulnerable. In case of a loss of a spouse or separation, it has been brought forward that the woman's lack of her own or joint savings/property will put the woman in a difficult situation. It also leads to women having to continue their marriage even if she does not want to. Currently married women express their fear of divorce without any savings and reported that they save money:

"The woman should also have her own money or property, she should buy something of her own. Tomorrow, you know, people can really change, spouses can change over the years, I don't know, their tendencies can change, I don't know, they can cheat, thinking about that day, either they should be able to do everything together or the woman should have an investment of her own, so that she will not have problems at such a time. Is this insecurity, not really, both

⁶ The project named "Supporting Registered Employment of Women Through Home-Based Childcare Services", supported by European Union. Detailed information is available at: <https://www.sgkegitimlibakici.org>

parties need to guarantee themselves, unfortunately it happens, this is the reality." [Married women with independent children only, 50, Higher SES)

"I save money secretly, my husband doesn't know about it." Married women without any children, 28, Middle SES

Women who are still married stated that it is important not only to secure themselves after divorce but also to make free decisions and act their way without consulting their husbands. Most married women with children focus on spending for their children:

"I have a small amount of savings, my husband knows this, but he doesn't know how much, he doesn't ask. Sometimes my children need something and I spend it on them if they need it urgently." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)

In single-parent women, on the other hand, women who do not have savings/properties of their own after spouse loss/divorce stated that they have a lot of difficulties. Still, being in the labor market help their survival in case they had nothing:

"I was left with nothing, I only had a job. But I worked, I worked hard and I became stronger." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

On the other hand, although divorced/widowed/separate childless women faced the same difficulties after immediate divorce, in case they do not have any savings, they survived this process more easily because they did not have children and therefore had fewer responsibilities. Especially if women with higher SES and family support, it become more easily compared to low SES women:

"(After divorce) I had less money, I started to get into debt. Then I started to work a lot, I became a manager." (Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children, 45, Higher SES)

5.2.3.2 Bodily integrity

In the literature, the bodily integrity of the woman has also been evaluated as a resource. In particular, health-related experiences and processes have an important place in a person's life course. Under this theme, findings related to the themes of psychological well-being and violence were revealed. First of all, if women have

individual well-being and physical integrity, they feel more empowered. According to 2014 Research on Domestic Violence against Women in Turkey (2014), 36% of women are exposed to psychological violence by their husbands or partners in their life. Research indicates that most of the women do not report that they were subject to violence (44%) or they reported the violence when only it became systematic. According to research, the main reason behind not reporting violence is fear of husbands do not allow them to see their children. During the interviews, a high school graduate, with working experience and a Western woman, who moved to the East after marriage and lived with her husband's family, stated that she maintains her marriage for her children:

"My mother-in-law used to make me work. She would have me cut wood in the cold of winter to light the stove. She would sit by the stove herself. We used to fight with my husband, he used to abuse me. I was afraid that she would take my children and not show them to me. Then we migrated to Izmir. My daughter was young then. My mother-in-law kept telling my daughter not to go, I will raise you. After we moved to Izmir, my husband also changed a bit." (Married women with independent children only, 46, Lower SES)

Furthermore, they either do not trust official institutions or fear of facing negative attitudes of official authorities. As aforementioned, one of the separated women with dependent children who were subjected to systematic violence by her husband stated that she called for help from the KADEM application, but it did not help her in emergencies. Later, when she went to the police station, she expressed her sadness for the treatment she faced. After being subjected to systematic physical and emotional violence, this woman filed for divorce while her husband was in prison for several crimes. It was determined that the municipality received support from the women's solidarity unit. At this point, it can be said that the activities of public and non-governmental organizations are of great importance in terms of supporting women who are victims of violence. However, these supports should be increased, and the channels that women can resort to when they are subjected to violence and access to these channels should be expanded.

Another divorced woman with independent children stated that they were exposed to psychological violence and stalking after divorce:

"I wanted us to break up as friends. I said he's not leaving, but that's not how it works. The man considers them (previous wife) enemies. He stalked me. When I wanted to leave, he acts as if there is another man in my life." (Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

On the other hand, it is important to raise awareness about violence among future generations. Especially for girls, it is seen that the awareness of mothers on this issue is transferred to their daughters:

"I am an agency! For example, I tell my daughters the same way... You know, when someone touches you, when you don't want them to touch you, know how to say "no". No one can approach you in this way. For example, when someone approaches my little girl, she shouts "no" and the other person gets scared and runs away. She gives the message that she does not want to be touched." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36, Higher SES)

The roles and responsibilities imposed on women by patriarchal norms, especially the responsibility of care, constitute a major obstacle to women's physical and mental well-being:

"Which I think is the hardest thing, physical fatigue, you can rest and recover, but the mental burden is something that takes a lot of energy, I think it also takes your physical energy. When you are mentally tired, you can't get up at all, I think women have a lot of mental burden.." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

As mentioned in the previous sections, patriarchal ideology and early and forced marriages constitute several risks for women's bodily integrity, in addition to the risks discussed in afore section, another risk is creating oppression on women's experience regarding their sexuality:

"There is a disorder called vaginismus, popularly known as the fear of the first night, these women cannot have sexual intercourse in any way. I think it's all about that sexuality not being able to come out. There is actually the same thing there, making peace with your body, your sexuality and being able to do it comfortably and without fear. When a woman does this, she becomes a woman without fear, she transitions from childhood to womanhood, I think it is exactly related to this." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

In particular, psychological support must be accessible in order to ensure the well-being of women after divorce or the loss of a spouse. In particular, such a need has been expressed. They stated how much the women who received this support from experts contributed to their psychological well-being:

*"I felt very lonely after I lost my husband. Especially after my children left..."
(Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES)*

"A woman who is alone becomes stronger. She only gets stronger if she has psychological support. After I divorced my husband, my psychology deteriorated a lot. Then I went to therapy. Psychological support, support from friends is very important."(Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)

5.2.3.3 Critical consciousness

Critical consciousness is women's enhancing views on power relations and inequalities and gaining awareness of how inequalities impact their own life and wider society. This awareness also brings about struggle.

First of all, some of the married women interviewed are aware of the unequal distribution of labor within the household. However, since they cannot change it, they mostly try to compensate for this situation in different ways such as spending their husband's money more and transferring mental labor to their husbands. Divorced women have reconsidered the oppression, violence, and restrictions they have been subjected to during their marriage, and it has been observed that they have created awareness of this issue:

*"My ex-husband called me some time after the divorce, he said he felt lonely. He said "no one knocked on my door, I was sick. You would take care of me." I said "forget about taking care of me, I am not your caregiver. We are equal, equal!"
(Single-parent women with independent children only, 51, Middle SES)*

It has been observed that there has been a change in awareness. However, the honor of women still seems to be taboo- even among women. Therefore, divorced/widowed women are negatively affected by this taboo. It creates risks such as exclusion, violence, and discrimination for them.

Social media is important for increasing awareness of gender equality and women's rights. Having accounts that raise awareness among women about their rights and are based on solidarity can contribute to women's empowerment, however, it should be noted that gender bias also spread through social media today. Furthermore, raising awareness through building role model is also crucial. For instance, reliable experts should play role in the building critical consciousness of women:

"We need to allow the girl child to be very creative in terms of her wishes, motivations and dreams from early childhood. We need to leave her free and maybe guide her a little bit within that freedom. Teachers play a very important role here. For example, I wanted to study psychology, but even my teachers forced me to study law. Now I study psychology, but I would not have survived if I had studied law." (Married women with at least one dependent child, 39, Higher SES)

Building critical consciousness about women's bodies and sexuality is also a core part of empowerment. One of the participants a clinical psychologist, whose area of expertise is sexual disorders underlined patriarchal domination over the body and stated that women grow up within these norms. Most women have limited power to decide on their bodies. Accordingly, being aware of women's bodies is significant because she underlined that when women are alienated to their bodies, they also alienate to themselves-consciousness. Bodily awareness and having the decision on own body are directly associated with the power of decision on what to wear when to reproduce and so on. Therefore, building critical consciousness of the body is important for building women's self-esteem.

5.2.4. Agency

The ability to engage in conscious action, pursue her interests, the capability of raising her voice to influence others, as well as making free decisions are described as an agency, which is central to empowerment. It is explained in terms of decision-making power, leadership, and collective action (Ewerling et al, 2014). In the previous sections, the effects of family, labor market, norms, state policies, individual and social relations, and resources on women's empowerment were analyzed. Agency, which is built within them, is at the center of empowerment. In this section, what women's

empowerment means for women, their self-impressions, and their collective consciousness and actions are analyzed.

5.2.4.1 Conceptualization of empowerment by women

In general, all women associated empowerment with working, earning their “own” money, and being educated. It is followed by "having the power of decision", “awareness” and “ being independent "which are common.

