

WEAR **FAIR**

**For fair fashion:
improving due diligence,
wages and gender equity in the
Turkish garment sector**



**Interviews with
garment workers in Türkiye**

This research was conducted by
Dr aęla Ünlütürk and Dr Serkan Öngel

Fair Wear is an international multi-stakeholder labour rights organisation in the garment and textile sector. With our more than 140 frontrunner member brands, we show that it's possible to make clothes in a way that respects workers' rights through conducting human rights due diligence. We also work with trade unions, NGOs, governments, and industry influencers to create lasting systemic change.

This report is published as part of a project with the Dutch Ministry Rijksdienst voor Ondernemend Nederland (RVO) For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector with Fair Wear and three Fair Wear member brands: King Louie, Kuyichi and Schijvens

The RVO helps entrepreneurs and organisations to invest, develop and expand their businesses and projects, both in the Netherlands and abroad. The RVO supports partnerships between companies and civil society organisations and aims to set up multi-stakeholder projects to identify and stop Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) risks or misconduct in international value chains.

Copyright © 2023 Fair Wear Foundation, All rights reserved.

First published 2023

Citation: Ünlütürk, C and Öngel, S (2023), 'For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector. An analysis of garment factory's and brand's business conduct.'
Fair Wear Foundation

For more information, please visit www.fairwear.org

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	6
ABBREVIATIONS.....	8
SUMMARY	9
1. INTRODUCTION.....	13
1.1 Motivation for the research.....	13
1.2 Overview of the research	16
2. OVERVIEW OF THE TEXTILE AND GARMENT INDUSTRY IN TÜRKIYE	18
2.1. The textile and garment industry in Türkiye at a glance.....	18
2.2. General situation of the garment sector in Istanbul, Izmir and Mersin.....	20
2.3. Working conditions in the garment industry of Türkiye	21
2.4. Wages in the garment industry	24
Garment industry and living wage	24
Gender pay gap.....	26
2.5. National and international actors of the garment production and garment labour	28
2.6. Legal framework concerning working conditions and violence at the workplace	32
The minimum wage is regulated in Article 39 of the Labour Law.....	33
Overtime work is regulated in Article 41 of the Labour Law	33
Maternity leave is regulated in Article 71 of the Labour Law	34
Workers' rights to organise and collective bargaining in Türkiye Law No. 6356 regulates the rights of workers to organise and bargain collectively.....	34
3. GENDER EQUALITY IN TÜRKIYE AND WOMEN IN THE TURKISH	
LABOUR MARKET	35
3.1. Women in the Turkish labour market.....	35
3.2. Women workers in the Turkish garment industry.....	36
3.3. Gender-based violence and harassment in the world of work	37
4. OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STUDY: METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE	
OF GARMENT WORKERS INTERVIEWED	41
4.1. Research methodology	41
4.2. The limitations of the study	43
4.3. Demograph profile and living conditions of the workers	44
Nationality of the workers	44
Household Size of the Workers.....	48
Number of people other than the participant who bring income to the household	49
5. SURVEY FINDINGS ON WORKING CONDITIONS AND THE GENDER-	
BASED DIVISION OF LABOUR.....	53
5.1. Employment status.....	53
5.2. Gender-based division of labour	53
5.3. Reasons for Leaving the Previous Workplace.....	57
5.4. Employment contract	58
5.5. Full time paid/insured total employment.....	60
5.6. Patriarchal attitudes towards women's employment	62

6.	SURVEY FINDINGS ON LIVING WAGES	65
6.1.	Monthly income of the household	66
6.2.	Gender pay gap	70
6.3.	Material deprivation of the workers	70
6.4.	Overtime work	73
6.5.	Issues that workers would like to be changed in the workplace	78
6.6.	Attitudes of the workers towards gender roles	82
7.	WOMEN GARMENT WORKERS' EXPERIENCES OF VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE.....	86
7.1.	Verbal violence and harassment	86
7.2.	Non-verbal violence and harassment	88
7.3.	Physical and sexual violence and harassment	89
7.4.	Reasons for not reporting what happened.....	92
7.5.	Parts of the factory that are unsafe and needs to be made safer	95
7.6.	Transportation to work	96
7.7.	Women workers' experiences of violence and harassment and their suggestions for relevant measures	99
7.8.	Domestic violence experiences of the workers.....	101
8.	ANALYSIS OF THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS.....	104
8.1.	Analysis of The focus group discussions with trade unions' representatives	104
8.2.	Analysis of focus group discussions with representatives of women's organisations	108
9.	CONCLUSION	111
10.	RECOMMENDATIONS	113
	RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING LIVING WAGE.....	113
	Recommendations for Brands	113
	Recommendations for Suppliers	114
	Recommendations for Trade Unions	115
	Recommendations for the Government.....	116
	Recommendations for Fair Wear	116
	RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING GENDER-BASED VIOLATION AND HARASSMENT	117
	Recommendations for Brands	117
	Recommendations for Suppliers	117
	Recommendations for Trade Unions	119
	Recommendations for Government.....	120
	Recommendations for Fair Wear	121
11.	REFERENCES	122
12.	ANNEX.....	126
	Tables	126

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was conducted on behalf of Fair Wear by Dr Çağla Ünlütürk, an expert on gender equality in Türkiye and Dr Serkan Öngel, leading data scientist and living wage expert with support from Dr Jane Pillinger, global expert on gender equality and gender-based violence in the world of work. Dr Çağla Ünlütürk, together with Dr Jane Pillinger, developed the research design and Dr Çağla Ünlütürk directed the research in Türkiye.

Dr Çağla Ünlütürk obtained her undergraduate and graduate degrees from Ankara University, Faculty of Political Sciences, Department of Labour Economics and Industrial Relations. She worked as a research assistant at Ankara University, Department of Women's Studies. Since 2011, she has been a faculty member at Pamukkale University, Department of Labour Economics and Industrial Relations. She works in the disciplines of women and migrant labour, labour process and social policy and has national and international publications in these fields.

Dr Serkan Öngel is a statistician, who, for 20 years, has worked as a senior expert and director in the research and collective bargaining departments of workers and public servants' trade unions and confederations. Öngel has conducted much research and written many research reports, books and articles. He calculates a living wage for a trade union in Türkiye on a monthly basis. He is currently an associate professor at the University of Gaziantep and is also a Collaborating Researcher at the University of Lisbon

Dr Jane Pillinger is a global expert on gender-based violence and has provided research and policy advice to the ILO, UN Women and Fair Wear amongst other international organisations. She has written extensively on the issue. Her most recent books are "Collective Bargaining and Gender Equality" (2020) and "Stopping Gender-based Violence and Harassment at Work" (2022). She is a Senior Fellow at the Open University and former Visiting Professor at the London School of Economics.

Fair Wear is extremely grateful to Dr Çağla Ünlütürk and Dr Serkan Öngel for their work hard work. In addition, Fair Wear would like to thank Selin Başarır, country representative of Fair Wear in Türkiye and to and Dr Pillinger for her support. Many thanks to the team in Türkiye for their support in executing the research, with particular mention of Gamze Yılmaz and Nuran Gülenç for their assistance and guidance throughout the research. Fair Wear is grateful to Deniz Akbulut, Tuba Akhan, Yildiz Koc, Emre Sencanbaz, Hande Tunca and Merve Uluc for conducting the surveys with great dedication and diligence

Special thanks to Fair Wear Gender Specialists, Andrea Spithoff and Gemma Giammattei, Fair Wear Regional Coordinator, Terezia Haselhoff and Fair Wear Living Wage Expert Paul de Beers.

We want to express our gratitude to the brands and suppliers for their participation and collaboration. Lastly, we deeply appreciate the garment workers who answered our questions attentively, despite their difficult working conditions. We hope that this study will contribute to creating a fair and violence-free working environment.

ABBREVIATIONS

BİSAM BİRLEŞİK METAL-İŞ	Class Research Centre
CCC	Clean Clothes Campaign
CEID	CEID Gender Equality Monitoring Association
DERİTEKS	Leather, Weaving and Textile Workers' Union
DİSK	The Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Türkiye
ETI	Ethical Trading Initiative
ETUC	European Trade Union Confederation
EU	European Union
FLA	Fair Labour Association
Fair Wear	Fair Wear Foundation
HAK-İŞ	HAK-IS Trade Unions Confederation
HAVA-İŞ	Turkish Civil Aviation Union
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ITUC	International Trade Unions Confederation
KEDEV	Foundation for the Support of Women's Work
KİH	Women's Human Rights and New Solutions Foundation Association for Combating
KADAV	Women's Solidarity Foundation
KSGM	General Directorate of Women's Status
MoLSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Security
ÖZ. İPLİK-İŞ	Trade Union for Workers in Textile, Weaving, Knitting and Garment Industry
SIDA	The Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SOSYAL-İŞ	Turkish Social Insurance, Education, Office, Trade, Cooperative and Fine Arts Workers' Union
TEK-GIDA-İŞ	Tobacco, Food and Auxiliary Workers Union of Türkiye
TEKSİF	Turkish Textile Knitting, Clothing and Leather Industry Workers' Union
TEKSTİL	Textile Workers' Union
TEZ.KOOP-İŞ	Turkish Trade, Cooperative, Education, Office and Fine Arts Workers Union
TİSK	Turkish Confederation of Employers
TTİS	Turkish Textile Industry Employers Trade Union
TURKSTAT	Turkish Statistical Office
TÜRKONFED	Turkish Entrepreneurship and Business World Confederation
TÜSİAD	Turkish Industry and Business Association
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
WRC	Worker Rights Consortium
TÜRK-İŞ	Turkish Trade Unions Confederation

SUMMARY

Fair Wear Foundation, in partnership with the RVO, developed this research project *For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector* looking the Responsible Business Conduct (RBC) of Fair Wear member brands supplying from Türkiye and their Turkish suppliers, to identify the root causes of human rights risks related to living wages and gender equality, with a focus on violence and harassment in the world of work. The aim of this research project is to analyse these two risk areas and how they are impacted by the brands' business practices in order to develop and implement innovative solutions on a structural basis at the brand level and at factory level. This will create opportunities for other brands to learn and replicate these RBC solutions.

Fair Wear worked together with a research team headed by Dr Çağla Ünlütürk, University of Pamukkale, an expert on gender equality in Türkiye and Dr Serkan Öngel, leading data scientist, with support by Dr Jane Pillinger, global expert on gender equality and gender-based violence in the world of work. They devised a two-part research study:

- 1** For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector: Interviews with garment workers in Türkiye¹
- 2** For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector: An analysis of garment factory's and brand's business conduct

This report covers Part One, Interviews with garment workers in Türkiye, the baseline study amongst Turkish garment worker's for their perceptions on violence and harassment, gender equality and living wages in Türkiye which provides in-depth data on incidences of violence and harassment in garment factories and living wages among female and male workers and the impact of brands' purchasing practices

Field research, carried out between 3 November to 23 December 2022, involved interviews with 306 workers in 18 supplier factories producing for three Fair Wear brands (King Louie, Schijvens and Kuyichi)

¹ Accompanying this report is Part One, Interviews with garment workers in Türkiye, the baseline participatory study amongst Turkish garment worker's for their perceptions on violence and harassment, gender equality and living wages in Türkiye which provides in-depth data on incidences of violence and harassment in garment factories and living wages among female and male workers and the impact of brands' purchasing practices. You can find this report here

in Istanbul, Izmir and Mersin. All interviews took place inside the factories. A questionnaire was drawn up and piloted, consisting of 66 questions.

Demographic composition of the workers interviewed.

While 74 per cent of men interviewed were married, only 57 per cent of the women interviewed were married. These data coincide with the tendency of women in the Turkish labour market to participate in employment while single and to withdraw from employment due to marriage. In addition, as women return to employment after raising their children, the proportion of women is highest in the 35-55 age group. While the rate of divorced/separated/widowed men is only 1.5 per cent, this rate is 15 per cent for women. In the Turkish labour market, divorced/separated/widowed women are employed because they are the sole earners of the household.

Migration background of the participants

Most of the sample had migrated to work in a garment factory, and only one-quarter of the respondents were born in the city where they work.

Gender-based division of labour in the garment industry

The gender-based division of labour in the garment industry is profound, which is also reflected in the results of this research. Women work in production, packaging and quality control jobs, and while men can become machinists for a short period of time, women stay as machinists (sewing helper) for more extended periods of time. Overall, 79.5 per cent of women and 83.6 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for men, while 77.2 per cent of women and 72.1 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for women.

Household income of the participants

One out of every four garment workers live in households where they are a single earner. Overall, 11.4 per cent of female respondents and 42.9 per cent for male respondents are single earners, reflecting the prevalence of the male breadwinner model in Türkiye. The household income of 68 per cent of the workers is below €830,40.² Women's incomes are significantly lower than men's (10.8 per cent women and 18.6 per cent of men have earnings below €415,20). Earnings are below poverty and living wage thresholds. For example, surveys carried out by trade union confederations carried out between June

² This research paper has converted the amount from Turkish lira to Euro. The conversion rate on the date of conversion—28 November 2022—is 1 euros to 51,9 Turkish lira. Due to high inflation and the unstable Euro exchange rate, both the minimum wage and the purchasing power of wages are constantly changing.

and July 2022 determined that the hunger threshold³ was over €311,40 and the poverty threshold was over €1038. As a result, only 7.8 per cent of the total workers think that their current wage is a living wage, while 63.3 per cent of female workers and 66.4 per cent of male workers did not think that their current wages were living wages. Inadequate wages led 7.5 per cent of workers to take on additional work in order to provide for themselves and their families. There is a strong link between low wages and high levels of poverty. In the study, 77,7 per cent of the female workers and 81,4 per cent of the male workers had severe material deprivation. In addition, because approximately two-thirds of the employed women have dependent children, wages were often at the level of the hunger threshold, causing workers and their children to live in extreme poverty.

Overtime work

According to our study, 80.4 per cent of workers work an average of between 9 and 11 hours a day. Long working hours are viewed as being problematic for most workers, with one in four of workers participating in the study stating that shorter working hours were badly needed. As women have a disproportionate burden of care responsibilities, it is not surprising to note that the proportion of women who highly rate the importance of shorter working hours is higher than that of men.

Gender-based discrimination, violence and harassment

Patriarchy, a culture of impunity and unequal power relations prevail in Türkiye. These are significant obstacles to women's employment and result in structural inequalities and women's overwhelming burden of care and domestic responsibilities. Overall, 47,6 per cent of women and 67 per cent of men agree and strongly agree that 'women should not work unless absolutely necessary'. This patriarchal perspective is at the root of discrimination, violence and harassment against women, and constructs the workplace as a place that belongs only to men. Thus, women workers are excluded from work and when they participate in work they are viewed as less valued workers and are often victimised and subjected to gender-based violence and harassment.

Approximately one in five women participating in the survey reported inappropriate behaviour by a colleague, supervisor or manager in the factory. Examples include making sexual remarks; making inappropriate or offensive comments about her or someone else's body, appearance or sexual activities;

³ The cost of a basket of basic food products that a person needs to purchase in order to survive is defined as the "hunger threshold". Those who have an income below the required cost are below the hunger threshold. Unions usually determine this threshold by calculating the minimum monthly food expenditure for a family of 4 people to have a healthy diet. They calculate the Poverty Threshold with the data obtained by allocating this data to household consumption expenditure. While calculating the poverty line, consumption expenditure data calculated by TURKSTAT are taken into consideration.

asking her or her colleague inappropriate questions about other personal issues, e.g., religious beliefs, social actions or political beliefs, or spreading rumours of a sexual nature about her or a colleague at work.

Overall, 16,87 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., made obscene sexual gestures, sounds or stares. While 7,23 per cent of the women said that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., had contact with her/her colleague involving kissing or other sexual touching and had unwanted physical contact with her/ colleague, 3,61 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor or manager sexually assaulted or forced her or a colleague. Overall, in the experiences of one out of every three respondents, the main perpetrators are male colleagues, followed by female colleagues and male supervisors. Based on these findings, this study makes a range of recommendations to provide gender-equity, living wage and decent work for garment workers

Conclusion

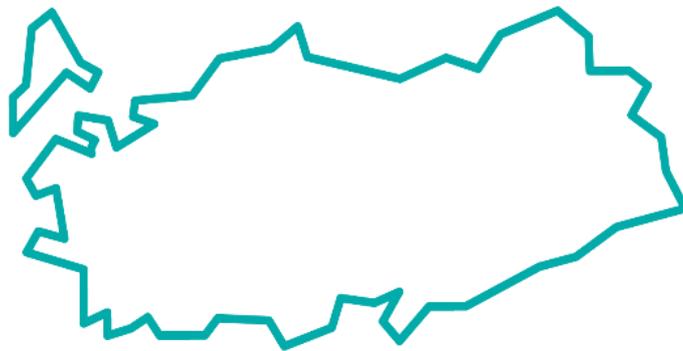
The main findings of this study reveal how the working conditions in the garment sector fail to meet decent work standards. Wages are very low and even lower for women workers. Overall, wages are so far from the living wage level, resulting in 88.2% of garment workers living in material deprivation. Likewise, gender inequality, is prevalent within garment factories. Gender discrimination is firmly entrenched leading to severe gender-based division of labour and a gender-pay gap. The patriarchal judgements widespread in in Türkiye are a root cause of the discrimination, violence and harassment women, which remains a significant issue.

This research serves to provide in-depth data on the gender equality in garment factories, specifically looking at violence and harassment as well as a deeper understanding of living wages among female and male workers, linking this to workplace policies and procedures. Coupled with the research with brands and suppliers, the overall study gives a deeper comprehension of the impact of brands' responsible business conduct in addressing violence and harassment and living wages in garment factors.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

Globally, the garment industry is a 1,36 trillion Euro industry and employs over 60 million people. It is characterised by geographically dispersed production, long and convoluted supply chains and swift, market-driven changes. It is a complex system—a web of interconnected brands, suppliers, agents, trade unions, NGOs, business associations, governments, etc.—with its own structural, political, social, and financial idiosyncrasies. With the scale and location of its production and the need to entry-level, cheap and flexible labour, the garment industry has been positions as a sector for economic empowerment, especially for women. However, in the global garment industry, the share of the wealth and power remains unevenly distributed, with factory workers often working under poor conditions for low wages, with limited recourse to be able to address labour rights violations. The fluid and fragmented nature of the sector means that brands, especially those producing fashion, frequently move suppliers in search of the cheapest products. Consequently, there are many brands that do not carry out sufficient and thorough human rights due diligence on new (or existing) suppliers. In a race to the bottom, suppliers follow suit by cutting wages and cutting corners to try to ensure their products remain cheap enough. This can lead to issues around safety and unauthorised subcontracting, among others.



Türkiye is the eighth biggest exporter of clothing in the world, and its clothing industry is the second biggest industry in the country. The clothing production plays a big role in the country's exports. Fair Wear has been active in Türkiye since 2002. The majority of suppliers are based in the Istanbul region, with the Izmir region as the second most-important region. In Türkiye alone, 204 factories supply Fair Wear members.

Over the two decades that Fair Wear has worked in Türkiye, we have identified several key risk areas in Türkiye by analysing data from various resources, including research, audit findings, analysis of

complaints received through Fair Wear's complaints helpline, and the factory-floor experience of brands sourcing in Türkiye as well as a synthesis of data produced by project partners in Türkiye. The most pressing labour rights violations in the Turkish garment sector are:

- Payment of a living wage
- Excessive overtime
- Low formal labour participation by women
- Brand business practices contributing to a rise in violence and harassment

Gender inequality and gender-based violence and harassment are a significant issue in Türkiye's garment sector. Overall, women comprise 39% of the formal workforce which is the lowest among the OECD countries and has been declining over the last 40 years. Türkiye has a large informal garment sector and women are likely a higher percentage there. The informal garment industry which comes with significant risks, including precarious work, unsafe working conditions and lack of access to remedy. In the Turkish garment sector, women garment workers tend to be employed in positions that are lower status, temporary, precarious and considered unskilled. Moreover, with only eight per cent of women workers unionised, there are few avenues for women workers to pursue changes.

There is a significant gender pay gap in Türkiye, with Türkiye ranking 124 out of 146 countries on the WEF's Global Gender Gap Index 2022, putting it in last place for the Central Asia region after Azerbaijan and Tajikistan. Türkiye also scores among the lowest for unequal economies with regards gender-based wealth gaps. Much of the gender wage gap can be attributed to occupational segregation and the drastically unequal balance of unpaid care work borne by women. The WEF's Global Gender Gap Index found that 73 per cent of the labour hours of Turkish women goes to unpaid care work, while for men, this number is only 18 per cent.

Studies on violence and harassment show that it is still a prevalent issue, with four in ten women are exposed to physical or sexual violence, yet only 10% of them apply to an institution for help. However, violence and harassment in the world of work remains a hidden issue; there is no official data in Türkiye. Several independent studies exist mainly from the health sector (Çelik and Çelik, 2007; Kara and Toygar, 2018), and a few studies have been conducted in the manufacturing industry (Tatlı and Koç, 2017; Dursun and Aytaç, 2011; Pillinger 2022). That said, violence and harassment in the workplace has become increasingly recognised as a problem in Türkiye over the last few years. International organisations such as ILO and the global union IndustriALL have played a major role in this recognition.

However, in Türkiye, where patriarchal norms are rigid, the victim is blamed and it is considered 'shameful' to talk about gender-based violence and harassment, accessing accurate information and data on the issue is challenging.

Wages in Türkiye is also a prevalent and a rising issue. Türkiye has been in a financial crisis since 2018, with the Turkish lira in a downward spiral. Inflation in Türkiye has fluctuated greatly, peaking in October 2022 at 85.51 per cent. Covid-19 hit Türkiye badly and the rising inflation means that, in addition to many people losing their jobs or adjusting to reduced pay, they also faced the rapidly growing costs of their daily necessities. For example, food inflation in Türkiye has risen from 10% in 2020 to 102,6% in 2022. Out of a population of 81 million, approximately 26,4 million people live below the poverty line. The vast majority of workers earn the minimum wage. In some industries, the minimum wage is applied as the maximum wage. However, minimum wage income remains not only below the living wage threshold but also below the hunger threshold.

The garment industry is a particularly low-wage industry and wages are far from being a living wage. Insufficient wages often lead workers to undertake excessive overtime work or take on a second job, which results in additional risks. This also has an effect on gender equality, as women are concentrated in low pay positions and can lead to increased vulnerability to violence and harassment, including violence caused by workplace stress and quid pro quo sexual violence and harassment.

In 2019, Fair Wear held a supplier seminar in Türkiye for brands and suppliers on labour rights and the most pressing risks in garment value chains. The main feedback from the 95 participating Turkish suppliers was a need to address the purchasing practices of the brands. The suppliers emphasised the importance of building long-term, trust-based relationships with the brands that will allow them to implement changes.

Additionally, in 2019, Fair Wear and the AGT hosted a seminar on human rights due diligence in Türkiye which included 70 participants from garment brands. The programme focused on the brands' own responsibility through sustainable purchasing practices. Brands discussed the common challenges they face, such as risks concerning freedom of association, Syrian refugees, wages, and subcontracting.

Recognising that there was a lacuna in understanding of the role of brands and how their responsible business conduct and human rights and due diligence link to wages, and gender inequality, including violence and harassment, Fair Wear developed a research project—'***For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector***'—to provide greater analysis of root

causes of responsible business conduct impacts and human rights risks related to violence and harassment and living wages and formulate concrete actions for the various actors—brands, suppliers, government, Fair Wear and like-minded organisations—on how to prevent and mitigate these risks. The research project is split into two key parts:

- 3** For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector: Interviews with garment workers in Türkiye¹
- 4** For fair fashion: improving due diligence, wages, and gender equity in the Turkish garment sector: An analysis of garment factory's and brand's business conduct

The report is the summary of Part One, the baseline participatory study amongst Turkish garment worker's perceptions on violence and harassment, gender equality and living wages in Türkiye and provides in-depth data on incidences of violence and harassment in garment factories and living wages among female and male workers and the impact of brands' purchasing practices.

Accompanying this report is Part Two, surveys and an analysis of company policies and processes of EU garment brands and Turkish suppliers. You can find this report here: [Addressing wages and gender inequality in the Turkish garment sector](#)

1.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

In the scope of Part One of the project, a survey was conducted in 18 garment factories with 306 workers in Türkiye. This research aimed to reveal workers perceptions of the living and working conditions, wage levels and incidences an to violence and harassment of workers in the garment sector. This report starts with an overview of the textile and garment sector and working conditions in the sector and goes on to present the research methodology, research findings and conclusions and recommendations for Fair Wear, brands and other stakeholders in Türkiye. The research findings provide detailed evidence of working conditions, overtime work, wage levels and poverty of the garment workers, as well as gender-based violence and harassment in the workplace. All data collection, data analysis and reporting processes were carried out through a gender-responsive approach. The report is finalised with some concluding remarks and recommendations.

AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

- To collect relevant data about gender equality and working conditions in Turkish garment industry in order to provide the context for the two main themes: living wages and gender-based violence and harassment.
- To identify the root causes of human rights risks related to violence and harassment and living wages.
- To reveal and analyse the root causes of responsible business conduct impacts and risks related to living wage and gender-based violence and harassment. (Related to this, separate surveys were also conducted with brands and suppliers.)
- To provide in-depth data on the impact of brands' purchasing practices on incidences of violence and harassment in garment factories (benefiting the previous research conducted by Pillinger in Vietnam) and living wages among female and male workers.
- To identify, analyse and test specific policies and actions that garment brands and suppliers can implement to improve their due diligence and responsible business conduct around two focal areas: payment of a living wage and gender equality, with a focus on violence and harassment. By analysing these two risk areas and how the brands' business practices impact them, the project partners can develop and implement innovative solutions on a structural basis at the factory level. This will create opportunities for other brands to learn and replicate these

2. OVERVIEW OF THE TEXTILE AND GARMENT INDUSTRY IN TÜRKIYE

2.1. THE TEXTILE AND GARMENT INDUSTRY IN TÜRKIYE AT A GLANCE

The textile and garment industry in Türkiye has been through some dramatic changes and expansion in the last decade. Dating back to the 1980s, with global restructuring and the manufacturing shift from the North to the South, Türkiye became one of the leading production centres of textile and ready-to-wear brands. Increasing demand from companies in developed countries and the government's adoption of an export-led economic growth model encouraged garment entrepreneurs. As ready-to-wear production shifted from Europe to neighbouring geographies, the sector's manufacturing and employment capacity expanded. With the transition of countries to capitalism, new markets emerged (Dedeoğlu, 2012: 8). The development of the textile industry with government incentives, the existence of cheap labour in the country, the widespread use of fast fashion and innovations made to keep up with this speed have made the apparel sector a key player in Türkiye's exports (Dedeoğlu, 2012: 8). Türkiye became the third-largest garment and apparel exporter in the EU and seventh most significant in the world. In 2022, the share of apparel in Türkiye's industrial exports was 11.9 per cent. Türkiye's top five apparel export destinations are Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, the UK and France (İHKİB, 2023). Informality was institutionalized with the adoption of the export-led growth model in the 1980s primarily by subcontractor workshops. Subcontracting has become the competitive power of large firms in the global market. The scarcity of investments in the manufacturing sector has failed to create sufficient employment, leading the population that had migrated from rural to urban areas to work informally. Those who could not find work in a small number of large factories were forced to work in overtime, uninsured and non-continuous jobs (Gerelioğlu, 2022).

After the Covid-19 pandemic, with the increasing importance of factors such as flexibility, speed and sustainability, criteria other than reaching the lowest-priced product have started to come to the fore in procurement. Supply security concerns have led main buyers to diversify their source countries and purchase goods and services from nearby geographies (nearshoring). The omnichannel⁴ fashion market, which requires production and deliveries to be made within days, pushes companies in the sector to reconsider their supply chains and to restructure their supply chains on the central axis of returning production to main markets (reshoring) or nearshoring or transforming them into a more flexible

⁴ *Omnichannel* refers to the union of the different channels of communication or contact a company has with its customers.

structure with the help of digital technologies. In this context, Türkiye is one of the strong candidates for nearshoring transformation with the advantage of geographic proximity to Europe, the Middle East and Eurasia, with dynamic growth potential. In addition, it meets the new procurement criteria with its fast fashion, infrastructure to respond to minor orders, design and branding capability, quality of production, integrated production with textiles and vital infrastructure in the sub-industry (Arslan Batuk, 2022: 9).

Garment production, which accounts for a large share of total exports, can be found in almost every region and city in Türkiye, led by Istanbul, Denizli, Izmir and Bursa (Fair Wear, 2018; Kaya, 2018).

Table 1: Textile, Garment and Leather Sectors Enterprise Size Distribution and Number of Employees

2019 December	Micro enterprises [1]	%	Small enterprises [2]	%	Medium enterprises [3]	%	Big enterprises [4]	%	Total number of enterprises
Textile	11.921	69,8	3.444	20,2	1.383	8,1	321	1,9	17.069
Ready to Wear	25.842	74,3	6.509	18,7	2.5159	6,2	281	0,8	34.791
Leather Products	5.222	79,8	1.121	17,1	183	2,8	18	0,3	6.544
Manufacturing Industry	216.500	79,1	44.552	16,3	10.644	3,9	1.873	0,7	273.569

In the garment sector, 74.3 per cent of the registered enterprises are micro enterprises (1-9 employees) and 18.7 per cent are small enterprises (10-49 employees). A similar picture is valid for the textile and leather sectors. The dominant position of micro-enterprises and small enterprises in the industry is also the main reason for high informality, makeshift employment conditions, low level of unionisation, and adverse occupational health and safety conditions. In particular, most micro-enterprises are low-value-added, labour-intensive workplaces where the employer is also a labourer and exist by minimising labour costs. This situation leads to the maximum waiver of all kinds of cost items such as social insurance premiums, workers' wages, worker protective health and safety measures, amongst others. Similarly, overtime work is also very high in these enterprises. They primarily function as subcontracting enterprises of larger enterprises producing for domestic and foreign markets. The paternalistic character of relationships in the workplace, traditional relationship networks, such as being born in the same city as the employer and other workers, belonging to the same sect or ethnicity, also pose an obstacle to unionisation.