Figure 5.6. The Most Frequently Mentioned Words Associated with Women’s Empowerment



The figure above presents the most frequent words women mentioned when they describe their envision of “empowered women”. However, as the socioeconomic and educational level rises, women's empowerment is more complex. According to the participants from the lower socioeconomic income group, empowered women are defined as "the one who holds bread", "the woman who does not need anyone", and "the woman who earns her own money", while the women at the high socioeconomic income level are defined as "women who can exist, even, rise in the patriarchal working environment, who do not hit the glass ceiling", "do use their resources". “to be able to walk in the street without any fear”. They are defined as empowered as a

woman who is aware of her needs, knows her needs, can draw boundaries, has the ability to manage difficulties and risks, and does not tolerate inequality.

Meaning of empowered women also by the household categories. Single-parent women were defined as "a woman who can be both a mother and a father", "a woman who can stand on her own", "a woman who can struggle against difficulties alone", and "a woman who is not dependent on anyone", while married women with children were mostly defined through their husbands. According to them, a strong woman is defined as a woman who is "working", "determined", "self-confident", "manage their family" and "able to struggle with her husband".

5.2.4.2 Self-Images of the women

Women were asked at which moments they felt most empowered or less empowered. According to the household categories they live in, single-parent women often cited the loss of a spouse or during divorce as the moments when they felt most vulnerable. They felt most devastated and alone. However, seeing that they were able to be self-sufficient and maintain their families through work, social and expert support, and feeling that they were "fighters" made them stronger.

"I passed extremy difficult ways until now . I tried very hard so that my children would not be affected. Once you have to, you get stronger. This is a fact." (Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 40, Lower SES)

"When I feel alone I feel disempowered... But when I do it without consulting anyone, I feel very happy. When I can help my child, when my children are successful, it makes me feel very powerful." [Married women with at least one dependent child, 38, Lower SES]

On the other hand, divorced women feel less empowered after being subjected to the social pressure brought about by divorce, but they feel strong when they realize that it is not only being able to divorce but being able to exist in life through divorce that is the actual power:

"The issue is more about being able to handle divorce than being able to get divorced. When you see that you can handle it, then you become stronger. (Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children, 45, Higher SES)

Understanding of empowerment is also shaped by class structure. For women with low economic and social capital, being able to get divorced itself is power in itself.

Married women mostly underlined that they feel least empowered when all of the household responsibilities fall on them especially when their children are younger. Being able to practice their profession and earn money is the area where women feel most empowered. Especially women who have jobs with higher social status approved by society such as lawyer make feel empowered.

On the other hand, feeling empowered within society is a different matter. Some of the respondents stated that they felt vulnerable in society due to their background such as being Alevi and having an Eastern-origin women

5.2.4.3 Collectivity

During the interviews, it is observed that women's accessibility to social networks and being politically active empower women. When discussing women's empowerment, some women also referred to women's power to influence other women. Two of the women who mentioned this issue work as producers in a women's cooperative. One of them works at the women's center of the Municipality. Being visible in the public sphere, coming together with women, and sharing with their opinions and experiences contributes to their psychological well-being as well as raising women's awareness, as a result, women's being as political subjects:

"The woman suffers a lot after divorce first. She already had a low level of education, she had never been anywhere, she had never stepped out of her house, she was a scared, timid bird, but now she is an eagle... She can do everything and she can help others, this is the best part. She is also a companion to women who have gone through the same path as her, she guides them. She talks about support, social assistance, what and where to apply. Sometimes she calls me and asks me, she says she has been through similar things, people who have gone through the same process as her. She says, how will he do it, what should he apply for first, you know, systems and institutions are constantly changing. For example, this is how she maintains her life and now she works in different jobs and earns a profit.

*And her children, she has a better life, she lives at a more prosperous level."
(Single-parent women with at least one dependent child, 36 ,Higher SES)*

"Actually, my case is probably the best example for how being together is vital. When I first started the cooperative, I didn't think like that, but now I say that I will divorce after this cooperative become stronger and I get a little stronger. I get strength from here! We socialize with women like me there, we give each other our strengths." (Married women without any children, 36, Lower SES)





CHAPTER 6. TRIANGULATION AND DISCUSSION

6.1. Single (Divorced/Separated/Widowed) Women without Any Children

Quantitative analyses reveal that 60.5% of single (divorced/separated/widowed) women without children are at a high empowerment level. These women are 18.9 times more likely to be at a high level of empowerment compared to married women with at least one dependent child. Regarding the basic characteristics of single women examined, it is found that the majority of them are between the ages of 25-29, which is 4 times more likely to be highly empowered than women between the ages of 45-49. More than half of these women live in the West (58.0%) and they are in either richer or richest wealth status (54.5%). First of all, for divorced or separated women with lower SES, the realization of divorce is defined as empowerment. For women with higher SES, on the other hand, resisting both economic and social pressure and surviving after divorce is itself a strength. Considering that most women stay in a relationship they do not want to continue because of their children, these women are able to make decisions such as divorce more easily since they do not have children yet. During the interviews, it was observed that after divorce, women invest in themselves both financially and emotionally and focus on their own expectations and goals for the future, especially since they are younger. According to TURKSTAT(2022) data, 39.4% of divorced women are working. Compared to married ones, the employment rate of divorced women is higher.

6.2. Single-parent Women with at Least One Dependent Child

Almost half of the single-parent women with at least one dependent child are observed in the high level of empowerment category (48.9%). 21.9% of them are in the middle level of empowerment while 29.% of them are in lower empowerment. Women in this category are 7.5 times more likely to be at a high level of empowerment than married women with dependent children. It is obviously surprising finding that single-parent women with dependent children have higher levels of empowerment than married women with dependent children.

In the literature and qualitative findings, the difficulties experienced by these women are frequently mentioned. These women mostly experience difficulties in participating in the labor market. They usually work in part-time, low-paid, and precarious jobs. In addition to economic difficulties, they appear to be more disadvantaged due to social pressure and the struggle to compensate for the absence of their husbands. On the other hand, the fact that they have higher levels of empowerment than those who are married and have dependent children could be discussed in several findings: (a) higher participation in the labor market and its benefits to women; (b) role of parental family support in economically and emotionally, (c) their autonomy in household decision-making.

Comparing married women, they are more likely to stay in the labor market, similarly, to enhance their resources. For instance, they are more motivated to participate in training to be advantageous in the labor market. Since they work in poor conditions for a long year, they developed a critical consciousness of inequalities. Thanks to their work environment, they build on a social network that is employed as a solidarity and guidance mechanism.

Another explanation of why single-parent women are higher empowerment levels could be explained by their household wealth status. While wealth status alone does not alone explain the level of empowerment, quantitative analysis shows that those in the higher wealth status are more likely to be empowered. The main reason behind that is, wealth status has an impact on the individual's life choices. One who is struggling for survive could not make healthy choices (Kabeer, 2001). Therefore, wealth and social class are significant for empowerment. The vast majority of women in this group were found to be in the high-wealth group. This could be related to the woman's return to the parental family home. The qualitative study showed that women return to the family home only if their families are supportive and have better economic conditions. In this study, the presence of other household members was not analyzed quantitatively. However, qualitative findings indicate that single-parent women with dependent children receive extended family support. Both economically and emotionally, single-parent women with dependent children generally receive care support from their families. For instance, Kavas and Hoşgör (2018) also mention the involvement of grandmothers in women-headed single-parent families. They argue

that in both two-parent and single-parent families grandmothers or grandfathers play a significant role in the care of the children in particular, however, in single-parent families, they become more visible to fill the gap that arose from the lack of a “father role”.

Qualitative findings also validate this argument and showed that these women try to fill this gap by assuming the role of "both mother and father", and that they did so by "masculinizing". As Kavas and Hoşgör argue, this means that women internalize and reproduce gender norms. Therefore, the already controversial "empowerment of women" can be interpreted as equivalent to “masculinization”. However, when the concepts of decision-making and autonomy, which are important components of empowerment, are considered, it cannot be denied that these women's raising children alone and at the same time existing as single women in a male-dominated society is a great achievement. In their own words, it can also be interpreted as "empowerment that comes from struggle and obligations". Most single-parent women state that they took decisions independently, which is important for empowerment.

6.3. Single-parent Women with Independent Children Only

Single-parent women with independent children are 5 times more likely to be at a high level of empowerment than married women with independent children. Among single-parent women with only independent children, only 31.4% are at a high level of empowerment. Considering the difficulties of caring for a dependent child, it was expected that single parents with dependent children have a lower level of empowerment than single-parent women with independent children. Therefore, wealth status and their cohort were analyzed. The majority of single-parent women with independent children are in the lower wealth status. More importantly, when the age distribution was analyzed, it was found that most of the women in this category were between the ages of 55-49 (58.5%). Quantitative analyses indicate that the level of empowerment declines in the youngest and oldest ages group. For example, 60.7% of women aged 15-19 and 64.2% of women aged 45-59 have low levels of empowerment. The literature suggests that cohort is associated with women's empowerment. The life course and experiences of women vary by age group. Age group affects both entering,

staying in, and returning to the labor market, as well as the cultural values and perspectives internalized. (Walby, 1990).

6.4. Married Women without Any Children

While 41% of married women without children are at high levels of empowerment, these women are 2.9 times more likely to have high levels of empowerment than married women with dependent children. It is explained in the findings that childcare responsibility is a significant barrier for women.