2.2. GENERAL SITUATION OF THE GARMENT SECTOR IN ISTANBUL, IZMIR AND MERSIN

In this sub-section, the general situation of the sector in Istanbul, Izmir, and Mersin, the three cities where the research was carried out, will be briefly reviewed.

As Türkiye's largest city, Istanbul is both the commercial centre and the largest garment producer in the country. The share of Istanbul in Türkiye's Garment Export is 68 per cent . Türkiye's largest garment manufacturing companies are located in Istanbul. On the other hand, Istanbul is hosting numerous subcontractors who produce for large national and international companies. Looking at the number of textile industry enterprises in Istanbul districts, according to the data of the Istanbul Chamber of Industry, Bağcılar is the district with the highest number of textile industry enterprises in Istanbul, with 611 enterprises. Güngören follows it with 465 enterprises and Esenyurt with 364 enterprises. The socioeconomic backgrounds of these districts where the textile and garment industry is concentrated are very similar (Külek and Çavuş, 2022). Most residents in all three districts are first and second generation internal or external migrants. Those residing in the peripheral settlements of Istanbul also constitute the source of cheap labour in this region (Yakar, 2015: 24).

Izmir's ready-to-wear and apparel sector makes a significant contribution not only to employment but also to economic growth. Izmir carries out 70 per cent of the total production in Türkiye of wedding dresses and suits. Textile sector exports from Izmir comprise 16 per cent of total exports. The total number of manufacturing companies registered to Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Türkiye from the İzmir (TR31) region is 776 (Ministry of Industry and Technology and UNDP, 2021: 22).

There is a concentration on garment production in Mersin, especially in the Mersin Free Zone (Ministry of Industry and Technology and UNDP, 2021: 22). While the production in the free zone is mostly contract manufacturing for international clothing companies, small workshops produce sportswear for the national market. While the workers in the free zone are generally registered, the production in small workshops is mainly informal and based on Syrian migrant labour (Erdoğan, 2021: 2877). The rising garment sector in Mersin has created a critical attraction, especially for women's employment. It has been observed that women registered to İŞKUR in Mersin are primarily employed in the professions of garment worker and shop assistant (İŞKUR, 2022).

In 2008, the publication 'Textile, Ready-to-Wear and Leather Sector Strategic Action Plan' prepared for the textile sector, put onto the agenda incentives for firms that moved to provinces in the east and

southeast. According to some economists, this policy aims to encourage industrial cities to produce high-value-added products, while in other cities, it aspires to concentrate and cluster labour-intensive sectors. While the procedure carried out in the region where incentives are granted leads to losses in wages and social rights on the one hand, on the other hand, it also includes creating an unorganised mass of workers by destroying the tradition of struggle that textile workers have experienced and accumulated in the West (CCC, 2022: 7). With the abovementioned incentives, textile and garment production in the eastern and southeastern provinces increased dramatically. However, on 6 February 2023, many factories were damaged, and many textile and garment workers lost their lives in the earthquake centred in Kahraman Maraş, affecting ten cities. Since Mersin is very close to the towns severely damaged in the earthquake, it received a high level of migration after the earthquake. This intensive migration will likely change the labour force structure of the garment sector in the city.

2.3. WORKING CONDITIONS IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRY OF TÜRKIYE

A low female labour force participation rate, high unemployment, high youth unemployment, high informality and low level of organisation characterise the Turkish labour market. In 2000, 222,000 (45 per cent) of the total 492,000 workers employed in the garment industry were women (Dedeoğlu, 2012:9). After 20 years, total employment in the sector has nearly quadrupled and the ratio of female employment to total garment employment has increased to 51 per cent. However, it is difficult to say that decent working conditions have improved in parallel with these quantitative developments.

Table 2 Overview of the Labour Market in Türkiye

Number of employed people	31,573,000
Employment Rate:	46%
Male Employment Rate	66%
Female Employment Rate	31,3%
Male Unemployment Rate	8,2 %
Female Unemployment Rate	14,4%
Youth Unemployment Rate (15-24)	18,9%
Unionisation Rate	14,42%
Unionisation Rate of Women	3%
Unionisation rate of workers registered in the weaving, garment and leather sector	8.6%

(Source: MoLSS, 2023a and MoLSS 2023b)

With globalisation, the textile and garment industry has rapidly increased employment opportunities in developing economies, especially for women, youth, and immigrants. However, most of this employment is in precarious, low-paid and challenging jobs. As in the rest of the world, a significant proportion of workers in the textile and garment industry in Türkiye are women, although there is a very low rate of female labour force participation rate in the country overall (Kaya, 2020).

The prevalence of informal and precarious working conditions has paved the way for the employment of vulnerable groups in the sector. Textile and garment are the sectors where women, children and migrants are mainly employed (Kümbetoğlu et al., 2012, Kaya, 2020, Ünlütürk Ulutaş and Akbaş, 2018, Lordoğlu and Kurtulmuş, 2020). Unlike other manufacturing sectors, the number of female workers in the garment industry is higher than male workers. According to the 2020 TURKSTAT Household Labour Force Survey Microdata analysis, employment in the apparel sector constitutes approximately 3 per cent of total employment. Women comprise 51 per cent of the 827 966 workers in the garment sector. However, it should be noted that the sample of the surveys does not include child workers and irregular migrant workers. However, informal garment and home textile workshops are the leading workplaces where these workers are mainly employed. Therefore, it is difficult to say that TurkStat data fully reflect the number of people employed in the sector. Therefore, different estimates of the number of workers can be found in different sources. There are also discrepancies between the data on registered employment in the textile and garment sector published by the SSI and the data collected by TurkStat through the household labour force survey in the same year.

Table 3 Number and Rates of Employees in Textile, Clothing and Leather Industries in 2020

Number and Rates of Employees in Textile, Clothing and Leather Industries in 2020 (General)			
Industries	Total number of employees	Number of female employees	Number of male employees
Textile	603.438	225,870	377,569
Garment	827,969	422,425	405,544
Leather	117,788	17,521	100,267
All Sectors	26,812.183	8.306.193	18.505.992

Source: Calculated from TURKSTAT 2020 Household Labour Force Survey Micro Data

According to SSI 2020 data, the garment sector employed 608,587 registered workers, 51.7 per cent of whom were women. By 2023, this number had increased to 712467 and the share of women workers had risen to 53.6 per cent. Thus, there is a trend of feminisation in the sector in general and in formal garment employment in particular.

SSI data shows the average wages reported by employers to the SSI. However, it is also common in Türkiye to be paid above or below the reported wages. According to the 2020 SSI data, average daily earnings in the garment sector were €6,27, slightly above the gross daily minimum wage in effect at the time (€5,09). This data also shows the wage gap between male and female workers. The average wage for men was €6,39, while the average wage for women was €6.07.

Table 4 Number of Insured Employees and Average Wages in Textile, Clothing and Leather Industries in 2020 by Registration Status

(Branch of Activities)	Number of Compulsory Insured Person			Average Daily Earning		
	Insured Male Employees	Insured Female Employees	Total Insured Employees	Male	Female	General Total
Textile	335.742	124.657	460.399	€7,83	€7,01	€7,62
Garment	294.082	314.505	608.587	€6.39	€6.07	€6.27
Leather	50.238	16.547	66.785	€6,29	€5,76	€6,17

Source: SGK (Social Security Institution) 2020 December Statistics⁵

Especially in recent years, the trend of short-term orders in the textile sector has created a new form of employment: daily labour. These day labourers either find daily work through subcontractors or wait for employers to pick them up in the morning at waiting points called ‘worker bazaars’ in neighbourhoods close to the workshops (CCC, 2022:13). Migrant women and child workers are commonly employed as daily workers.

With the articulation of the garment sector to global markets in the 1990s, some unwritten regulations on working conditions dominated the entire industry. In almost all garment workplaces, shift hours and meal and tea breaks are organised similarly. Since the job descriptions of workers in firms and workshops are very similar, many workers move between formal and informal firms. Many owners of small workshops, most of whom are unregistered, have previously worked as textile workers and applied the work patterns of their former workplaces in their new ones. Low wages, poor working conditions, excessive overtime work in garment workplaces reduce the loyalty of workers to the workplace and cause high labour turnover. Workers have an informal network wherein they share information about wages levels and workplace conditions of different garment factories, which leads workers to shift to a better-paid workplace (Yörük, 2009: 46-51). The research conducted by Solum (2022) among textile and garment workers in Istanbul also revealed that there is a high turnover of workers between workplaces in the sector and that workers with working experience in this sector do

⁵ Since the calculations are based on TURKSTAT household labour force survey 2020 micro data, SSI 2020 data is used to allow for comparison.

not have unemployment problems. Still, low wages and the gender-based wage gap are significant problems.

Long working hours and overtime pressure are other problems in the sector. For example, in the research conducted by Erdoğan (2021) in the Mersin garment sector, the interviewees stated that they start working at 07:30 in the morning but that the end time of work varies according to the needs of production. The interviewees working in the free zone stated that they have 'compulsory overtime' three days a week, and on these days, they can work until 03:00 at night, in which case they do not go home but sleep in the workshop. Some interviewees said that depending on demand, Sundays could also be included in the working day. For the interviewees working in small workshops, the working hours were 5 or 6 days a week, 7-8 hours a day. There is a presupposition among the interviewees about the length of working hours that 'this is the necessity of working in the free zone'. The research conducted by Kümbetoğlu, User and Akpınar (2012: 53) in the Istanbul textile and garment industry also reveals that the start time of work in this sector is certain, and the end time is uncertain. Harsh working conditions and long working hours in the garment sector also increase occupational accidents. For example, according to the records of the Social Security Institution in 2020, 2793 male and 3772 female workers working in the production of clothing in 2020 were subjected to occupational accidents (SGK, 2021).

Workplaces in Türkiye provide workers with one meal during their shifts. However, the inadequate and low nutritional value of the meals provided in the workplaces in the garment sector is another problem that many workers complain about (Ünlütürk Ulutaş and Akbaş, 2018; Kümbetoğlu, User and Akpınar, 2012). Some participants of this research, also complained about the food. For example, one worker complained that despite the long working hours, the food they served at work is small and that they serve egg and cheese for lunch to save costs.

2.4. WAGES IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRY

Garment industry and living wage

Especially since the 1990s, the link between poverty and employment has been broken, and labour poverty has increased dramatically. Undoubtedly, the most crucial reason behind this is the decline in real wages. The wages they receive do not protect a significant part of the working class from poverty and do not enable them to meet their basic needs. Although there is no universal definition, the wage that allows workers and their families to meet their basic needs is called the living wage (UN Global Compact, 2023).

The concept of a living wage has been present at each of the critical moments in the history of the International Labor Organisation (ILO) in the many documents in which the Organisation's principles, objectives and priorities have been defined and stated. It was adopted at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 and restored in Philadelphia in 1944. From the beginning, the concept of a living wage has been linked to the concept of minimum wage and is one of the criteria for determining the minimum wage (Reynaud, 2017:1). This principle in the Philadelphia Declaration should guide all ILO member countries in the determination of wages:

'Policies regarding wages and earnings, hours and other conditions of work calculated to ensure a just share of the fruits of progress to all and a minimum living wage to all employed and in need of such protection'.

One of the Fair Wear's fundamental labour standards is payment of a living wage: 'Wages and benefits paid for a standard working week shall meet at least legal or industry minimum standards and always be sufficient to meet basic needs of workers and their families and to provide some discretionary income. Deductions from wages for disciplinary measures shall not be permitted nor shall any deductions from wages not provided for by national law be permitted. Deductions shall never constitute an amount that will lead the employee to receive less than the minimum wage. Employees shall be adequately and clearly informed about the specifications of their wages including wage rates and pay period' (Fair Wear, 2019). The basic needs to consider when calculating the living wage include costs like housing (with basic facilities including electricity), nutrition, clothing, healthcare, education, drinking water, childcare, transport, and savings. Fair Wear's position is that a living wage determination is best made through social dialogue between worker representatives and employees. In addition, Fair Wear has also developed guides for brands, suppliers and trade unions on living wage for conditions where industrial relations are not democratically developed. Fair Wear has also developed a labour minute costing tool, which uses payroll data to calculate how much it would cost each year to raise wages to a living wage. This total annual cost is measured against data about the time (in minutes) required to make each garment in order to calculate a brand's share of higher labour costs per product.

(<https://www.fairwear.org/programmes/lw-tools-and-benchmark>).

In addition to ILO and Fair Wear activities, there are also activities of global initiatives such as Fair Wage, FLA, AFWA, GLWC, ACT, etc. to ensure that workers have access to living wages. Fair Wage is a network that works in partnership with brands to ensure a fair wage, including a living wage (<https://fair-wage.com/>). The Fair Labour Association (FLA) is a voluntary initiative. The FLA's living wage

programme consists of asking its member brands to collect wage data from their suppliers and to publicly disclose their commitment to improve wages. The Asia Floor Wage Alliance (AFWA) is a grassroots initiative that works to make a reform on living wages. The Global Living Wage Coalition (GLWC) uses the Anker methodology⁶ to calculate the living wage. It also facilitates local unions' collective bargaining agreements to help garment workers achieve a decent living wage (Coneybeer and Maguire, 2022).

The ACT initiative was established to find viable solutions for workers to achieve a living wage in a globally competitive environment. It is a collaboration of global brands and IndustriALL. All ACT members are working together to transform the way wages and working conditions are determined in the global garment and textile industry (<https://actonlivingwages.com/who-we-are/faqs>).

Despite the above-mentioned global efforts, the wage levels of garment workers in Türkiye are significantly below the living wage. Many workers do not even receive the legal minimum wage in Türkiye. For instance, the research conducted by CCC (2022:25) with garment workers revealed that the average net wage of workers was €176,25. CCC (2022) calculated the living wage during the research period as €701,35 according to the Fair Wear living wage method. At the time of this calculation, the net minimum wage was €220,75. Similarly, 23.4 per cent of the workers in the research conducted by Kaya (2018) in the garment sector receive below the minimum wage.

Gender pay gap

Another problem regarding wages is the need for equal pay for work of equal value. Male and female workers, migrant and native workers, full-time and part-time workers, formal and informal workers and daily and permanent workers do not receive equal wages even though their work per unit of time is of equal value. According to the results of the research conducted by Erol et al. (2017: 53), in the ranking of the earnings obtained by the sample representing the workers in the informal textile sector in Istanbul, local female workers earn less than local male workers and Syrian male workers earn less than local male workers. The average wage of Syrian female workers is approximately half that of local male workers (Erol et al., 2017: 53). In fact, a Syrian female worker who participated in our research stated that the new workers were paid more than her, and that she was not paid a raise while local workers and Syrian male workers were given a raise.