On the other hand, although in terms of socioeconomic status, they are almost equal to divorced/widowed/separated women. However married women without any children are less likely to be high-empowered. The basic characteristics of married women without any children show similarity with single women without children. They are mostly young women in higher wealth groups. 58% of them are aged between 20-29 and more than half of them are richer or richest wealth level.

The reason why single women are more empowered despite such similar characteristics they have with single women can be explained by the distribution of decision-making and division of labor within the household. As mentioned in the qualitative findings, marital roles and responsibilities constitute a major obstacle to women's empowerment. As exemplified, although childcare responsibility is a fundamental obstacle for women, women in a household that does not have an equal division of labor or joint decision-making with their husbands feel trapped even though they do not have childcare responsibilities. It is also worth noting that many women are restricted by their husbands from working or participating in the social sphere.

6.5. Married Women with at Least One Dependent Child

This group was identified as a reference category because women's role in care work is considered to be an important barrier against gender equality, as women's participation in the labor market has led to women taking responsibility for household care (OECD,2014; ILO, 2019, Gökmen, 2022). In the in-depth interviews, especially women with independent children mentioned about challenges they experienced in this

regard. Only 22% of women with dependent children have a high level of empowerment. Whether dependent or independent, married women with children have the lowest level of empowerment. Therefore, these women could be evaluated together. The literature indicates that married women with children are reluctant to enter the labor market when their households receive regular income. As mentioned in the qualitative interviews, especially in households where domestic responsibilities are not shared equally, women choose not to work to provide care for their children. In Beşpınar (2010)'s study, middle-class women with children choose whether or not to enter the labor market only after considering what is best for their children. This situation was also revealed during in-depth interviews. For example, a middle-income woman stated that she did not "choose" to work so that she can provide the care for her child, while a high-income woman also stated that her husband was not interested in her child and that she had retired early. Whereas, married women in the low-income group have to work to survive (Beşpınar, 2010).

Nevertheless, many women do not enter the labor market because their husbands do not allow them to do so. This means, as presented in the interviews, that women have to maintain order at home and compromise themselves to enter the labor market, a struggle that is both emotionally and physically challenging for women, even if it allows them to participate in the labor market.

6.6. Married Women with Independent Children Only

The category with the lowest proportion of women at the level of empowerment is married women with independent children: only 9.2% of these women are in the higher empowerment category. It is even lower than for women who are married and have dependent children. These women are less likely to be at a high empowerment level than married women with dependent children (odd ratio=0.29). The main characteristics of women in this group resemble those of single-parent women with independent children. 56.7% are between the ages of 45-49. This can also be explained by the cohort. However, it is necessary to discuss why this group has a lower empowerment level despite having a similar age structure to single-parent women with independent children.

The most important reason for this is to the duration of stay in the labor market. According to Walby (1990), when women leave work for childcare, they have difficulty in returning to the labor market. It is mentioned that married women with dependent children do not enter the labor market to take care of their children. According to Walby, women who quit their jobs in this situation may have difficulty competing with younger women even if they decide to return to the labor market. However, especially younger divorced/deceased women may decide to enter the labor market earlier due to the loss of income. Women who make this decision are more advantaged. It should be noted that cohort shaped women's critical consciousness as well.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSION

Women's empowerment has been defined in a wide range of ways throughout history. Depending on the understanding of the concept of “power” and the conceptualization of women’s empowerment, it has been measured in various ways. Social policies and programs have been implemented accordingly. It is possible to discuss women's empowerment about several other variables.

One of the most frequently raised issues in the literature on women's empowerment is the unequal position of women in the household due to patriarchal family norms. At this point, Walby (1990) mentioned that it is worth discussing whether the presence of the husband in the family creates an element of oppression in women's empowerment. This thesis aims to answer this very question, which is difficult to answer: whether the absence of a spouse means the removal of traditional patriarchal oppression or not. On the other hand, the literature frequently discusses the increasing poverty among women and the difficulties faced by single-parent households.

To answer this question, it is first necessary to operationalize what women's empowerment means. Although there are long debates on this subject, the common thread in the literature is that women's empowerment is defined as women's ability to make free choices about their own lives. Of course, life choices are not independent. They are influenced by structures, resources, and many other factors. Women's empowerment, then, is defined as "women's awareness of their own needs, expectations and resources, their ability to exist autonomously within structures by utilizing their resources according to their means, and not only that, to have the ability to create a shared consciousness" (Cornwall, 2012). It should be highlighted that demographic studies should be conceptually grounded and carry gender-based sensitivities. This is because these studies are used to develop policies for women. Therefore, with the aforementioned definition of women's empowerment, this study is approached with a feminist approach that focuses on gender norms and intersectional inequalities surrounding women, from research design to analysis.

In this thesis, the main research question "how women's empowerment varies according to the household of the woman lives in" was investigated using a mixed method approach. In particular, this thesis aimed to reveal how the empowerment of single-parent women differs from that of married women and women with children. It also aimed to achieve this by comparing it with other categories of women. The categories are based on the criterion of having dependent children living with the woman. In this context, the empowerment levels of women in the categories of (1) married women without any children, (2) married women with at least one dependent child, (3) married women with independent children only, (4) single-parent women with at least one dependent child, (5) single-parent women with independent children only and (6) divorced/separated/widowed women without any children were analyzed.

With the data obtained from the 2018 TDHS survey, data from a total of 5484 women from the specified categories were analyzed. Through factor analysis using a polychoric correlation matrix, the women's empowerment variable consisting of 3 categories (higher, middle, lower) was constructed. The multinomial logistic regression method was used to understand the relationship between these categories of women and variables such as age, wealth status, region, and place of residence.

Although analyzing women's empowerment with quantitative methods provides a general portrait, in-depth interviews were conducted with 18 women, 3 from each category, considering the difficulty of measuring women's empowerment with specific variables and the non-homogeneity of women in a given category. Women's life course experiences, coping strategies, perceptions of empowerment, and self-image were discussed. It allowed gaining insights from women's personal experiences to broader social empowerment. The thesis tried to explain how women as subjects access resources and make strategic decisions about their lives in interaction with structural factors such as family structure and dynamics, class structure and patriarchal norms, and state policies.

It is clearly not sufficient to quantitatively measure empowerment only by assessing entry into the labor market, or education. In a qualitative sense, on the other hand, although the situation is more complex, entering the labor market can give us some clues as to where empowerment lies. Problems such as precarious working conditions, long working hours and low wages, and the glass ceiling that women face when they enter the labor market are undoubtedly dimensions that hinder women's empowerment. However, for women in low socio-economic income groups who work under difficult conditions in the labor market, it is a space where they can leave the house and, in their own words, "breathe", and this changes a woman's mindset and the value she places on herself. This is an important step towards empowerment. It is even more than a step. It is a prelude to wanting and striving for better. However, when read in a social sense, this means that women move from one inequality to another inequality. As a result, one should approach "women's empowerment" optimistically as long as by emphasizing and aiming to support women's empowerment from the societal level, without denying women's own efforts and achievements.

7.1. Then, who is more empowered? In which aspect?

As mentioned in the conceptual framework, women's empowerment is analyzed on three main pillars: structures, resources, and subjects. In the context of the quantitative component of the research, women's empowerment was investigated using 14 variables. In measuring women's empowerment, labor force participation is considered as a structural factor. Women's resources, such as level of education and access to media, and material resources, such as money and assets, were taken into account. Not only ownership but also whether women have control over them was considered as well. Women's perspectives on gender, as manifested in norms, including age at first marriage, educational differences between spouses, and perspectives on issues such as divorce, division of labor within the household, and violence were taken into account. These were also analyzed within the scope of the qualitative component, and it was observed that all of them are closely related to empowerment. The qualitative component initially served as a source of validation for

the quantitative findings. It also allowed raising different issues that were not included in the 14 variables.

The most important finding regarding the measurement of empowerment is, one must consider that women are not homogeneous. Both structural conditions and individual stories need to be taken into account. Many different things distinguish them, such as class background, age, community, and individual experiences. What empowers one woman may not empower others (Walby, 1990; Kabeer; 2021; Ewerking, 2022). For example, it has been found that educational attainment and participation in the labor market do not themselves constitute women's empowerment, but they are important components of women's empowerment as they influence women's choices and agency more broadly. Education and participation in the labor market is a factor that introduces women, especially those with low SES and oppressive husbands, to life outside the household and shows them different opportunities and possibilities. However, it is also very important to open a layer of work and to investigate under what conditions and in what types of jobs. While designing the women's empowerment variable, the component related to work was taken into account as "being employed full time with insurance".

Nevertheless, when gender, decision-making, and individual and collective conscious components were taken into account when discussing women's empowerment, class or SES was not adequate to explain women's empowerment. It is explained by the context of patriarchal family ideology. It has been observed that even married women from higher SES do not enter the labor market due to their children and they are in an unequal position in terms of domestic responsibilities. For lower SES women, on the other hand, even being able to work after struggling with their husbands was defined as empowerment. This is precisely why single women without children constitute the highest level of empowerment. Although the absence of childcare responsibilities and the absence of a man at home reduces women's household income, it puts them in a more advantageous position in terms of decision-making, entering the labor market, and accessing their own material and non-material resources.