⁶ For more information concerning Anker methodology see <https://globallivingwage.org/about/anker-methodology/>

Paying women less than men for the same work or work of equal value is persistent form of discrimination in employment. Globally, the gender pay gap is estimated to be at 20 per cent (ILO, 2022). Despite numerous steps taken to combat discrimination, women's gross average hourly wages in the European Union in 2019 were 14.1 per cent lower than men's (Eurostat, 2020) and 15.6 per cent lower in Türkiye (ILO and TurkStat, 2020: 11). Ensuring that work done by women and men are fairly valued and ending pay discrimination is crucial to ensure gender equality and a vital component of decent work. To promote equality and effectively address wage discrimination, the principle of equal pay for work of equal value to women and men, as set out in the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention No. 100, needs to be applied, as women and men often perform different jobs (Oelz et al., 2013).

Another point concerning the gender pay gap is pay transparency. 'Pay transparency is to determine how work is rewarded, valued and/or undervalued' (Pillinger, 2021). The lack of pay transparency makes the gender pay gap invisible and difficult to combat. According to ILO (2022b), pay transparency measures can help address the gender pay gap and reduce gender inequalities in the labour market. - Perceptions of confidence, justice and pay transparency can reduce the likelihood of concerns about sexual harassment in a factory. For example, Haitian workers who do not trust that they will be paid on time are up to 36 per cent more concerned about sexual harassment (Better Work, 2014). Many European countries and non-European countries such as Canada, Chile, Iceland, and the United States have adopted or are in the process of adopting pay transparency legislation. Common practices regarding wage transparency legislation are as follows:

- Allowing employees access to information about wage levels in their workplaces.
- Requiring employers to disclose individual wage information to employees.
- Requiring employers to announce the salary of an advertised position during the interview process or in job advertisements.
- Prohibiting employers from requesting the salary history of an employee or prospective employee.
- Providing equal pay certification to employers if they meet certain requirements relating to gender-neutral pay.
- Compelling businesses of certain sizes (e.g., with 50 or more employees) to publish information on gender and pay within their organisations.
- Conducting regular audits on gender and pay in enterprises with a minimum threshold number of employees.
- Conducting regular wage reviews in enterprises with the participation of workers' representatives.

- Encouraging discussion of equal pay and wage audits during collective bargaining.

Even in the absence of wage transparency legislation, trade unions can use collective bargaining as a tool to close the wage gap. Collective agreements aimed at narrowing the gender pay gap are focussed on recruitment practices and contractual arrangements; company-specific investigations on equal opportunities; wage increases for employees closing the gender pay gap; and gender-neutral job evaluations (Pillinger, Schmidt and Wintour, 2016: 2).

2.5. NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL ACTORS OF THE GARMENT PRODUCTION AND GARMENT LABOUR

There are many actors in working life in the garment sector. In addition to the state, workers' and employers' organisations, international organisations, national and international NGOs, women's organisations and exporters' associations are also among the actors in this field.

One of the main problems in the sector is the low level of unionisation. The unionisation rate in Türkiye is 14.42 per cent (MoLSS, 2023a), while the unionisation rate of formal workers in the weaving, garment and leather sector is 8.6 per cent (MoLSS, 2023b). However, the rate is much lower when many informal workers are included. The garment sector in Türkiye relies heavily on the workshop/subcontracting system, which in turn depends on an expanding informal labour force. Government regulations on the labour market are not severe and millions of people work without social security (Yörük, 2009: 35). According to official data, 1.314.244⁷ people are employed in the textile garment leather sector. However, research shows that the figure is higher if informal workers, especially irregular migrant workers are taken into account. The structure of the sector, the large number of small-scale enterprises, the weakness of control mechanisms and the pressure for cheap production seem to be the main reasons for the increase in informality in the sector. Research also shows that the migrant labour force in the sector is relatively high (CCC, 2022:6).

The number of workers covered by collective agreements is very small due to the low unionisation rate in the sector, high informality, and the labour threshold in the trade union law. Employers are often hostile to unions and use a range of tactics to prevent unionisation, including discrimination, dismissal, blacklisting and even physical violence. In addition, government policies often serve the interests of employers rather than unions. Some interviewees of Erdoğan (2021)'s research in the Mersin garment

⁷ Social Security Institute Statistic October 2022

industry do not even know the meaning of the word union. Many interviewees emphasised the necessity of being unionised, but the fact that employers 'do not look favourably' on unionised workers was mentioned as a reason for avoiding union membership.

The 1 per cent threshold for collective bargaining is a further barrier to collective bargaining for many unions. Unions without collective bargaining and strike power also have limited power in the sector. In 2019, 50 collective labour agreements were signed in the weaving, garment, and leather sector. The signed collective labour agreements cover 204 workplaces and 41,531 workers (CCC, 2022: 10-12). Despite the low unionisation rate in the textile and garment industry, there are a total of 17 labour unions. Employers have also formed organisations and associations in the textile and garment sector (MoLSS, 2023b). While three employers' trade organisations are organised in the garment sector, there are many associations of employers in the industry. However, issues such as working conditions in the sector, corporate social responsibility, violence, and harassment in the workplace, are not on the agenda of garment employers' associations. For the trade unions, wages are the central issue of struggle. In practice, the workplaces where trade unions organise are primarily large workplaces, leading to systems for negotiating better wages and working conditions than the sector. However, there are few organisations waging a struggle against sweatshops, informal workplaces, and informal workers, which constitute a large part of the sector.

In recent years trade unions have put much greater emphasis on negotiations for collective agreements on gender equality issues, including issues such as work-life balance, the gender pay gap and gender-based violence. Feminists in trade unions have helped build a transformative agenda for trade unions, by including articles on gender equality in union statutes and collective bargaining agreements, gender equality training and awareness raising, the formation of women's committees, the publication of women workers' magazines, and bringing women workers' specific problem areas to the union agenda.

Trade union confederations have been active in changing union structures and policies on gender equality. Having a woman as its president, the DISK contributed to awareness and sensitivity about women's participation in decision-making. The majority of DISK's experts are men, but these experts are informed about gender equality issues. One can see gender equality analysis in research, publications and reports of the Confederation. In 2020, with the amendments to the Statute made at the 16th General Assembly of DISK, the DISK Women Representatives Board was established and met for the first time on 25 November 2022 in Istanbul. (<https://disk.org.tr/2022/12/disk-kadin-temsilciler-kurulu-sonuc-bildirgesi>). In addition, the content of centralised women's trainings organised by DISK has expanded to include violence and harassment in the workplace. Likewise, the recent women

workers' seminars organised by Türk-İş addressed the 'ILO Convention No. 190 on Violence and Harassment' and violence and harassment at the workplace. Women's committees were established in unions affiliated to TÜRK-İŞ, such as TEK-GIDA-İŞ and HAVA-İŞ, and in all unions affiliated to HAK-İŞ. In 2016, HAK-İŞ carried out a project to certify women-friendly workplaces and HAK-İŞ/ Öz. İPLİK-İŞ adopted a project on the Prevention of Sexual Harassment and Violence against Women in the Workplace funded by the Norwegian Embassy in Ankara, in 2019. In 2022, a Round Table meeting on 'Prevention of Violence and Harassment at Workplaces' was held with the participation of ILO and IndustriALL representatives (<https://www.oziplikis.org.tr>). In unions operating in labour markets stratified on the basis of gender, the male-centred understanding of the organisations, hierarchical order and delegate election systems, sexist culture, language, norms and within most of the unions persist. The transformation of trade unions and the construction of a gender-based democracy within them seems to depend on the existence and pressure of a strong, independent women's movement externally, in addition to the internal struggles of members, experts and representatives (Akgökçe, 2022).

IndustriALL Women's Committee, at its meeting in Sri Lanka on 7 November 2017, prepared an IndustriALL Pledge Violence and harassment against women: '*Not in Our Workplace, Not in Our Union*',⁸ calling on its member unions to work to prevent violence and harassment that may occur in workplaces and unions. With this commitment, it called on its member unions to work to prevent violence and harassment in workplaces and unions. In Türkiye, IndustriALL member unions signed this commitment. In the garments sector the four unions (TEKSİF, TEKSTİL, ÖZ İPLİK İŞ, DERİ-TEKS) are among the signatories. Signing this commitment has also raised awareness of violence and harassment in the manufacturing industry. However, some unions have publicised it to their members, and conducted awareness raising trainings among their members. Others merely signed the Commitment (Gülenç, 2018). In addition, the ILO Violence and Harassment Convention No. 190 has played a significant role in identifying this problem. 'Sign ILO 190' campaigns of the DİSK Confederation and affiliated trade unions and women's associations such as Kadın İşçi (Women Workers) have had a significant impact on bringing the problem to the public agenda. ÖZ İPLİK İŞ, on the other hand, has taken an important step in bringing all relevant parties together within the framework of the project carried out on the subject. The union also prepared a model policy and collective bargaining Guide on Combating Violence and Harassment at Workplace.⁹

⁸ https://www.industrial-union.org/sites/default/files/uploads/documents/Women/VAW/industrial_pledge_violence_against_women.pdf

⁹ Pillinger/ILO (2023, forthcoming) notes that in 2021 the Turkish confederation HAK-İŞ, with affiliates across the public and private sectors, took an innovative step in agreeing, at the highest level of the confederation, a model policy that adapts the text of C190 to the realities of

Within the scope of the ILO's More and Better Jobs for Women Project, a 'participatory gender audit' of three major trade union confederations and three major trade unions in the garment industry was conducted and the advantages and disadvantages of these organisations on gender equality were reported in 2019.¹⁰ Although these issues are not among the activities of employers' organisations in the garment sector, they may occasionally find a place on the agenda of nationally organised employers' associations, especially TÜSİAD and TÜRKNONFED. In particular, the joint work of these associations with UN Agencies has brought issues such as corporate social responsibility, gender-based violence and women-friendly workplaces to the agenda of the business world in general and large garment enterprises. For example, the Business Against Domestic Violence Project conducted by UNFPA has effectively raised awareness and advanced solutions for the business world on gender-based and domestic violence. The Business for Goals project, carried out by TÜRKNONFED in cooperation with UNDP, enables employers to take steps on gender equality, among other areas of corporate social responsibility. Similarly, 'Social Compliance' booklets have been prepared with the ILO Türkiye Office and the Istanbul Ready-to-Wear and Apparel Exporters' Association (İHKİB). These booklets provide all the essential information necessary to establish a social compliance management system in the textile and apparel sector. International NGOs are the other actors that contribute to making the main problems of working life in the industry visible and making intensive efforts to improve, monitor working conditions and ensure conditions in line with international social policy norms.

As local trade unions have lost power due to neo-liberal global restructuring and its effects on labour markets, global civil society organisations such as the Fair Labour Association (FLA), the Ethical Trade Initiative (ETI), the Clean Clothes Campaign (CCC), in addition to the Fair Wear Foundation (Fair Wear), have gained prominence. At a time when governments have abdicated their regulatory role in favour of corporations, these organisations have emerged on the scene as a kind of global governance actor, monitoring the extent to which the ethical codes adopted by corporations are being implemented while also acting as a mediator between corporations, governments and relevant bodies such as trade unions to improve working conditions (Danış, 2016: 580). Women's organisations are also taking necessary actions to improve the working conditions of women workers, combat gender-based discrimination in the labour market and combat gender-based violence. However, although numerous women's organisations are active in Türkiye on, gender-based violence, violence and harassment in the workplace are on the agenda of very few organisations. Similarly, the number of women's organisations working

collective bargaining. It has helped to raise awareness about what the ratification of C190 would mean in practice and how the framework can be applied in collective bargaining. The confederation is using the model policy as a framework for collective bargaining, which has started in the garment sector and will be extended to other sectors in the 2022.

¹⁰ For more information concerning ILO's Participatory Gender Audit see https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_101030.pdf

on women's labour and employment is also minimal. Examples of these organisations are Women Worker (Kadın İşçi), Foundation for the Support of Women's Work (KEDEV), Flying Broom (Uçan Süpürge), Gender Equality Monitoring Association (CEID), Women's Human Rights and New Solutions Foundation (KİH), Association for Combating Sexual Violence (Cinsel Şiddetle Mücadele Derneği), Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation and Women's Solidarity Foundation (KADAV).

2.6. LEGAL FRAMEWORK CONCERNING WORKING CONDITIONS AND VIOLENCE AT THE WORKPLACE

The most important law regulating the working conditions of textile and garment worker in Türkiye is Labour Law No. 4857. Türkiye is a member of the United Nations (UN),¹¹ the International Labour Organization (ILO)¹² and the Council of Europe (CoE)¹³ and is also bound by UN, ILO and CoE Conventions on workers' social rights, gender equality and violence at work. As a matter of fact, with the regulation, *'International agreements duly put into effect have the force of law. No appeal to the Constitutional Court shall be made concerning these agreements, on the grounds that they are unconstitutional. In the case of a conflict between international agreements, duly put into effect, concerning fundamental rights and freedoms and the laws due to differences in provisions on the same matter, the provisions of international agreements shall prevail'* in Article 90 of the Constitution, these conventions are positioned above the laws in the hierarchy of norms.

According to Constitution of the Republic of Türkiye, Article 10, 'everyone is equal before the law without distinction as to language, race, colour, sex, political opinion, philosophical belief, religion and sect, or any such grounds. Men and women have equal rights. The State has an obligation to ensure that this equality exists in practice'. On 12 September 2010, the principle 'Measures taken for this purpose shall not be interpreted as contrary to the principle of equality' was added to Article 10 of the Constitution. Thus, it is constitutionally regulated that affirmative action is not contrary to the principle of equality.

The prohibition of discrimination is similarly regulated in the Labour Law to the constitution. According to Turkish Labour Law, 4857 Article:5, No discrimination based on language, race, sex, political opinion, philosophical belief, religion and sex or similar reasons is permissible in the employment relationship.

¹¹ For more information concerning International Human Right Treaties ratified by Türkiye see <http://hrlibrary.umn.edu/research/ratification-turkey.html>.

¹² For ILO Conventions ratified by Türkiye see <https://www.ilo.org/ankara/conventions-ratified-by-turkey/lang--en/index.htm>

¹³ For CoE Conventions ratified by Türkiye see <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/by-member-states-of-the-council-of-europe?module=treaties-full-list-signature> and CodePays=TUR and CodeSignatureEnum= and DateStatus= and CodeMatieres=

Article 24 of the Labour Law regulates that in case of verbal, physical or sexual abuse, the employee may terminate the contract with compensation.

The minimum wage is regulated in Article 39 of the Labour Law

With the object of regulating the economic and social conditions of all employees working under an employment contract, either covered or uncovered by this Act, the minimum limits of wages shall be determined every two years at the latest by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security through the Minimum Wage Fixing Board.¹⁴ According to Article 7 of the Minimum Wage Regulation, 'the wage shall be determined every two years at the latest. In determining the wage, the Commission shall consider the country's social and economic situation, the wage earners' subsistence indexes, the subsistence indexes if these indexes are not available, the general situation of the wages actually paid and the living conditions.' The minimum wage has been revised frequently due to the erosion of wages in the face of high inflation in Türkiye and the general elections to be held on 14 May 2023. The current net minimum wage is €441,46.

Overtime work is regulated in Article 41 of the Labour Law

According to Article 41, overtime work may be performed for purposes such as the country's interest, the nature of the operation or the need to increase output. Overtime work is work which, under conditions specified in this Act, exceeds forty-five hours a week. In cases where the principle of balancing is applied in accordance with Article 63, work which exceeds a total of forty-five hours a week shall not be deemed overtime work, provided the average working time of the employee does not exceed the standard weekly working time. The employee's consent shall be required for overtime work. Total overtime work shall not be over two hundred seventy hours a year. Overtime work and its methods shall be indicated in a regulation to be issued.

¹⁴ The Minimum Wage Fixing Board presided over by one of its members to be designated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, shall be composed of the General Director of Labour or his deputy, the General Director of Occupational Health and Safety or his deputy, the chairman of the Economic Statistics Institute of the State Institute for Statistics or his deputy, representative of the Under-Secretariat of Treasury, the head of the relevant department of the State Planning Organisation or his representative, five employees' representatives from different branches of activity selected by the highest-ranking labour organisation representing the majority of employees and five employers' representatives selected by the employer organisation representing the majority of employers. The Minimum Wage Fixing Board meets with at least ten members present. The Board takes its decisions by majority vote. In the event of a tie, the chairman has a casting vote. Decisions of the Board are final. Decisions become effective upon their publication in the Official Gazette.

Maternity leave is regulated in Article 71 of the Labour Law

According to Article 74, female employees must not be engaged in work for a total period of sixteen weeks, eight weeks pre-partum and eight weeks postpartum, in principle. In case of multiple pregnancies, an extra two-week period shall be added to the eight weeks before confinement during which female employees must not work. However, a female employee whose health condition is suitable as approved by a physician's certificate may work at the establishment if she so wishes up until the three weeks before delivery. In this case the time during which she has worked shall be added to the period allowed to her after confinement.

Workers' rights to organise and collective bargaining in Türkiye Law No. 6356 regulates the rights of workers to organise and bargain collectively

According to Article 17 of Law No. 6356 on Trade Unions and Collective Bargaining Agreements, any worker over 15 may freely become a member of a trade union established in the line of work in which he or she or she is employed without seeking permission from anyone. Despite this regulation, there are many obstacles to de facto organisation. Due to these obstacles, violations of the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining in Türkiye have been highlighted numerous times by the ILO in particular paragraphs.

Another significant national legislation related to violence and harassment in the workplace is Law No. 6284, Law to Protect Family and Prevent Violence against Women, which was adopted on 8 March 2012. Although this legal regulation does not directly focus on violence and harassment at the workplace, since forms of violence in the public sphere are covered by the law, violence at the workplace is also covered by this law. The law defines violence as follows: 'The acts which results or will probably result in person's having physical, sexual, psychological and financial sufferings or pain and any physical, sexual, psychological, verbal or economical attitude and behaviour which include the treat, pressure and arbitrary violation of person's freedom as well and conducted in social, public and private space'. According to article 7, if there has been violence or is a risk of it, everybody can report this situation to the official authorities and organs. The public officials who receive the report are obliged to fulfil their duties without any delay and inform the authorities of the other measures needed to be taken. According to Article 8, the cautionary decision is taken either upon a request of the relevant person or law enforcement officers or public prosecutor and no evidence or report proving the violence is required in order to take a cautionary decision. Within the scope of the Law, the local authority may shelter the victim, temporary financial assistance, guidance, and counselling services, and daycare services for her children.

3. GENDER EQUALITY IN TÜRKIYE AND WOMEN IN THE TURKISH LABOUR MARKET

3.1. WOMEN IN THE TURKISH LABOUR MARKET

Türkiye ranks 48th among 191 countries in the UNDP Human Development Report (UNDP, 2022), and 124th among 146 countries in the Global Gender Gap Report 2022 (WEF, 2022: 10). When it comes to economic participation and opportunity, the gender gap widens, and Türkiye falls to 134th place. In particular, the gender gap in labour force participation rates and wages are the most pressing problems (WEF, 2022: 342).

Although the demand for labour has increased in the labour market with the expansion of industry, this demand has generally been met by men. In this process, Türkiye started to diverge from similar economies. Contrary to the trend in the European Union and developing countries, women's labour force participation rates declined as agricultural production contracted. Since the 1950s, many women who migrated from rural to urban areas became housewives (İlkkaracan and İlkkaracan, 1998). A small number of women were employed in formal and informal jobs in the services and industry sectors. Until the 1980s, a significant portion of women working in the manufacturing industry was employed in state-owned enterprises such as ÇAYKUR, TEKEL and SÜMERBANK. Privatisation has led to the disappearance of state-owned factories, which had been places of secure employment for women. With Türkiye's transition from an import-substitution production model to an export-oriented production model since the 1980s, competitive conditions in the global market forced producers to reduce costs, which led to a partial preference for women with lower labour costs.

Nevertheless, women's employment in Türkiye has remained relatively high, as in developing countries such as South Korea, Taiwan, and Indonesia. Toksöz (2015: 161) attributes this to the patriarchal system in Türkiye. Although women's employment in the manufacturing industry has not increased significantly in any period, three sectors deviate from the general trend. There has been a significant increase in the textile, garment and food industries after the 1990s, and these three sectors have driven the growth in the manufacturing industry.

In the 2000s, policies for women's employment started to be formulated with the effect of candidate membership status to the European Union. However, there was no significant leap in women's labour force participation rate or employment rate. Despite 20 years of efforts, women's labour force participation rate remained at 34 per cent, well below the OECD average of 64 per cent. The COVID-19 outbreak that affected the world in 2020 caused many women in Türkiye to leave the labour market, often with devastating effects on women's employment and pay. A study conducted in cooperation with the TÜSİAD, TÜRKONFED and the UN Women (2020) indicated the adverse effects of the pandemic on female employees. According to the research results, the number of women who took leave from their workplaces during the pandemic was higher than men, and the unpaid leave practice was applied more intensively in sectors where female employees were concentrated. Especially during the pandemic, the closure of schools and the curfew imposed on people over 65 years led to the forced withdrawal of women from the labour market in Türkiye. In this country, the burden of care is placed on women. Thus, unlike men, the marital status of women has a striking effect on their employment tendencies. Generally, women are more likely to work when single and to leave paid work when married. There are many studies on this subject. In addition, these studies show that married women with children are less likely to engage in paid work due to the weight of domestic responsibilities. Managers also prefer to hire young and single women. In addition, data on women's employment in Türkiye also shows that women are more likely to work after their children grow up, after their 35s (Dedeoğlu and Şahankaya, 2016: 15-17).

Another manifestation of gender-based discrimination in the Turkish labour market is the deep maternity pay gap. This rate is 29.6 per cent in Türkiye and 14,7 per cent in Russia, 10, 4 per cent in China and 7,7 per cent in Brazil (ILO, SIDA and TURKSTAT, 2020: 8).

3.2. WOMEN WORKERS IN THE TURKISH GARMENT INDUSTRY

Production relations based on exploitation in the garment sector are reinforced through patriarchal gender roles and representations (Arslan, 2019: 138). In both Dedeoğlu's (2012) and Arslan's (2019) field research, employers based their preferences for employing women on widespread gender stereotypes that women are more prone to sewing and embroidery work and are more docile and that male workers are more prone to causing problems. These stereotypes also feed the gender-based division of labour in the workplace. Women work in production, packaging and quality control jobs, which are jobs that require more patience. In garments, while men can become machinists for a short period of time, women stay as a sewing helper for a more extended periods of time. In addition, forepersons or shift supervisors are usually men. Cleaning and washing up are women's jobs, while warehousing and dispatch are men's (Solum, 2022: 195).

According to the results of the research conducted by Kaya (2018: 1512) with textile and apparel workers, the leading job for both men and women is a machinist. More than half of the female workers are machinists, 24 out of 79 are responsible for quality control, and 16 are sewing helpers. On the other hand, men are forepersons, packers, and ironers, which require physical labour. Only 6 of the 23 forepersons interviewed are women. Among textile workers, only 29 out of 79 working for 7 years or more are women. Single women are concentrated in textiles since many women leave their jobs after marriage or childbirth. Problems in the sector regarding the use of maternity and breastfeeding leave may also cause women workers to go their jobs after giving birth. For example, participants in Erdoğan's (2021) research in the garment industry in Mersin stated that they experienced practical problems with using maternity leave. When women workers give birth, they take indefinite leave or quit their jobs. Some interviewees noted that in some workshops, maternity leave is not made available, and women are not allowed to use the fingerprint identification system during these periods.

In addition to the problematic conditions in the textile and garment sector, what is more, striking is the silence of women workers in the face of the injustices they suffer in the workplace. For example, they continue to work without any reaction even though the job description promised them at the beginning of their employment has changed. Thereby, the job descriptions of women workers are often unclear, and they are often employed as super workers who undertake the work of several workers on their own. Especially in small workplaces, cooking, cleaning the workplace, and serving tea and coffee are seen as women's work and are imposed on women workers under the name of assistance (Kümbetoğlu, User and Akpınar, 2012: 49-50). In our research, some women workers also stated that they clean toilets at the workplace.

3.3. GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT IN THE WORLD OF WORK

Surveys have shown significant rates of sexual harassment in the workplace, with 40 to 50 per cent of women in the European Union reporting some form of sexual harassment or unwanted sexual behaviour at work. Smaller surveys in Asia-Pacific countries show that 30 to 40 per cent of women workers report some form of verbal, physical or sexual harassment (ILO, 2011: 27). A few quantitative studies in Türkiye show that harassment in the workplace is also a significant problem in Türkiye. High levels of gender-based violence and harassment, including femicide, are a reflection of gender inequality in Türkiye and is the most important problem that the women's movement has been trying to combat since the 1980s. In a survey of 3600 respondents conducted by Paker and Uysal (2015), 9 per cent of women stated that they had been harassed at work and 5.5 per cent did not answer the question. Another study conducted

in the health sector showed that 37.1 per cent of nurses (Çelik and Çelik, 2007) and approximately 15 per cent of female teachers in the education sector were subjected to sexual harassment (Eğitim-Sen, 2003). In the BİSAM (2022) Field Research 32.1 per cent of the women participants stated that they had been subjected to disturbing behaviour, 25 per cent to verbal and physical violence, 67.7 per cent to time pressure at the workplace and 5.7 per cent to sexual harassment. According to the results of the survey conducted by ÖZ İPLİK-İŞ (2021) 100 per cent of the respondents emphasised that there is violence at the workplace; 100 per cent of the respondents stated that they were both exposed to and witnessed verbal violence at the workplace; 30 per cent of the respondents stated that they were occasionally subjected to physical violence; 55 per cent of the respondents stated that they were subjected to emotional pressure and mobbing from time to time, 70 per cent of them from superiors and 30 per cent from co-workers. When the respondents were asked about sexual harassment, 55 per cent of them stated that none of them was a party to sexual harassment, but they were constantly exposed to it at the workplace. On the other hand, 50 per cent of the women reported that they frequently encountered such behaviour. All of the respondents stated that they were concerned about being subjected to physical, verbal, emotional and sexual violence at the workplace. When women were asked about sexual harassment, it was found that their perception of sexual harassment was extremely low and that they equated harassment with groping and rape. When the verbal and body language dimensions of sexual harassment were explained, they stated that these behaviours are a part of working life.

Since 2010, issues such as gender-based violence, domestic violence and gender equality in the workplace have also been on the agenda of the Turkish business community. However, it is difficult to say that steps have been taken in this regard that is reflected in the entire business world, particularly in small and medium-sized enterprises which predominate in Türkiye. It is usually the large national or global companies operating in Türkiye that put this issue on their agenda. In 2013, the Equality at Work Platform¹⁵ was established under the leadership of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies and Türkiye's major industrial organisations. However, the work of the platform has not been sustained. In 2013, another important initiative was the Business Against Domestic Violence (BADV) Project involved companies in implementing policies tools, methods, and best practices to address the impact of domestic violence in the workplace and reduce domestic violence using businesses' managerial and organisational capabilities. The project, which aims to raise awareness of women's rights in the workplace and improve the working environment of women to make it possible for them to be more active in business, was launched in 2013 with the support of the Dutch Consulate General and UNFPA¹⁶.

¹⁵ For more information concerning the platform, see: https://www.fordotosan.com.tr/documents/Documents/Surd_Raporlari/Iste-Esitlik-Bildirgesi.pdf.

¹⁶ For more information concerning the Project see <https://badv.sabanciuniv.edu/en/about>.

Gender-based violence and harassment is a prominent form of violence and harassment in the world of work, reflecting gender-based discrimination in the workplace. Indeed, the Preamble of ILO Violence and Harassment Convention No. 190 states that: *'Recognizing that gender-based violence and harassment disproportionately affects women and girls and recognising that an inclusive, integrated and gender-sensitive approach that addresses the underlying causes and risk factors, including gender stereotypes, multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination and inequality, is essential to end gender-based power relations, violence and harassment in the world of work'*. Although Türkiye has not yet signed ILO Convention No. 190, it has played an essential role in bringing the issue of violence and harassment in the workplace to the agenda of the government, unions and employers in Türkiye. Importantly, the Convention provides an agreed international definition of violence and harassment in the world of work, while campaigns amongst unions, including DİSK's 'Sign ILO 190' campaign have been essential in putting the issue on the agenda of the trade union community.

Another Convention of historical importance is the 'Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence' (Istanbul Convention), recognises the structural nature of violence against women as gender-based violence and that violence against women is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position compared with men.

On 20 March 2021 Türkiye announced its withdrawal from the Istanbul Convention (which was opened for signature in Istanbul and of which Türkiye was the first country to ratify the Convention in 2011). Since then, the women's movement in Türkiye has mobilized against Türkiye's withdrawal, and despite civil society activism and legal remedies, the withdrawal from the Convention could not be prevented. The convention provides important protection for all forms of gender-based violence, whereby

Violence against women is understood as a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women and shall mean all acts of gender-based violence that result in, likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.'

The purposes of this Convention are to:

'protect women against all forms of violence, and prevent, prosecute and eliminate violence against women and domestic violence; contribute to the elimination of all forms of discrimination

against women and promote substantive equality between women and men, including by empowering women; design a comprehensive framework, policies and measures for the protection of and assistance to all victims of violence against women and domestic violence; promote international co-operation with a view to eliminating violence against women and domestic violence; provide support and assistance to organisations and law enforcement agencies to effectively co-operate in order to adopt an integrated approach to eliminating violence against women and domestic violence.'

4. OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STUDY: METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE OF GARMENT WORKERS INTERVIEWED

4.1. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Box 1. Overview of this study's methodology

- Three Fair Wear member brands participated
- Eighteen suppliers in İstanbul, İzmir and Mersin
- 66 interview questions
- 8 Fair Wear social compliance auditors
- Training for the social compliance auditors on survey techniques, gender equality and gender-based violence and harassment
- 306 garment workers interviewed
- 166 women and 140 men
- One-on-one, face-to-face interviews with workers
- All interviews took place in a safe area inside factories
- All responses entered directly into a tablet
- Two online focus group discussions were held with trade union representatives and women's organisations

A questionnaire for the face-to-face interviews was designed to gain insights from garment workers about their working conditions, working hours, wage levels, poverty levels, and the exposure of women workers to violence and harassment in the workplace. First, pilot research interviews were conducted in one factory on 11 and 12 August 2022. This was to give the research team quick feedback on the interview questions to see if any needed to be adjusted.