Following this group, almost half of single-parent women with dependent children also have high levels of empowerment and are more advantaged than married women with dependent children. The background of empowerment herein may be an answer to Walby's question: The absence of a husband at home may make a woman more empowered due to the removal of oppression. However, when the background of the strength of single parents with dependent children is analyzed, it is seen that these women force themselves to be strong, resist and struggle because the male figure is left the household. When they received the necessary social and psychological support after the loss of their husband or separation, they felt very strong. It was also observed that the family of these women was more involved than that of married women.

7.2. Recommendations

Facilitation of Women's Access to Resources: Access to resources is the most important obstacle to women's empowerment. Access to opportunities such as education and employment should be improved. As mentioned in the findings, it is important to provide vocational training with certificates to strengthen women's skills and knowledge and direct them into formal employment.

Changing the Existing Structures: It was mentioned that the structures are not stable, they are transformable. Nevertheless, this transformation can happen over time and through struggle. While laws and policies regarding women, family, and women's empowerment have improved over time, however, they are still gendered in their nature. More gender-sensitive and holistic laws and policies need to be developed and implemented. Their implementation should be monitored.

Awareness Raising and Changing Self-image: First of all, how women see and define themselves is an important part of their empowerment. This can be a driving force in making choices. Especially Divorce/separated/widowed women's struggles and critical consciousness constitute an example of this situation. However, it should also be explained that empowerment does not mean taking on all roles. Rather, "being empowered" should not be understood as an oppressive term. The most important suggestion is the provision of accessible psychosocial mechanisms to help women for

understanding their own resources and needs through psychosocial support and awareness-raising activities.

Building Collective Consciousness: Being in a part of a community empowers women. Through building collective consciousness and solidarity among women, women's empowerment shifts from an individual concept to a social and political one. Women's empowerment is not stable but a process (Kabeer, 2001), and it has been observed that when women come together with other women and share their experiences they feel more empowered. Cooperatives, women's solidarity groups, and workplace environments are particularly important for women's empowerment. In this context, women's support mechanisms and solidarity platforms should be increased and disseminated both face-to-face and on social media.

7.3. Contribution of the Thesis

This thesis aimed to analyze a difficult concept as comprehensively as possible. Although there are studies on single-parent households in the literature, they have mostly focused on their disadvantages. These studies, which are quite valuable in contextualizing the issue, have mostly focused on parenting experiences, household welfare, or the psychosocial development of the child. This thesis aimed to contribute to the literature from a different perspective and methodology by focusing on women's empowerment within the household comparatively. It both provided a discussion on how to measure women's empowerment and presented insights about how the presence or absence of a husband in the household has an impact on women's empowerment.

7.4. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Studies

Although the representativeness of the TDHS sample is high, sampling and variable-related limitations based on the conceptualization of women's empowerment constituted main limitations encountered during the analyses. The most important limitation of the thesis is related to the data collection purpose and sampling methodology of TDHS. Since it focuses on the reproductive health of women in the reproductive period with a special focus on maternal and child health, sample covers

women aged 15-49, which creates a limitation in itself. It excludes women over age 49. In addition, many variables are not suitable to measure women's empowerment. Finally, as mentioned in the Conceptual Framework chapter, the sample of the TDHS was constructed to quantitatively measure the empowerment levels of women in different types of households. Therefore, divorced women (by decision) and women who lost their partners were evaluated together due to the low number of observations despite their underlying reason and the impact of these two issues are quite different. It is a fact that women who already have existing resources decide to divorce more easily. Hence selectivity is in play in this context. Single parent women are a selected group who are more likely to get divorced. Based on their both observed and unobserved characteristics, they may differ from other women which make them more likely to become single in the first place. In this case, it can be expected that divorced women have a high level of empowerment. Hence our findings should be interpreted this way as well.

The difficulties after divorce or the loss of a husband also differ. For instance, support mechanism such as “widow’s and orphan’s pension” is provided by women who lost their husband, while divorce women faced financial difficulties and are more likely to be dependent on their ex-husband or parental families. Considering this limitation, the thesis limited its focus on the household dynamics and structure, in other words, “the lack of husband in the family”. Therefore, the women’s empowerment was discussed in the scope of intra-household dynamics and women’s internal and external resources. For further studies, it is obvious that there is a continuous need for data generation enabling to measure women’s empowerment using quantitative methods as well as mixed method approach. In addition, to develop policies encouraging women’s empowerment, case studies on divorced women versus widowed women could be conducted to have in-depth understanding how they experience the loss of their husband and divorce; what kind of coping mechanisms they developed; and what types of support mechanisms enable women to overcome the challenges they encountered. Finally, in further studies, it could be given a specific focus on the empowerment of different categories of women, such as LGBTI+ individuals, elderly women, women with disabilities, and immigrant women by using a similar methodology.



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APPENDIX-A. DISTRIBUTION OF EXPLANATORY VARIABLES BY WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT LEVELS

Table A.1. Explanatory Variables by Empowerment Levels

	Low Empowerment Level			Middle Empowerment Level			High Empowerment Level			Total	
	Count	Unweighted Count	Row N %	Count	Unweighted Count	Row N %	Count	Unweighted Count	Row N %	Count	Unweighted Count
V013 Age in 5-year groups											
1 15-19	36	46	60.7%	19	22	31.6%	5	5	7.7%	60	73
2 20-24	190	205	44.9%	168	179	39.6%	66	69	15.5%	424	453
3 25-29	279	323	36.4%	274	293	35.8%	213	215	27.9%	766	831
4 30-34	418	484	42.8%	290	304	29.7%	268	277	27.4%	976	1065
5 35-39	577	645	54.8%	238	240	22.6%	237	219	22.5%	1052	1104
6 40-44	572	636	57.9%	198	192	20.0%	218	195	22.1%	988	1023
7 45-49	562	626	64.2%	149	163	17.0%	165	146	18.9%	876	935
Total	2633	2965	51.2%	1335	1393	26.0%	1172	1126	22.8%	5141	5484
V025 Type of place of residence											
1 Urban	1822	1824	45.3%	1132	1117	28.2%	1067	980	26.5%	4021	3921
2 Rural	811	1141	72.4%	203	276	18.1%	106	146	9.5%	1120	1563
Total	2633	2965	51.2%	1335	1393	26.0%	1172	1126	22.8%	5141	5484
V024 Region											
1 West	989	729	43.4%	620	468	27.2%	668	485	29.3%	2277	1682
2 South	388	405	59.9%	170	181	26.3%	90	97	13.9%	648	683
3 Central	502	543	46.4%	310	310	28.6%	270	256	24.9%	1082	1109
4 North	127	313	46.5%	80	198	29.3%	66	162	24.2%	273	673
5 East	627	975	72.9%	155	236	18.0%	78	126	9.1%	861	1337
Total	2633	2965	51.2%	1335	1393	26.0%	1172	1126	22.8%	5141	5484
V190 Wealth index combined											
1 Poorest	694	949	86.5%	81	112	10.1%	28	45	3.5%	803	1106
2 Poorer	723	853	73.4%	204	247	20.7%	57	67	5.8%	985	1167
3 Middle	589	589	55.7%	325	352	30.7%	143	159	13.6%	1057	1100
4 Richer	452	417	40.0%	411	392	36.4%	266	261	23.6%	1129	1070
5 Richest	175	157	15.0%	314	290	26.9%	677	594	58.1%	1166	1041
Total	2633	2965	51.2%	1335	1393	26.0%	1172	1126	22.8%	5141	5484

APPENDIX-B. CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN BY EMPOWERMENT LEVEL

Table B.1. Characteristics of Women by Empowerment Level

	Low			Middle			High			Total		
	Count	Unweighted Count	Column ,N %	Count	Unweighted Count	Column ,N %	Count	Unweighted Count	Column ,N %	Count	Unweighted Count	Column ,N %
Family Composition												
Married women without any children	106	120	4.0%	100	108	7.5%	143	138	12.2%	349	366	6.8%
Married women with at least one dependent child	1798	2017	68.3%	1030	1070	77.2%	805	776	68.6%	3633	3863	70.7%
Married women with only independent children	627	713	23.8%	134	136	10.0%	77	78	6.5%	837	927	16.3%
Single parent women with at least one dependent child	53	54	2.0%	39	42	3.0%	88	75	7.5%	180	171	3.5%
Single parent women with only independent children	42	49	1.6%	18	25	1.4%	28	30	2.4%	88	104	1.7%
Divorced/separated/widowed women without any children	7	12	0.3%	13	12	1.0%	32	29	2.7%	53	53	1.0%
Total	2633	2965	100.0%	1335	1393	100.0%	1172	1126	100.0%	5141	5484	100.0%
Age in 5-year groups												
1 15-19	36	46	1.4%	19	22	1.4%	5	5	0.4%	60	73	1.2%
2 20-24	190	205	7.2%	168	179	12.6%	66	69	5.6%	424	453	8.2%
3 25-29	279	323	10.6%	274	293	20.5%	213	215	18.2%	766	831	14.9%
4 30-34	418	484	15.9%	290	304	21.7%	268	277	22.8%	976	1065	19.0%
5 35-39	577	645	21.9%	238	240	17.8%	237	219	20.2%	1052	1104	20.5%
6 40-44	572	636	21.7%	198	192	14.8%	218	195	18.6%	988	1023	19.2%
7 45-49	562	626	21.3%	149	163	11.1%	165	146	14.1%	876	935	17.0%
Total	2633	2965	100.0%	1335	1393	100.0%	1172	1126	100.0%	5141	5484	100.0%
Type of place of residence												
1 Urban	1822	1824	69.2%	1132	1117	84.8%	1067	980	91.0%	4021	3921	78.2%