Following this review period, the primary research interviews were conducted with 306 workers in 18 supplier factories producing for King Louie, Schijvens and Kuyichi brands in İstanbul, İzmir and Mersin from 3 November to 23 December 2022. All suppliers of all three partner brands were sampled to create the respondent list. The interviews took place inside the factories. Eight Fair Wear social compliance auditors conducted the field research after receiving training on survey techniques, gender equality and

gender-based violence and harassment. The researchers conducted face-to-face interviews with the workers in specially reserved places in the factory where the participants would feel safe. The survey form consisted of 66 questions. Questions related to violence and harassment were only addressed to women workers. The researchers entered the responses via tablets into the survey application. The survey was conducted only with male and female workers in production and did not include administrative staff. The population of our research is the workers working in production in the selected 18 supplier companies. In total, 376 people were selected from the universe of 805 people by systematic sampling technique,¹⁷ and 306 were interviewed.

Our research population was determined as the workers working in production in selected supplier companies. The population size is 805. Considering both time and cost, it was decided to take a sample representing the universe as a basis. In this context, a pilot was made with 53 employees, leading to some amendments to the questionnaire and a decision to continue with the sample. Therefore, 53 people working in this company were excluded from the evaluation to obtain a consistent result. Accordingly, the population size was 752. In the workplaces, 376 people were randomly selected by skipping one person from among these 752 people and 306 were interviewed. Accordingly, the research has a margin of error of 4 per cent in a 95 per cent confidence interval. The sample participation rate is over 80 per cent.

Two online focus group discussions were held with trade unions and women's organisations, to enquire about their activities and recommendations with regard to the living wage and gender-based violence and harassment in the workplace. The representatives of four Trade Unions participated in the first focus group discussion on 14.04.2023. Representatives of five Women's Organisations and one International Organisation participated in the second focus group discussion on 24.05.2023.

Electronic data was transferred to SPSS format, and SPSS was used for data processing. All data was coded, punched, cleaned and validated before being analysed. Frequencies and Crosstabs were used to produce the tables presented in the report on the estimation on the frequency of indicators.

¹⁷ Systematic sampling is a method that is statistically equivalent to simple random sampling. The only difference lies in the manner of selecting the subjects. Sampling units are not done randomly but by shifting the list of subjects and systematically selecting a team at each given interval. Suppose the size N of the reference population is known and the size n (the number of samples to be chosen) of the sample is determined. In that case, the selection interval of the population is defined as one unit every $k = N/n$ unit. The sample is selected starting with a random number between 1 and k . For example, if N (the population) = 2000 units and n (the sample to be chosen) = 500 units, one unit is selected every 4 ($k = 2000/500 = 4$) units, starting from a randomly selected number between 1 and 4. If the first number to be chosen is 3, the selected subjects become the 7th, 11th, 15th, and it continues in this way.

4.2. THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitation of the study is that the study was conducted in only 18 supplier companies of three brands and covered only three cities. Garment production is spread over many cities in Türkiye, and the number of formal firms alone is over 6000. Moreover, data is lacking on the informal sector, and there needs to be more reliable statistical data on the actual number of firms and employees taking account of the high informality in the sector. Therefore, the number of firms could be actually much higher.

In designing research on garment workers perceptions, one option is to reach suppliers through trade unions; however, the level of unionisation in the industry is very low, and unionised workers are the most privileged group in the sector in terms of both wages and working conditions. Therefore, reaching workers through trade unions would have prevented us from seeing the full picture in non-unionised factories. Another way would have been to reach workers outside the factory, at bus stops or in their neighbourhoods on Sundays using the snowball technique. However, this method would have required a much larger number of researchers and a very long research period. Under the constraints of Fair Wear's human resources and project time, it was, therefore, preferred to conduct the research with garment workers who are employed at factories supplying Fair Wear member brands. Moreover, this research study is linked to a research study of Fair Wear member brands, with a specific look at the three brands mentioned in the project, which aims to understand the business conduct of garment and textile brands and how it links to living wages and gender-based violence and harassment. The choice to interview garment workers in Fair Wear supplying factories makes this link all the more stronger.

Another limitation of the study was that the interviews were conducted inside the factory. While the interviewers took all precautions to ensure a safe and anonymous setting for the interviews, it is not possible to discount the possibility that workers felt intimidated by the presences of co-workers, supervisors and management and therefore did not feel they could answer questions or answer honestly. While this is a risk in any research study, due to the pervasive social stigma surrounding gender-based violence and harassment, especially that is sexual in nature, and the patriarchal imbalance ever-present in human society, we can assume that this played a role in the participants responses to the research questions, especially those on gender-based violence and harassment. This is an important aspect to keep in mind. It is a well-established fact that there is significant under-reporting of incidences of sexual violence, and this is probably also the case here.

4.3. DEMOGRAPHY PROFILE AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF THE WORKERS

This section details the profile of the garment workers interviewed for this study based on their demographic profile and living conditions.

Box 2. Summary demographic and work profile of garment workers interviewed.

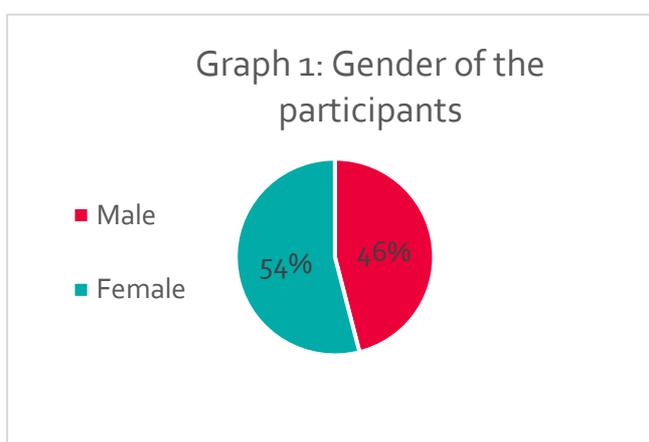
Nationality:	96,7 % Turkish citizens.
Education:	73,5 % achieved at least a secondary school education (up to age 15).
Marital status:	64,7 % were married.
Dependent children:	65,4 % had dependent children.
Migration status:	75,2 % migrated from other cities or countries.
Remittances:	34,6 % send remittances home.
Occupation:	49 % worked as sewing machinists.
Average monthly income:	65,7 % had between €289 and €415 average monthly income from their workplace

Nationality of the workers

Only 10 out of 306 participants are not Turkish citizens; they are mainly Syrians under temporary protection in Türkiye. Although the proportion of migrant workers is high in the garment sector, the majority work in small informal workshops. The factories covered in this research did not fit in that category.

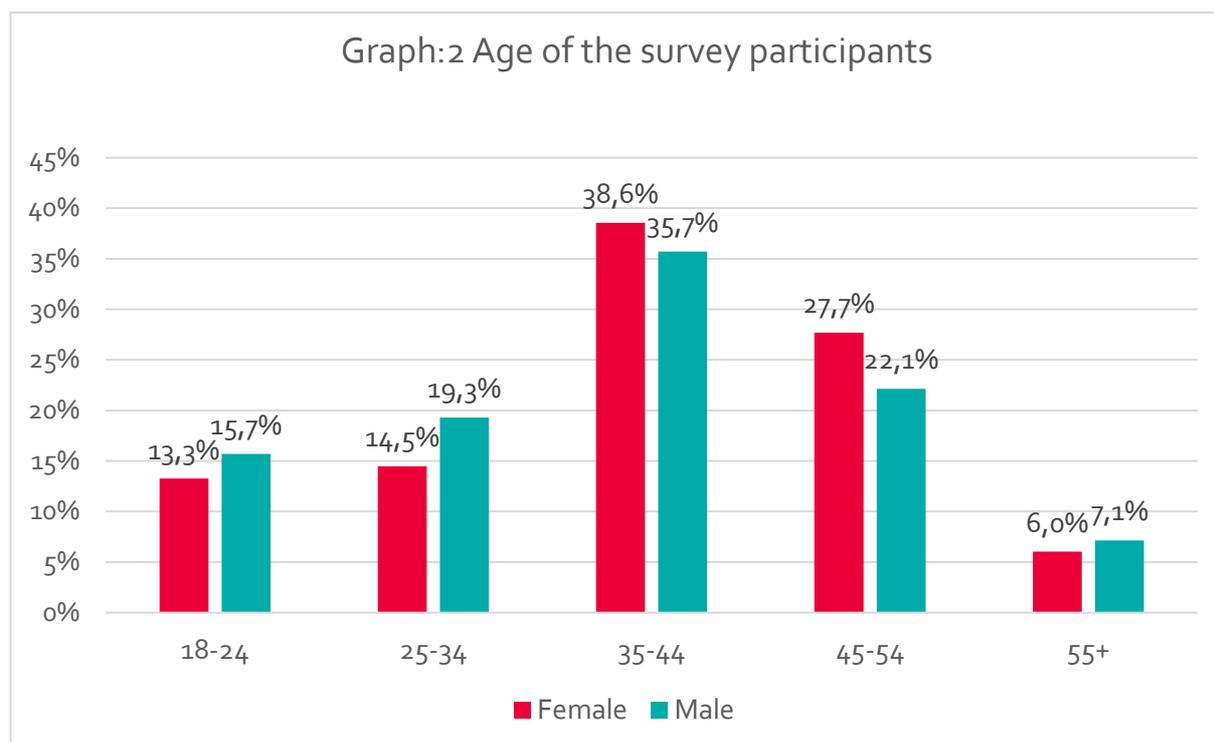
Gender of the survey participants

Of the participants, 54 per cent are female and 46 per cent are male, as illustrated in Graph 1.



Age Profile of the Workers

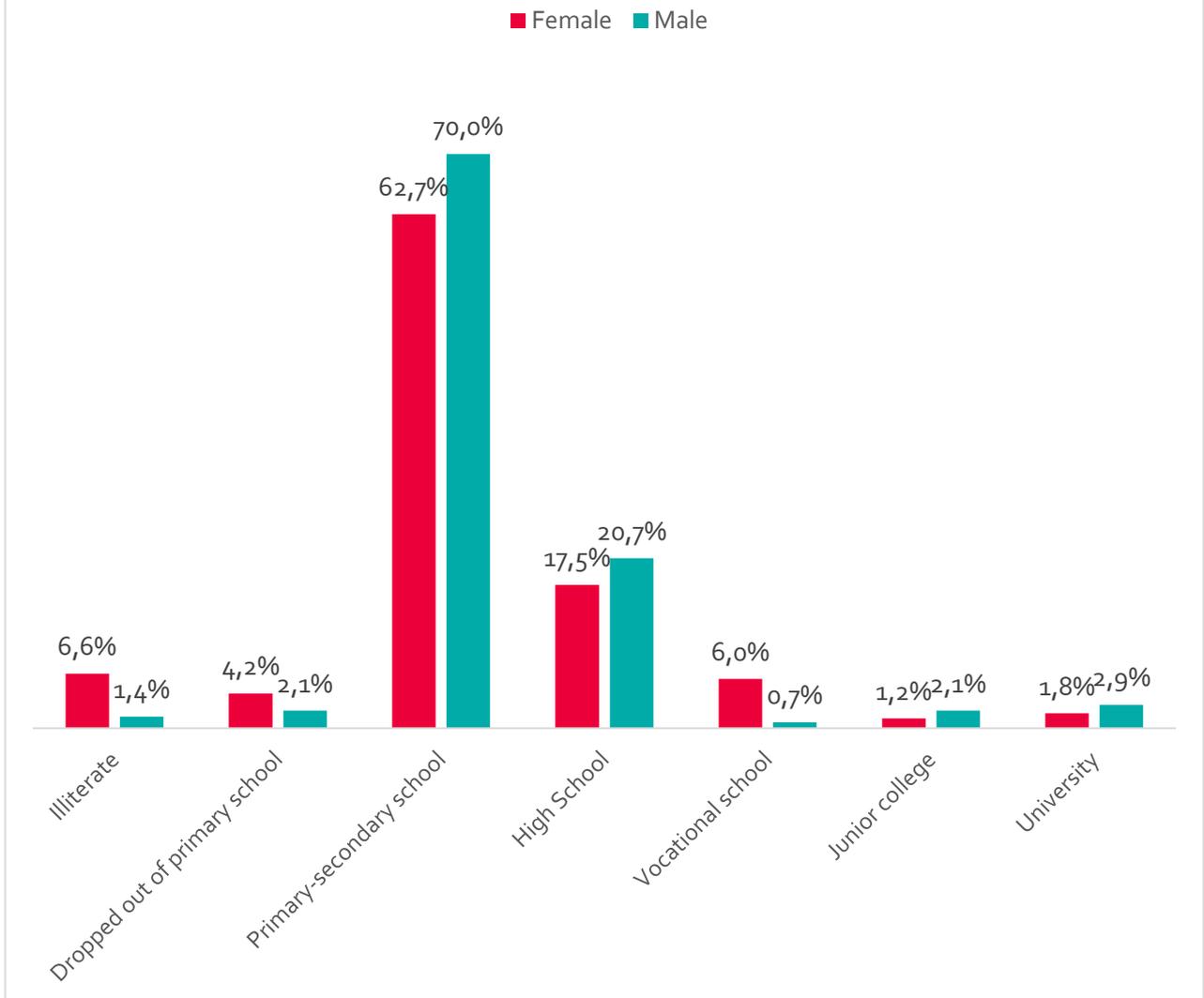
As Graph 2 shows, more than half of both male and female workers are in the 35-54 age group. The higher proportion of men in the 18-34 age group and the higher proportion of women in the 35-54 age group may be related to the tendency of women to return to employment after raising their children. On the other hand, the rate of female employees aged 35-54 is higher than that of male employees. This may be due to the fact that women continue to work in the same workplace due to concerns about finding a job.



Education level of the workers

In relation to the highest level of education achieved, Graph 3 shows that 62,7 per cent of the female participants and 70 per cent of the male participants completed primary or secondary school. There are also 11 (6,6 per cent female and 2 male (1,4 per cent who identified as being. Only 1,8 per cent of the women and 2,2 per cent of the men have university degrees. Overall, the education level of female workers is lower than the education level of male workers, including in graduation from primary school, high school and university.

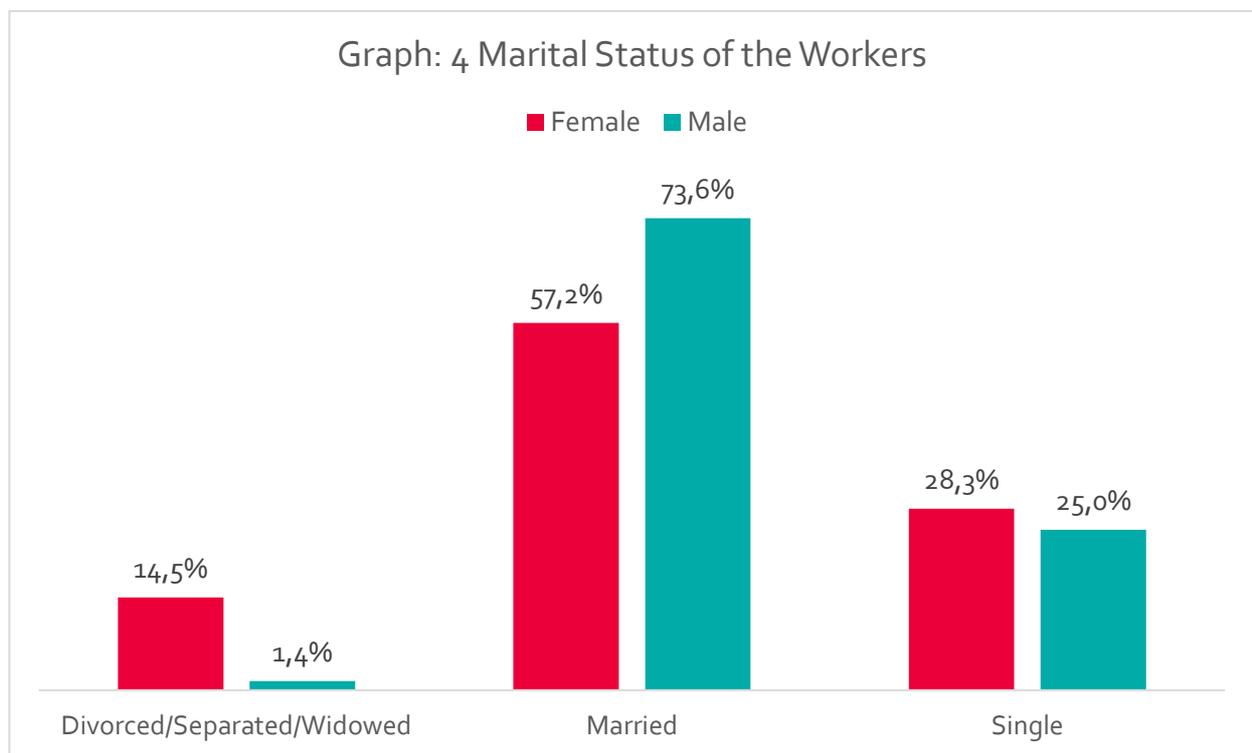
Graph:3 Education Level of the survey participants



Marital Status of the Workers

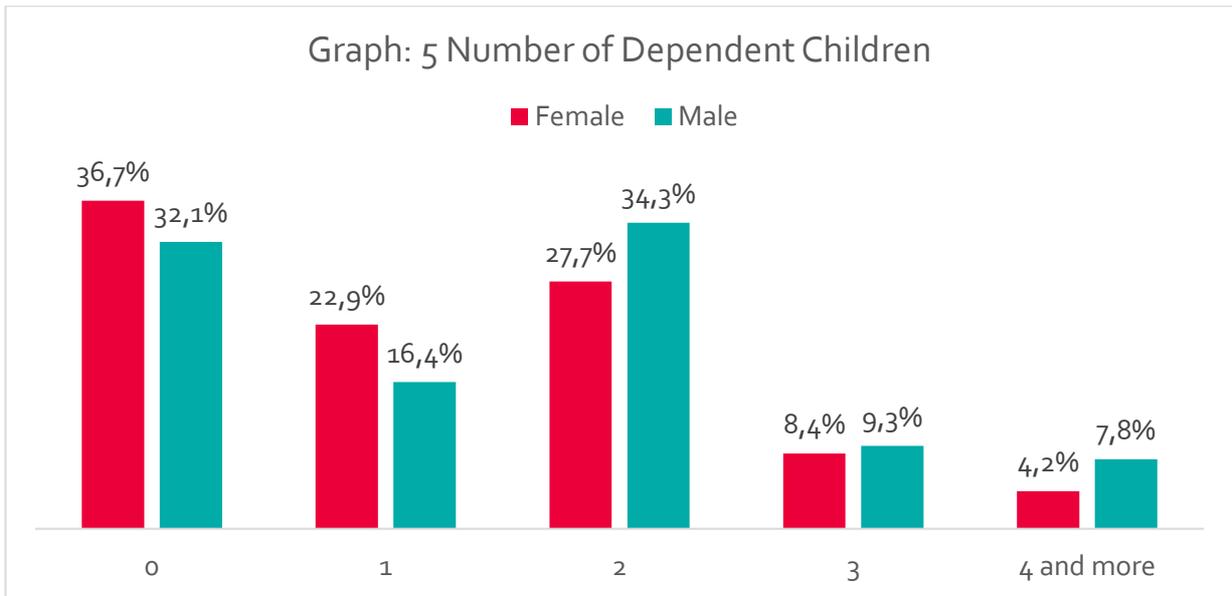
Of the respondents, 57,2 per cent of women workers are married, compared to 73,6 per cent of men, as illustrated in Graph 4. The fact that the rate of divorced and single workers among women workers is strikingly higher than that of men is in line with the relevant literature. Women start working in the garment industry at an early age, and some of them may withdraw from the labour market due to marriage. Divorce enables women to re-enter employment due to economic needs and the need for social protection. On the other hand, the negative perspective towards divorced women in Türkiye leads divorced women workers to hide their marital status.

According to our research, a female participant who separated from her husband 3 years ago did not inform the staff other than the supervisor and HR department that she was separated. Although she did not experience harassment at the workplace, she believes that Mersin Free Zone has a bad reputation for harassment. She stated that hiding the fact that she was divorced was a protective measure she took for herself. Another woman worker said that after divorcing her husband, she encountered many men and women workers who harassed her in her previous workplaces. She was asked for her phone number, followed and several men made unwanted sexual proposals. At her current workplace, she hid the fact that she was divorced from her colleagues for a while. She also emphasized that she paid more attention to her clothing and behaviour after her divorce.



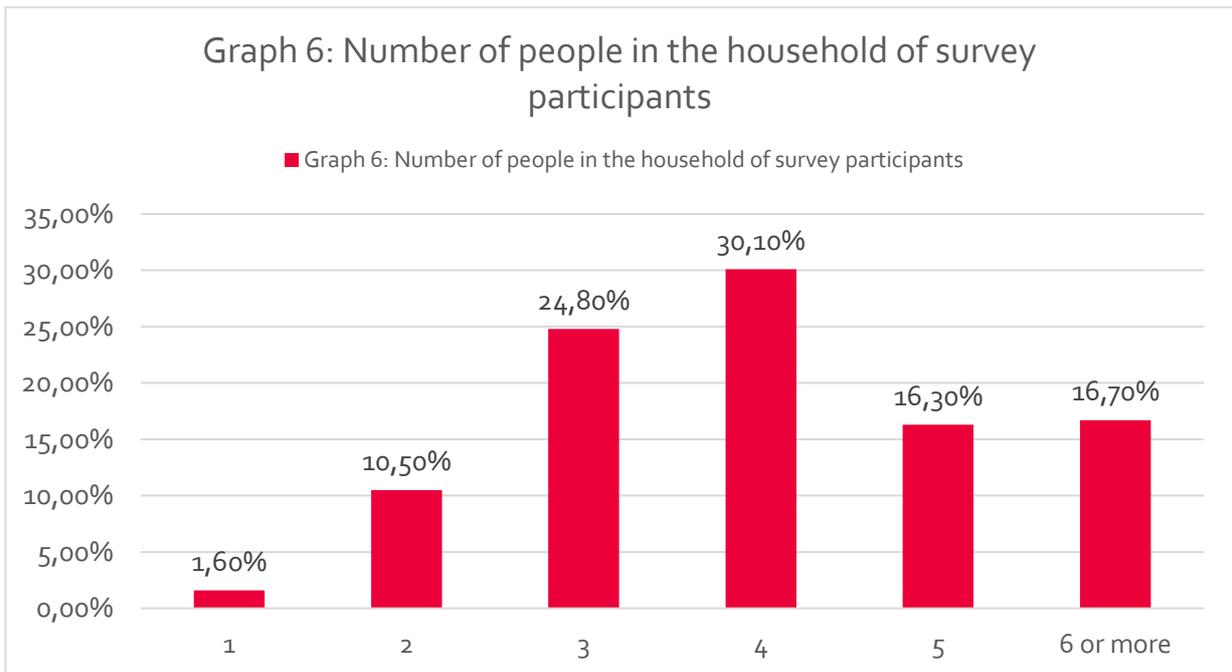
Dependent children of the workers

Of the respondents, 65.4 per cent of workers have one or more dependent children. Of the female respondents, 36.7 per cent do not have any dependent children. The rate of female workers with one child is higher than that of male workers with 22.9 per cent compared to 16,4 percent. The rate of male workers with 2 or more dependent children is higher than that of female workers at 34,3 percent to 27,7 per cent. This is because most of the female workers with a higher number of dependent children are unable to remain in employment due to their care burden. Female employees who do remain in employment are more likely to either have no dependent children or have one dependent child.



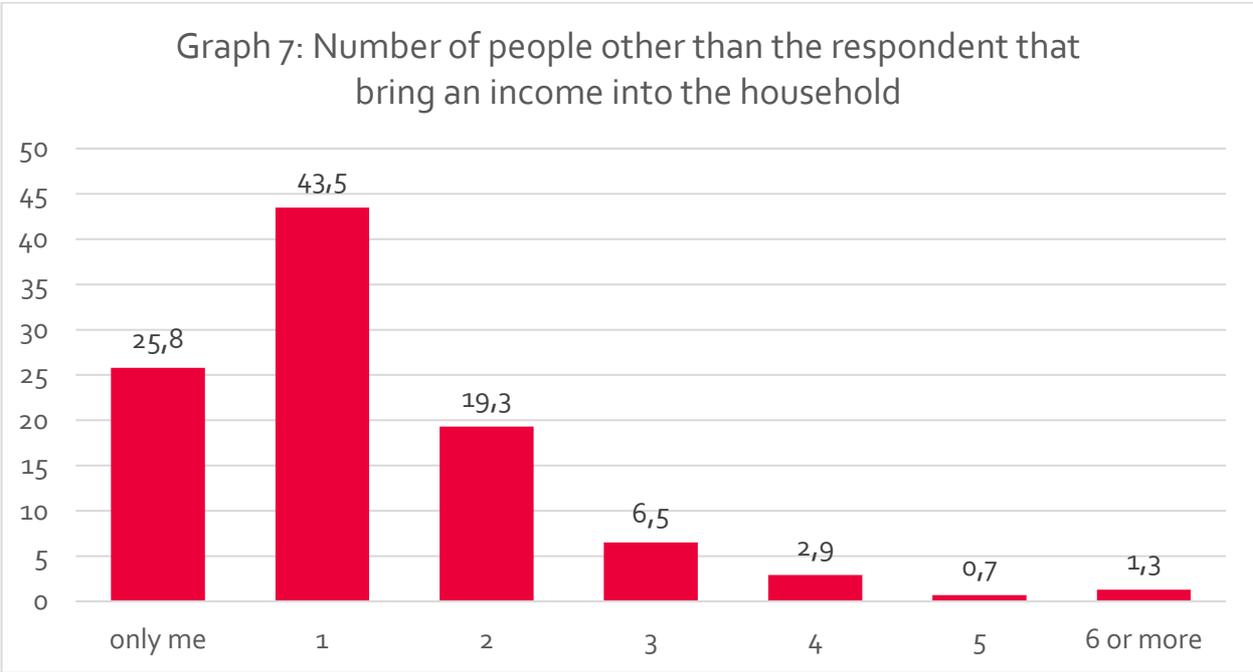
Household Size of the Workers

The majority of the participants live in households of 3 or 4 people.



Number of people other than the participant who bring income to the household

As illustrated in Graph 7 one out of every four households of garment workers are a single-earner household.



While only 11.4 per cent of female respondents are the sole income earner in the household, this rate is 42.9 per cent for male respondents. This is related to the prevalence of the male breadwinner model in Türkiye. While the rate of women who state that there are 1 or 2 people other than themselves who bring income to the household is 73.5 per cent, this rate drops to 50 per cent for men.

Table 5: Number of People other than the participant who bring income to the household

	Number of People other than the participant bring income to the household	Frequency	Percent
Female	1	83	50,0
	2	39	23,5
	3	14	8,4
	4	7	4,2
	5	2	1,2
	More than 5	2	1,2
	Only me	19	11,4
	Total	166	100,0
Male	1	50	35,7
	2	20	14,3
	3	6	4,3
	4	2	1,4
	More than 5	2	1,4
	Only me	60	42,9
	Total	140	100,0

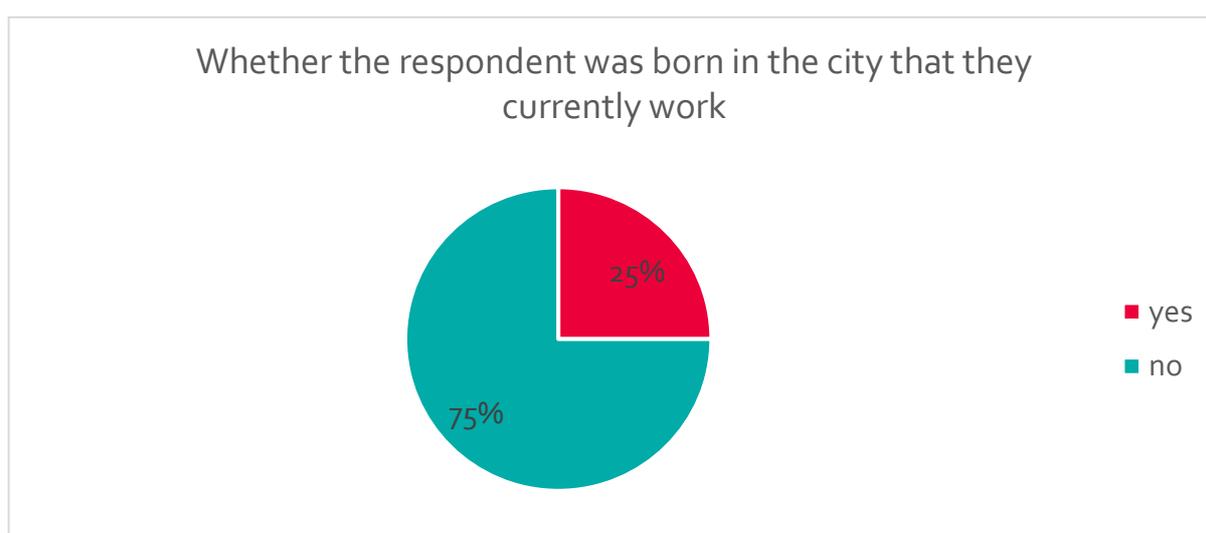
As shown in the Table 5 while the rate of male workers living in rented or owned houses is 80.7 per cent, the rate of female workers is 68.6 per cent. On the other hand, the rate of female workers living in parents' or close relatives' houses is higher than that of male workers (18.6 per cent with 30.1 per cent).