2 Rural	811	1141	30.8%	203	276	15.2%	106	146	9.0%	1120	1563	21.8%
Total	2633	2965	100.0%	1335	1393	100.0%	1172	1126	100.0%	5141	5484	100.0%
Region												
1 West	989	729	37.6%	620	468	46.4%	668	485	57.0%	2277	1682	44.3%
2 South	388	405	14.7%	170	181	12.7%	90	97	7.7%	648	683	12.6%
3 Central	502	543	19.1%	310	310	23.2%	270	256	23.0%	1082	1109	21.1%
4 North	127	313	4.8%	80	198	6.0%	66	162	5.6%	273	673	5.3%
5 East	627	975	23.8%	155	236	11.6%	78	126	6.7%	861	1337	16.7%
Total	2633	2965	100.0%	1335	1393	100.0%	1172	1126	100.0%	5141	5484	100.0%
V190 Wealth index combined												
1 Poorest	694	949	26.4%	81	112	6.1%	28	45	2.4%	803	1106	15.6%
2 Poorer	723	853	27.5%	204	247	15.3%	57	67	4.9%	985	1167	19.2%
3 Middle	589	589	22.4%	325	352	24.3%	143	159	12.2%	1057	1100	20.6%
4 Richer	452	417	17.2%	411	392	30.8%	266	261	22.7%	1129	1070	22.0%
5 Richest	175	157	6.7%	314	290	23.5%	677	594	57.8%	1166	1041	22.7%
Total	2633	2965	100.0%	1335	1393	100.0%	1172	1126	100.0%	5141	5484	100.0%

APPENDIX-C. MLR RESULTS

Table C.1. MLR Results

Empowerment Level	Variables	Coef,	St,Err,	t-value	p-value	[95% CI)	Interval]	Sig
Middle Emp	15-19	4,15	1,545	3,82	0	2	8,609	***
	20-24	5,204	1,041	8,25	0	3,516	7,702	***
	25-29	5,487	0,985	9,48	0	3,859	7,802	***
	30-34	2,848	0,479	6,22	0	2,048	3,962	***
	35-39	1,553	0,26	2,63	0,009	1,119	2,156	***
	40-44	1,2	0,193	1,13	0,257	0,875	1,646	
	45-49 (Reference category)	1						
	West	1,494	0,176	3,41	0,001	1,187	1,882	***
	South	2,064	0,273	5,47	0	1,592	2,676	***
	Central	1,484	0,185	3,16	0,002	1,161	1,896	***
	North	2,407	0,335	6,31	0	1,832	3,162	***
	East (Reference category)	1						
	Urban	0,847	0,097	-1,45	0,146	0,676	1,06	
	Rural (Reference category)	1						
	Poorest (Reference category)	1						
	Poorer	2,576	0,38	6,41	0	1,929	3,44	***
	Middle	6,108	0,953	11,6	0	4,498	8,293	***
	Richer	12,035	2,004	14,94	0	8,684	16,68	***
	Richest	28,353	5,441	17,43	0	19,463	41,305	***
	Married without living children	1,209	0,224	1,03	0,305	0,841	1,738	
	Married with at least one dependent child (Reference category)	1						
	Married with at least one independent child	0,585	0,09	-3,47	0,001	0,433	0,792	***
	Single mothers with at least one dependent child	2,387	0,624	3,33	0,001	1,43	3,985	***
	Single mothers with at least one independent child	2,115	0,7	2,26	0,024	1,105	4,048	**
	Widowed/separated/divorced women without living child	3,606	1,885	2,45	0,014	1,294	10,047	**
	Constant	0,033	0,007	-16,75	0	0,022	0,049	***

High Emp	15-19	0,784	0,506	-0,38	0,706	0,221	2,778	
	20-24	2,1	0,553	2,82	0,005	1,254	3,519	***
	25-29	4,288	0,899	6,94	0	2,843	6,467	***
	30-34	2,381	0,472	4,38	0	1,615	3,511	***
	35-39	1,364	0,275	1,54	0,123	0,919	2,025	
	40-44	1,109	0,206	0,56	0,578	0,77	1,597	
	45-49 (Reference category)	1	,	,	,	,	,	
	West	1,869	0,286	4,09	0	1,385	2,522	***
	South	2,135	0,387	4,18	0	1,496	3,047	***
	Central	1,451	0,235	2,3	0,021	1,057	1,992	**
	North	2,994	0,541	6,07	0	2,101	4,266	***
	East (Reference category)	1	,	,	,	,	,	
	Urban	0,555	0,087	-3,74	0	0,408	0,756	***
	Rural (Reference category)	1	,	,	,	,	,	
	Poorest (Reference category)	1	,	,	,	,	,	
	Poorer	2,05	0,533	2,76	0,006	1,232	3,412	***
	Middle	8,442	2,189	8,23	0	5,078	14,036	***
	Richer	25,255	6,905	11,81	0	14,776	43,165	***
	Richest	206,997	59,587	18,52	0	117,728	363,96	***
	Married without living children	2,977	0,608	5,34	0	1,995	4,443	***
	Married with at least one dependent child (Reference category)	1	,	,	,	,	,	
	Married with at least one independent child	0,29	0,058	-6,18	0	0,196	0,43	***
	Single mothers with at least one dependent child	7,555	1,85	8,26	0	4,675	12,209	***
	Single mothers with at least one independent child	5,038	2,152	3,78	0	2,18	11,64	***
	Widowed/seperated/divorced women without living child	18,961	9,138	6,11	0	7,371	48,775	***
	Constant	0,014	0,004	-15,71	0	0,008	0,024	***

Mean dependent var=1,665; SD dependent var=0,796; Number of obs=5484; F-test=30,91

*** p<,01, ** p<,05, * p<,1

APPENDIX-D. REVISITING THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Previously, the Women's Empowerment index was created using the variables indicated in Table 4.1. However, in the light of the qualitative interview findings, it was understood that there is a need for a robustness check. Accordingly, some of the variables were re-evaluated and excluded from the scope of the analysis as well as additional variables were included in the analysis. Accordingly, a new factor analysis was implemented and the relationship between explanatory variables was re-analyzed using the multinomial logistic method by using same explanatory and dependent variables.

After the qualitative analysis, it was observed that parental family support had a significant effect on the woman's decision to divorce. Not only in the decision to divorce, but also in the process after the loss of the spouse, family serves as a support mechanism during women's experiences as single-motherhood process. For this reason, "whether women's parent's are alive or not" added to the list of variables. In addition, as a result of the analysis, the variables related to the "attitude towards the divorce decision" and the "woman's autonomous decision-making regarding her own health" were excluded from the scope of the analysis. Although qualitative interviews revealed that in some cases the woman could make a divorce decision independently from her family or overcome the process of being a single parent with the help of different external resources, based on the literature, it is thought that the contribution of autonomous decision-making on divorce or women's own health may create a bias for the measurement of women's empowerment. Therefore, the variables are excluded and then analyses were implemented again (**Table D.1.**)

Table D.1. Revised Variables List for the Factor Analysis

Dimension	Domain	DHS Indicators	DHS Variable Name	Response Categories in DHS	Category Used in Factor Analysis	Recode
Education	Educational Attainment	CS-Educational attainment	SEDUC	0 No edu/prim inc; 1 primary; 2 secondary; 3 high and higher; 8 dont know	0 No edu/prim inc; 1 primary; 2 secondary; 3 high and higher; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 0 and 1, Code 1 if 2, Code 2 if 3
		Husband's total years of education	V715	Continuous	husbanded	ed-husbanded=ediff;
	Educational Differences between spouses	Education in single years	ed	Continuous	ed	Code 0 if ediff<0, Code 1 ediff >=0
Marriage	Age at first cohabitation	Age at first cohabitation	V511	Continuous		Code 0 if <18, code 1 if 18-25, code 2 if >25
Economic Status	Labor force participation	Currently Working	V714	0 No; 1 Yes	Work: 0 currently not working; 1 working without coverage; 2 working with coverage	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2
		Social Security	S740\$01-10	1 full time; 2 part time		
	Money	Have money to spend by herself	S793	0 No; 1 Yes	0 No; 1 Yes	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1
Ownership and Control over Ownership	House	Owens a house alone or jointly	V745A	0 Doesnt; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only; 3 both alone and jointly	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2 owns alone but cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3
		Sell the house by her own	S792B	0 No, 1 Yes		
	Land	Owens land alone or jointly	V745B	0 Doesnt; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only;	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2	

Dimension	Domain	DHS Indicators	DHS Variable Name	Response Categories in DHS	Category Used in Factor Analysis	Recode
Opinion on Gender Roles and Responsibilities		Sell the land by her own	S792A	3 both alone and jointly 0 No, 1 Yes	owns alone but cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3
			S791C	0 Doesn't; 1 alone only; 2 jointly only; 3 both alone and jointly	0 Doesn't own; 1 owns jointly; 2 owns alone but cannot sell; 3 owns alone and can sell	Code 0 if 0, Code 1 if 1, Code 2 if 2, Code 3 if 3
		Sell the car by her own	S792C	0 No, 1 Yes		
	Car	Opinion on: family decision by men	S794A	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 1 or 8, Code 1 if 0
		Opinion on: husband should do housework	S794B	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	0 disagree; 1 agree; 8 dont know	Code 0 if 0 or 8, Code 1 if 1
		Beating justified if wife refuses to have sex with husband	V744D	0 No; 1 Yes; 8; dont know	0 No; 1 Yes; 8; dont know	Code 0 if 1 or 8, Code 1 if 0
Access to media	Internet	Use internet	S796E	0 No; 1; irregularly; 2 regularly	0 No; 1; irregularly; 2 regularly	Code 0 if 0; Code 1 if 1 or 2
Family support	Respondent's mother alive or not	Mother alive	SH14	0 No; 1 Yes	0 Yes; 1 No	Code 0 If 0; Code 1 if 1
Family support	Respondent's father alive or not	Father alive	SH16	0 No; 1 Yes	0 Yes; 1 No	Code 0 If 0; Code 1 if 1

The factor analysis conducted by removing these variables is presented below step by step. Re-created factor analysis yielded significant results. Accordingly, 87.9% of the total variation is explained by these two factors (%63.3% by Factor 1 and 24.6% by Factor 2).Factor 1 was used for the construction of the revised women's empowerment variable.

Figure D.1. Factor Analysis Results

```
. factorformat r, n(5378) mineigen(1) sds(stdev) means(mean)
(obs=5,378)
```

Factor analysis/correlation	Number of obs	=	5,378
Method: principal factors	Retained factors	=	2
Rotation: (unrotated)	Number of params	=	27

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
Factor1	3.62324	2.21307	0.6333	0.6333
Factor2	1.41017	0.74749	0.2465	0.8798
Factor3	0.66267	0.23050	0.1158	0.9956
Factor4	0.43217	0.05376	0.0755	1.0712
Factor5	0.37841	0.18541	0.0661	1.1373
Factor6	0.19300	0.09103	0.0337	1.1711
Factor7	0.10197	0.11668	0.0178	1.1889
Factor8	-0.01471	0.05946	-0.0026	1.1863
Factor9	-0.07416	0.05336	-0.0130	1.1734
Factor10	-0.12752	0.03236	-0.0223	1.1511
Factor11	-0.15989	0.03694	-0.0279	1.1231
Factor12	-0.19683	0.02872	-0.0344	1.0887
Factor13	-0.22555	0.05641	-0.0394	1.0493
Factor14	-0.28196	.	-0.0493	1.0000

LR test: independent vs. saturated: chi2(91) = 2.5e+04 Prob>chi2 = 0.0000

```
. predict f1 f2 f3
(regression scoring assumed)
(excess variables dropped)

Scoring coefficients (method = regression)
```

Variable	Factor1	Factor2
fedu_recoded	0.49022	-0.14375
eduiff_re-d	0.01105	0.00093
marriage_r-d	0.01020	0.05155
work_recoded	0.11055	0.13556
money	0.12407	0.15496
house	0.04285	0.30896
land	0.02296	0.22272
car	0.07181	0.24067
decisionby-d	0.15165	-0.06689
husbandhou-d	-0.09472	0.02836
sexualviol-d	0.07525	-0.14365
int_recoded	0.13462	-0.09792
sh14	-0.00170	-0.14533
sh16	0.02566	-0.15813

```

. egen std_f1=std(f1)

.
. sum std_f1, detail

Standardized values of (f1)

```

	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	-1.708327	-2.206581		
5%	-1.474042	-2.206581		
10%	-1.09718	-2.206581	Obs	5,378
25%	-.7786624	-2.200693	Sum of Wgt.	5,378
50%	-.2507882		Mean	-2.15e-09
		Largest	Std. Dev.	1
75%	.8242303	2.547258		
90%	1.484367	2.547258	Variance	1
95%	1.748138	2.547258	Skewness	.3541321
99%	2.138348	2.547258	Kurtosis	2.165271

```

.
. histogram std_f1
(bin=37, start=-2.2065814, width=.12848215)

. histogram f1
(bin=37, start=-1.7896669, width=.10420656)

```

Following table presents the new distribution of women by empowerment index. Results are similar with the previous distribution of the variable. Accordingly, above half of the women (52.1%) are observed in the low empowerment category. (it corresponded 51.2% of women previously). Similarly, 23.7% of them are in the middle empowerment category (it corresponded to 26.0% previously) and 24.2% of them are observed in the high empowerment category (it corresponded to 22.8% of the women previously).

Table D.2. Distribution of Women by Revised Empowerment Variable

	Number of Women (Unweighted)	Percentage of Women (Weighted)	Percentage of Women (Weighted)
Low	2962	55.1%	52.1%
Middle	1241	23.1%	23.7%
High	1175	21.8%	24.2%
Total	5378	100%	100%

Based on new created women's empowerment category, MLR calculated and presented below table. The MLR results indicated that findings are significant and the trends are similar with the previous analysis. However, for example, when the effect

of age is analyzed, the revised analysis indicated that younger women are more likely to be empowered. This may be related to the fact that parents are still alive and still living with the family. The results are also similar in terms of region and place of residence. Although the trend is the similar for wealth, the coefficient values are higher in the revised analysis.

When the findings are analyzed based on family composition, the result for single mothers with only independent child category found statistically significant since p-value is greater than 0.05. On the other hand, other results are considered significant. Single-parent women with at least one dependent children was found more likely to be empowered, as observed previously, with a decrease in the coefficient ratio (from 7 to 4). In the same way, widowed/separated/divorced women without any children are also observed as more likely to be empowered while previously with 18 times, after robustness check, it decreased to 7. These decreases are thought to be especially related to the removal of variables related to decision-making on divorce and health.

Table D.3. Comparison of MLR Results for Previous and Revised Women's Empowerment Variables

Variables	MLR Results for Previous High Level Empowerment Category		MLR Results for New High Level Empowerment Category	
	Coef,	p-value	Coef,	p-value
15-19	0,784	0,706	1.745	.442
20-24	2,1	0,005	4.669	0
25-29	4,288	0	7.453	0
30-34	2,381	0	2.943	0
35-39	1,364	0,123	1.632	.016
40-44	1,109	0,578	1.189	.359
45-49*	1	,	1	.
West	1,869	0	1.913	0
South	2,135	0	2.356	0
Central	1,451	0,021	1.492	.014
North	2,994	0	3.138	0
East*	1	,	1	.
Urban	0,555	0	.472	0
Rural*	1	,	1	.
Poorest*	1	,	1	.

Poorer	2,05	0,006	3.461	0
Middle	8,442	0	21.267	0
Richer	25,255	0	64.565	0
Richest	206,997	0	495.296	0
Married women without any children	2,977	0	3.366	0
Married women with at least one dependent child*	1	,	1	.
Married with only independent children	0,29	0	.261	0
Single parent women with at least one dependent child	7,555	0	4.676	0
Single mothers with only independent child	5,038	0	1.943	.123
Widowed/separated/divorced women without any children	18,961	0	4.433	.002
Constant	0,014	0	.006	0

Table D.4. Overall MLR Results after Robustness Check

Empowerment level	Variables	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
Middle Emp	15-19	17.55	6.789	7.41	0	8.221	37.465	***
	20-24	15.482	3.34	12.70	0	10.143	23.633	***
	25-29	11.746	2.327	12.43	0	7.965	17.321	***
	30-34	4.394	.816	7.97	0	3.053	6.324	***
	35-39	2.171	.399	4.22	0	1.514	3.112	***
	40-44	1.673	.294	2.93	.003	1.186	2.36	***
	45-49 (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
	West	1.683	.213	4.11	0	1.313	2.157	***
	South	2.011	.283	4.96	0	1.526	2.651	***
	Central	1.321	.177	2.08	.038	1.016	1.719	**
	North	2.586	.382	6.43	0	1.936	3.455	***
	East (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
	Urban	.708	.085	-2.86	.004	.558	.897	***
	Rural (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
	Poorest (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
	Poorer	2.814	.437	6.66	0	2.075	3.816	***
	Middle	6.845	1.146	11.49	0	4.929	9.505	***
	Richer	14.654	2.664	14.77	0	10.261	20.928	***
	Richest	35.348	7.244	17.40	0	23.653	52.825	***
	Married without living children	1.039	.213	0.18	.854	.694	1.553	
	Married with at least one dependent child (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
	Married with at least one independent child	.652	.108	-2.59	.01	.471	.901	***
	Single mothers with at least one dependent child	2.186	.607	2.81	.005	1.268	3.768	***
	Single mothers with at least one independent child	1.964	.636	2.08	.037	1.041	3.705	**
	Widowed/separated/divorced women without living child	1.321	.712	0.52	.606	.459	3.801	
	Constant	.018	.004	-18.24	0	.012	.028	***

High Emp	15-19	1.745	1.264	0.77	.442	.422	7.217	***
	20-24	4.669	1.226	5.87	0	2.79	7.813	***
	25-29	7.453	1.634	9.16	0	4.849	11.454	***
	30-34	2.943	.596	5.33	0	1.979	4.377	***
	35-39	1.632	.331	2.41	.016	1.096	2.428	**
	40-44	1.189	.224	0.92	.359	.821	1.722	
	45-49 (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	
	West	1.913	.298	4.16	0	1.409	2.597	***
	South	2.356	.442	4.57	0	1.631	3.403	***
	Central	1.492	.244	2.45	.014	1.083	2.054	**
	North	3.138	.573	6.26	0	2.194	4.49	***
	East (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	
	Urban	.472	.076	-4.65	0	.344	.648	***
	Rural (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	
	Poorest (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	
	Poorer	3.461	1.187	3.62	0	1.767	6.778	***
	Middle	21.267	7.231	8.99	0	10.92	41.417	***
	Richer	64.565	22.885	11.76	0	32.227	129.354	***
	Richest	495.296	181.983	16.89	0	241.015	1017.853	***
	Married without living children	3.366	.732	5.58	0	2.198	5.154	***
	Married with at least one dependent child (Reference category)	1	.	.	.	.	.	
	Married with at least one independent child	.261	.053	-6.58	0	.175	.389	***
	Single mothers with at least one dependent child	4.676	1.143	6.31	0	2.895	7.552	***
	Single mothers with at least one independent child	1.943	.838	1.54	.123	.834	4.526	
	Widowed/separated/divorced women without living child	4.433	2.125	3.11	.002	1.733	11.343	***
	Constant	.006	.002	-14.32	0	.003	.012	***

APPENDIX-E. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDELINE (TURKISH)

DERİNLEMESİNE GÖRÜŞME SORU YÖNERGESİ

A. HANEHALKI VE KADINLARIN TEMEL ÖZELLİKLERİ

A1. Biraz kendinizden bahseder misiniz? (Yaş, medeni durum, çocuk sayısı-hanede yaşamayan ve yaşayan, çalışma durumu)

A2. Hanenizden bahsedebilir misiniz? Hanenizde kimler yaşıyor? (Eş, çocuklar, ebeveynler, kardeşler, diğer akrabalar vb.)

B. EĞİTİM

1. Hiç okula gittiniz mi? (Evet ise) Tamamladığınız en yüksek **eğitim düzeyi** nedir? / (Hayır ise) Okuryazar mısınız? (Eğitim almadıysa ya da yarıda bıraktıysa) Eğitiminize devam etmek ister miydiniz? Neden?
2. (Son) **Eşinizin tamamladığı en yüksek eğitim** düzeyi nedir/neydi?
3. Eğitim durumunuzun eşinizle benzer ya da farklı olması size ne ifade ediyor? Bu konudaki görüş ve deneyimlerinizden biraz bahsedebilir misiniz?

C. EVLİLİK

4. **Kaç yaşında evlendiniz?**
5. (Son) **Eşiniz** sizinle evlendiğinde **kaç yaşındaydı?**
6. Sizce eşler arasındaki **ideal yaş farkı** ne olmalı? Neden?
7. (Son eşinizle) Evlenmeye nasıl **karar** verdiniz? Aile üyeleri, akrabalar gibi **evlilik kararınızı etkileyen** ya da evlenmenize karar veren birileri oldu mu? Yoksa yalnızca eşinizle birlikte mi karar aldınız?

D. İŞGÜCÜNE KATILIM, ÇALIŞMA KOŞULLARI VE İŞ-AİLE DENGESİ

8. Şu anda çalışıyor musunuz? (Şu anda çalışıyorsa) Yaptığınız iş ve çalışma koşullarınızdan bahsedebilir misiniz?
9. (Şu anda çalışıyorsa) Haftada **kaç saat** çalışıyorsunuz?
10. (Şu anda çalışıyorsa) **Boş zamanlarınızda** neler yapıyorsunuz?
11. (Şu anda çalışmıyorsa) **Daha önce** hiç çalışmış mıydınız? (Evet ise) Ne tür bir iş? (Hayır ise) **Çalışmama sebebiniz** nedir?
12. (Şu anda çalışmıyorsa) **Çalışmayı düşünüyor musunuz?** (Evet ise) **Ne tür bir işte** çalışmayı tercih edersiniz? (Lütfen çalışma koşullarını, tam zamanlı/yarı zamanlı gibi çalışma türlerini belirtiniz)
13. (Şu anda çalışıyorsa veya daha önce herhangi bir işte çalıştıysa) İşiniz nedeniyle **günlük yaşamınızda** ve sorumluluklarınızda herhangi bir **zorluk** yaşıyor musunuz/yaşar mıydınız? Hangi zorluklarla karşılaştığınızdan bahsedebilir misiniz? Bu **zorlukların üstesinden gelmek için** ne gibi **yollar** izliyorsunuz/izlemiştiniz?
14. Hanenizde **ücretli bir işte çalışan aile üyesi/üyeleri** var mı? Kimler? Ne tür ücretli işlerde çalışıyorlar?

E. MÜLKİYET SAHİPLİĞİ VE MÜLKİYET ÜZERİNDE KONTROL

15. Kendinize ait paranız, mülkünüz vb. **varlıklarınız mevcut mu?** Diğer hane üyeleriyle ortak olarak mı sahiptiniz, yoksa kendinize mi ait?
16. (Eğer varsa) Lütfen hanenizde bu **varlıkları alıp/satma konusunda karar verme sürecine dahil olan kişileri** belirtir misiniz (İrdeleme sorusu: Bu varlıkları satacak olsanız kendiniz satabilir miydiniz yoksa ortağınızla birlikte mi yoksa tek başına mı satardınız? Karar alırken, varlığın/mülkün büyüklüğü veya önemi belirleyici oluyor mu?)

F. HANE İÇİ İŞ BÖLÜMÜ

17. Ev işlerinde **hanenizde rollerin dağılımı** nasıldır? (Çocuk bakımı, ev işi ve faturaları ayrı ayrı ödeme konusunda örnekler verir misiniz) Roller ve sorumluluklar **değişiyor** mu, nasıl?

G. TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYET EŞİTLİĞİ KONUSUNDAKİ YAKLAŞIMLAR

18. Sizce **evdeki roller** kadın ve erkek arasında farklılaşmalı mıdır? Sizce iş bölümü nasıl dağılmalı?
19. **Boşanma** hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Sizce hangi koşullarda boşanma kararı alınabilir?
20. (Son) Eşinizle herhangi bir **çatışma** veya fikir ayrılıkları yaşadınız mı/yaşıyor musunuz? Bir örnek verebilir misiniz? Bu durumda nasıl tepki verdiniz/veriyorsunuz? (Son) Eşiniz nasıl tepki verdi/veriyor?

H. KADININ BEDENİ VE DOĞURGANLIĞI ÜZERİNE KARAR ALMASI

21. Evinizde **çocuk sahibi olmak isteyip istemediğinizi** ve **ne zaman istediğinizi** tartışıyor musunuz? Bu kararları nasıl alıyorsunuz/aldınız?
22. Herhangi bir **gebeliği önleyici yöntem** kullanıyor musunuz?

İ. SOSYAL AĞLARA ERİŞİM

23. **İnternet ve sosyal medyayı** kullanıyor musunuz? Ne sıklıkla?
24. Evin dışında ne sıklıkla **vakit** geçiriyorsunuz? Hangi aktiviteler için?

J. KADINLARIN GÜÇLENMESİNE İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞ VE ALGILAR

25. **Güçlü bir kadın** hayal ettiğiniz zaman, aklınıza nasıl bir kadın geliyor? Sizce bu kadının en temel üç özelliği nedir?
26. **Kendinizi güçlü** hissettiğiniz anlara bir örnek verebilir misiniz?

K. KESİŞEN KONULAR

27. *(Tek ebeveyn kadın değil ise)* Kadınlara sunulan **farklı destek türleriyle ilgili herhangi bir bilginiz var mı?** Ne tür destek mekanizmalarından haberdarsınız? *(Tek ebeveyn kadın ise)* Tek ebeveyn annelere sunulan **farklı destek türleriyle ilgili herhangi bir bilginiz var mı?** Ne tür destek mekanizmalarından haberdarsınız?
28. Siz veya hanenizdeki diğer bireyler herhangi bir **sosyal yardım** alıyor musunuz? Bu yardım size en çok hangi alanlarda katkı sağlıyor?
29. *(Tek ebeveyn kadın ise)* Sizce tek başına **çocuğa bakım sağlamanın en zorlayıcı yönleri nelerdir?** Siz en çok hangi açılardan zorlandınız?

L. ÖNERİLER

30. Sizce **tek başına çocuk/çocuklarına bakım veren kadınların** hayatını kolaylaştırmak için **ne tür destekler** gereklidir?
31. Sizce **kadınların güçlenmeleri için kime ne roller düşüyor?** (Kadınların kendi yapabilecekleri ve diğer kanallardan sunulabilecek destekler olarak irdelenmeli)

APPENDIX-F. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDELINE (ENGLISH)

WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF HOUSEHOLD TYPES: AN ANALYSIS OF THE STATUS OF SINGLE MOTHERS IN TURKEY

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDELINE

A. BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN AND THEIR HOUSEHOLDS

- A1. How old are you?
- A2. What is your marital status?
- A3. Do you have any children?
- A4. (If had child/children) How old is/are your child/children?
- A5. Who lives within your household? (Spouse, children, parents, siblings, other relatives, etc.)
- A6. (If had child/children) Do you have any children who do not live with you?

B. EDUCATION

- 1. Did you go to school? (If, yes) What is the highest level of education that you have completed? / (If no) Are you literate?
- 2. What is the highest level of education that your current/previous spouse completed?

C. MARRIAGE

- 3. At what age did you get married?
- 4. How old was your spouse when they married you?
- 5. How did you decide to marry? Was there any person who had an effect on your marriage such as family members, or relatives, or did to decide to marry together with your partner?

D. LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND WORK BALANCE

- 6. Are you currently working? (If currently working) Could you please describe your work and working conditions?
- 7. (If currently working) How long do you work in a week?
- 8. (If currently working) What do you do in your leisure time?
- 9. (If currently working) Do you experience any difficulties in daily life and responsibilities due to your work? Could you please explain in which aspects you face difficulties? How do you cope with these difficulties?
- 10. (If currently not working) Have you ever worked? What kind of work? Please explain. Why are you not working?
- 11. (If currently not working) Do you want to work? (If yes) Could you give more detail on what kind of job you prefer? (Please explain working conditions, types of work such as full-time/part-time)
- 12. Is there any family member in your household who is involved in paid work? In what types of paid work do they?

E. ACCESS AND CONTROL OVER OWNERSHIP

- 13. Do you have money or assets, or both of them? Do you have them on your own, common with other household members?
- 14. Please name the people in your household who are involved in making decisions about whether to buy or sell these assets. (Probe: Would you be able to sell these assets your own, or would you decide together with your partner or your partner would sell alone?) Does decision-making vary according to the size or importance of the asset/property?

F. DIVISION OF LABOUR IN THE HOUSEHOLD

15. What is the distribution of roles in your household on housework? Could you give examples on childcare, housework, and paying bills as separately) Do roles and responsibilities vary?

G. OPINION ON GENDER ROLES

16. In your opinion, the roles in the household should vary between men and women? In your opinion how should be distributed?
17. What is your opinion about divorce? In which condition is required for divorce?
18. Have you experienced any conflict with your partner? Can you exemplify any of them? How did you react to this situation? How did your partner react?

H. WOMEN'S DECISION-MAKING ON WOMEN'S BODY REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH

19. In your household, do you discuss if and when you want to have a child? Describe how these decisions are made.
20. Do you use any contraception?

I. ACCESS TO SOCIAL NETWORKS

21. Do you use the internet and social media? How often?
22. How often do you spend time outside of the house? For what?

J. OPINIONS AND PERCEPTIONS ON THE WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

23. When imagining an empowered woman, what are the main characteristics of this woman?

K. CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

24. Do you have external aid? Does any member of your household receive it? What is the advantage of this aid?
25. Are you aware of the different kinds of support available to women/single mothers? What kind of support mechanisms are they?
26. What are the challenging aspects of raising children alone?

L. RECOMMENDATIONS

27. In your opinion, what kind of support should be available for women raising children alone?
28. In your opinion, what kind of support should be available for women to empower them?

APPENDIX-G. ETHICAL APPROVAL

**T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Rektörlük**



Sayı : E-35853172-300-00002514136
Konu : Neriman Başak ALTAN Hk. (Etik Komisyon İzni)

17.11.2022

NÜFUS ETÜTLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 27.10.2022 tarihli ve E-85844849-300-00002485335 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Nüfusbilim Anabilim Dalı Tezli Yüksek Lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Neriman Başak ALTAN**'ın **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ayşe ABBASOĞLU ÖZGÖREN** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**Hanehalkı Kompozisyonu Bağlamında Kadınların Güçlenmesi: Türkiye'de Tek Ebeveyn Annelerin Durumunun Analizi-Women's Empowerment in the Context of Family Composition: An Analysis of the Status of Single Mothers in Turkey**" başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **08 Kasım 2022** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Vural GÖKMEN
Rektör Yardımcısı

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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QRKOD

APPENDIX-H. CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW

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DERİNLEMESİNE GÖRÜŞMELERİN KATILIMCILARINA YÖNELİK AYDINLATILMIŞ ONAM FORMU

Merhaba, ismim Neriman Başak Altan. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Nüfus Etütleri Enstitüsü'nde Nüfusbilim anabilim dalında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Bu kapsamda *Hanehalkı Kompozisyonu Bağlamında Kadınların Güçlenmesi: Türkiye'de Tek Ebeveyn Annelerin Durumunun Analizi* başlıklı tezimi Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ayşe Abbasoğlu Özgören'in danışmanlığında yürütüyorum.

Araştırmada farklı hanehalkı tiplerindeki kadınların statüleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığı ve farklılık görülen durumlarda bu farka neden olan faktörlerin nicel ve nitel yöntemler kullanarak incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Çalışmanın nicel analizi aşamasında, Türkiye genelinde 7346 kadın ile yapılan anket çalışmasını içeren 2018 Türkiye Nüfus ve Sağlık Araştırması verilerinden yararlanılmıştır. Kadının statüsüne etki eden birden fazla boyuttan oluşan bir "Kadının Güçlenmesi" indeksi oluşturulup, farklı hanehalkı tiplerine göre kadınların statüsü analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulguların nedenlerini açıklayabilmek, yorumlayabilmek ve daha da önemlisi, kadınların kendi seslerini yansıtabilmek adına, farklı hanehalkı tiplerinde bulunan kadınlar ile derinlemesine görüşmeler yapılmaktadır. Yarı yapılandırılmış bir soru yönergesi ekseninde gerçekleştirilecek görüşmeler sırasında, sizlere eğitim, evlilik, iş yaşamı, gündelik hayat pratikleri, ev içi iş bölümü, karar alma mekanizmaları, yaşanan zorluklar, zorluklarla baş etme stratejileri ve mevcut ihtiyaçlar vb. temalarla ilişkili bazı sorular yönelteceğim. Sorulara samimi ve içten yanıt vermeniz çalışma için oldukça önemlidir ancak hiçbir sorunun doğru ve yanlış cevapları bulunmamaktadır. Çalışmada siz kadınların görüşleri, tutumları ve deneyimlerini anlamak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu araştırma için, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonundan gerekli izinler alınmıştır.

Katılımcıların tercihlerine göre çevrimiçi görüşme platformları, telefon ve yüz yüze olmak üzere görüşmeler karma veri toplama araçları ile yürütülmektedir.

Görüşmeler ortalama 45 dakika sürmektedir.

Çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Ayrıca, çalışmanın herhangi bir kısmında devam etmek istememeniz durumunda çalışmayı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Aynı şekilde, herhangi bir soruya tamamen ya da kısmen yanıt vermek istememeniz durumunda bir sonraki soru ile devam edilecektir.

Onay vermeniz durumunda görüşme esnasında not tutulacak ve görüşmenin ses kaydı alınacaktır. Ses kayıtları yalnızca araştırma kapsamında kullanılmak üzere yazıya döküldükten sonra silinecek ve hiç kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çalışmada kimlik bilgilerini içeren sorular yer almamaktadır. Araştırmada vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler ve ses kayıtları hiçbir kimlik bilgisi belirtilmeksizin saklanacak ve bilgiler isimsiz olarak sadece bilimsel çalışmalarda anonimleştirilerek veri olarak kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya gönüllü katıldığınıza ilişkin bilgilerinizi içeren bu onam formu ise, veri kayıtlarından ayrı olarak muhafaza edilecek ve belirli bir süre sonra imha edilecektir.

Yanıtlarınızın gizliliği araştırmacılar tarafından sağlanacaktır ve bilgileriniz yalnızca bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Araştırmayla ve araştırmanın sonuçlarıyla ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz olursa veya bilgi edinmek isterseniz aşağıda yer alan iletişim bilgilerim aracılığıyla benimle iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Çalışmaya başlamadan önce sorunuz olursa yanıtlamaktan memnuniyet duyarım.

Bu bilgileri okuduktan sonra, bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmanızı ve araştırma dahilinde benim size verdiğim güvenceye dayanarak bu formu imzalamanızı rica ediyorum.

Çalışmanın amacını, katılım koşullarını ve çalışma sırasındaki haklarımı anladım. Bu araştırmaya gönüllü bir şekilde katılmayı kabul ediyorum:

Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

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