Table 6: Accommodation Status of the Workers

	Accommodation status of the survey participants	Frequency	Percent
Female	I live in a private rented accommodation	54	32,5
	I live in an employer-provided lodging with low rent fee	2	1,2
	I live in my own house or my partner’s house	60	36,1
	I live in the house of my parents or close relative for free	50	30,1
	Total	166	100,0
Male	I live in a private rented accommodation	58	41,4
	I live in my own house or my partner’s house	55	39,3
	I live in the house of my parents or close relative for free	26	18,6
	Other	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

Migration status

As illustrated in Graph 8,75 per cent per cent of the survey participants are migrated from another city or country. This is important as migrant workers are more likely to face vulnerabilities to exploitation and gender-based violence and harassment and may be less prepared to complain about low wages or gender-based violence and harassment.



The predominant part of the participants is composed of those who migrated from Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia. Sivas, Ordu, Malatya, Mardin and Diyarbakır are the first 5 cities of origin of the workers.

Graph 9: Province of birth of internal migrant workers

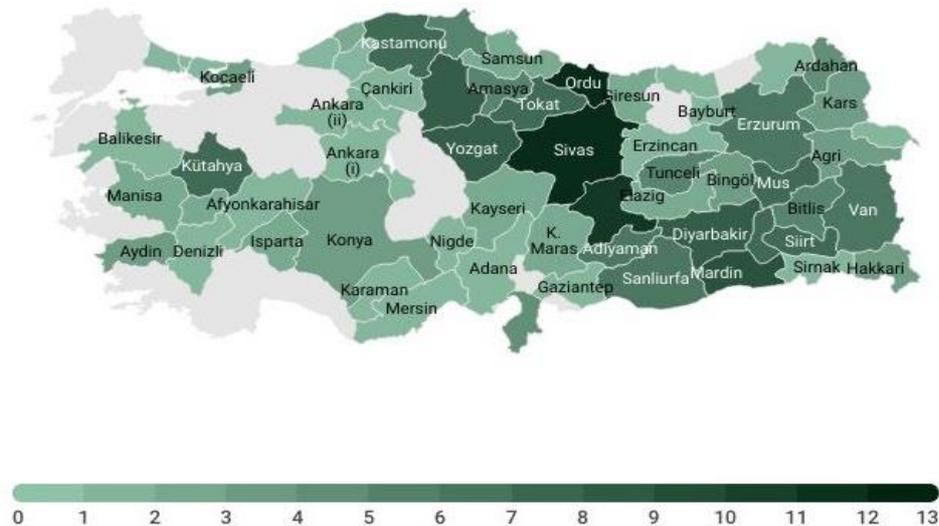


Table 7 shows that 34.6 per cent of the workers send money home. There is no significant difference in the proportion of women and men who send money home. However, the proportion of women (16,3 per cent) who send money monthly is higher than men (12,9 per cent).

Table 7: Distribution of sample size by remittances

	Do you remit/send money home to support family members?	Frequency	Percent
Female	No	109	65,7
	Yes, weekly	6	3,6
	Yes, monthly	27	16,3
	Yes, once every few months	17	10,2
	Yes, once a year	7	4,2
	Total	166	100,0
Male	No	91	65,0
	Yes, weekly	3	2,1
	Yes, monthly	18	12,9
	Yes, once every few months	19	13,6
	Yes, once a year	9	6,4
	Total	140	100,0

5. SURVEY FINDINGS ON WORKING CONDITIONS AND THE GENDER-BASED DIVISION OF LABOUR

5.1. EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Half of the workers have been working for their current employer for 2 to 10 years. While 37.9 per cent of men have 5 or more years of seniority, this rate is 33.1 per cent for women. This may be due to women leaving or being dismissed from their jobs due to marriage and/ or children.

5.2. GENDER-BASED DIVISION OF LABOUR

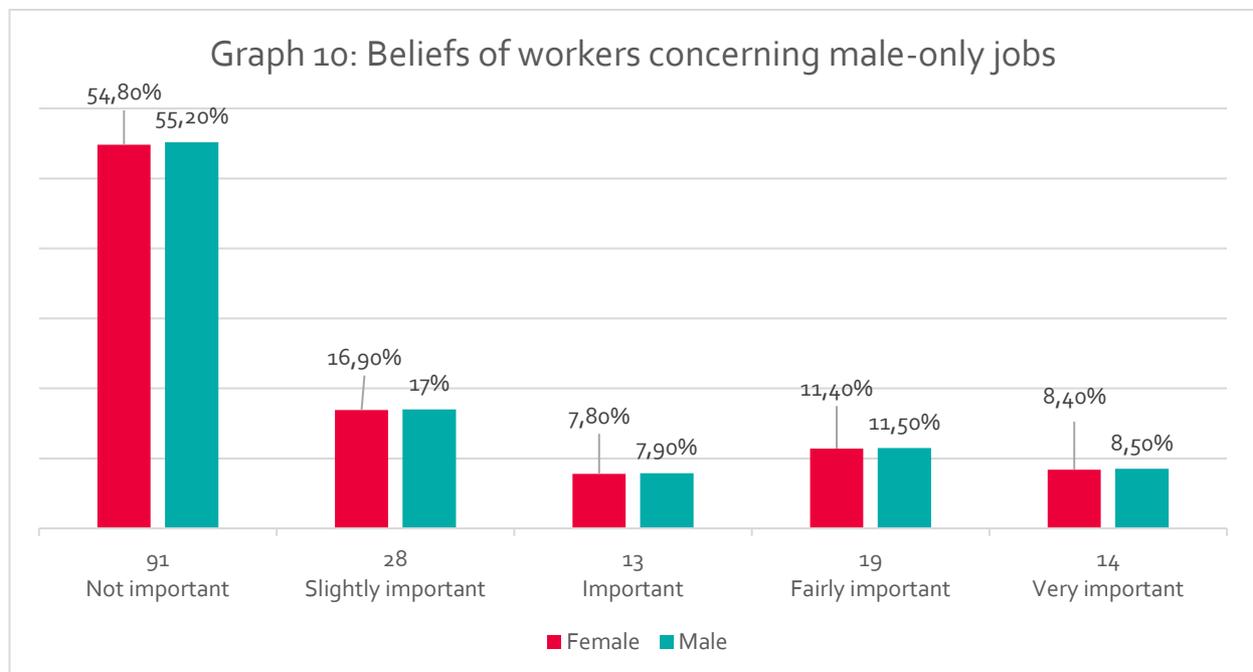
The gender-based division of labour in the garment industry is very deep. The results of the research also reflect this division of labour as seen in the table 7. Higher per cent of women work in the unskilled jobs such as sewing helper, packing and quality control while there are higher per cent of male workers in the more skilled jobs such as cutting and pressing. While 10.7 per cent of men work in cutting, only 1.8 per cent of women work in cutting. While 8.4 per cent of women work in packing, 4.3 per cent of men work in packing. For sewing helps, , 6.4 per cent of men work in this job compared to 10.8 per cent of women. Looking at the list of jobs performed, there is more diversity for men.

Table 8: Gender-based division of labour

	What is your current main job?	Frequency	Percent
Female	Cutting	3	1,8
	Embroidery	1	0,6
	Other (specify)	1	0,6
	Packing	14	8,4
	Pressing	5	3,0
	Quality control	36	21,7
	Sewing helper	18	10,8
	Sewing machinist	85	51,2
	Cook/kitchen worker	3	1,8
	Total	166	100,0

Male			
	Cutting	15	10,7
	Embroidery	1	0,7
	Knitting	1	0,7
	Other (specify)	5	3,6
	Packing	6	4,3
	Pressing	27	19,3
	Quality control	4	2,9
	Sewing helper	9	6,4
	Sewing machinist	65	46,4
	Weaving	2	1,4
	Cook/kitchen worker	1	0,7
	Warehouse keeper	2	1,4
	Buttonhole	2	1,4
	Total	140	100,0

As illustrated in graph 10, 79.5 per cent of women and 83.6 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for men. Graph 10 shows that 77.2 per cent of women and 72.1 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for women.



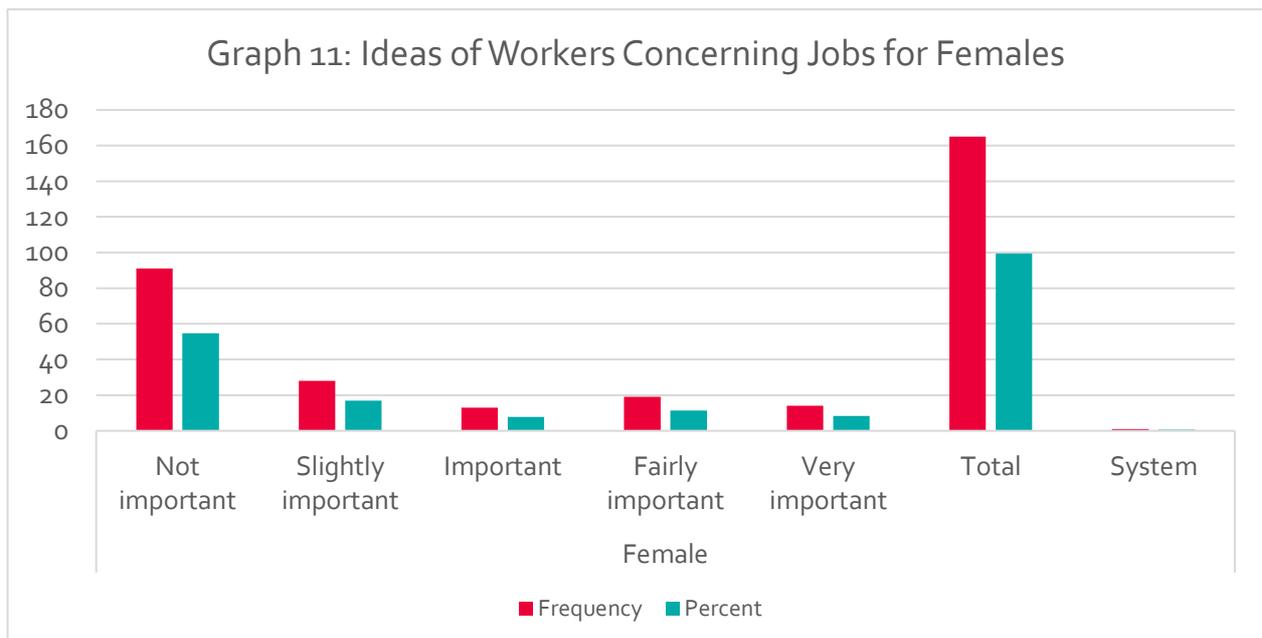
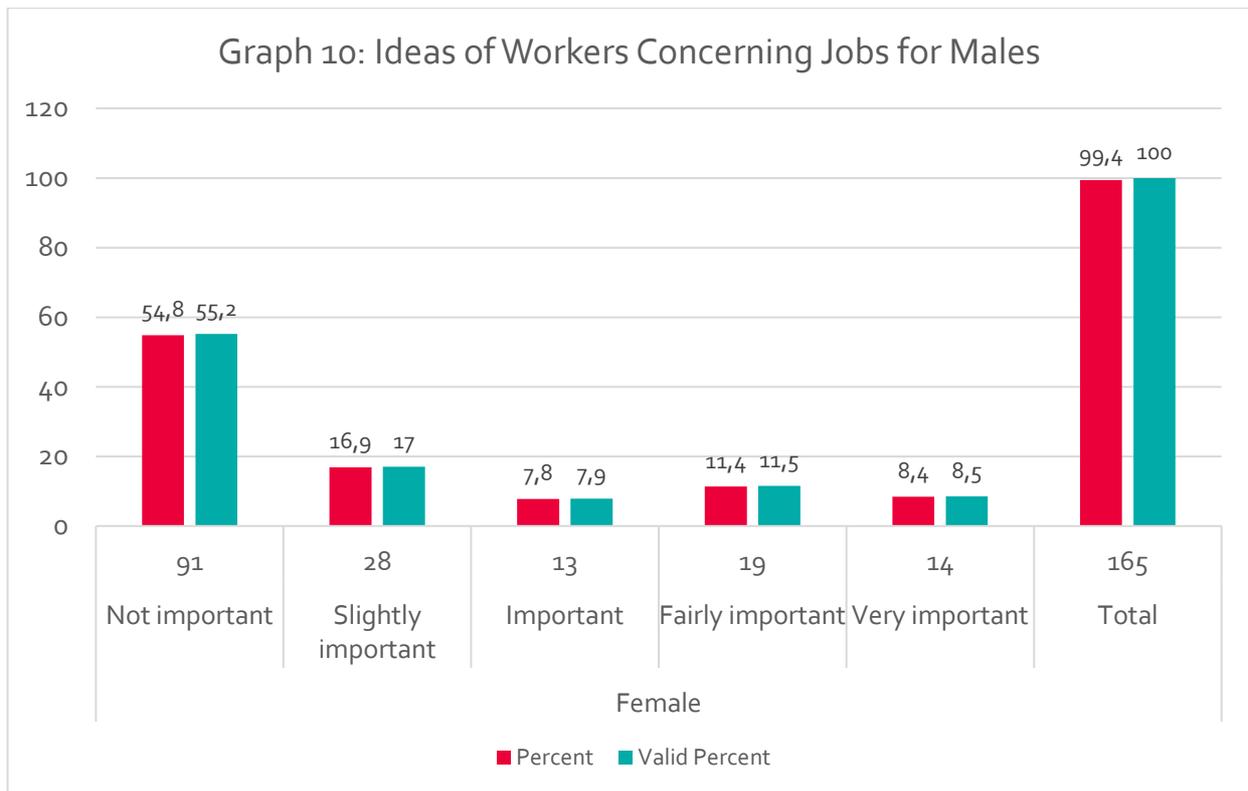


Table 9 shows the responses from the male and female interviewees about jobs that they perceive to be only for men and Table 10 shows the responses from the male and female interviewees about jobs that they perceive to be only for women. The participants stated that cutting, loading, warehouse, ironing and driving jobs are mostly men's jobs, while yarn cleaning and quality control jobs are mostly women's jobs.

Tableg: Jobs that are only for men

	Women's response	Men's response
Cutting	52,4%	46,4%
Loading	48,8%	57,1%
Warehouse worker	36,7%	40,0%
Ironing	53,0%	48,6%
Supervisor	18,1%	15,0%
Driver	23,5%	19,3%
Maintenance	6,0%	3,6%
Packing	0,6%	0,7%
Forklift operator	1,2%	2,1%
Forming	2,4%	2,1%
Production Manager	3,0%	4,3%
Sewing	1,8%	4,3%
Machine operator	4,8%	3,6%
Electrical technician	1,8%	0,7%

Table 10: jobs that are only for women

	Women's response	Men's response
Thread cleaning	64,5%	57,1%
Quality control	50,6%	40,0%
Packing	33,1%	28,6%
Inline inspection	9,6%	6,4%
Final Inspection	8,9%	7,9%
Sewing	7,8%	4,3%
Cooking and cleaning	4,2%	7,9%
Toe Closing	3,0%	2,1%
Ironing	2,4%	0,0%
Cutting	0,6%	0,0%
Machine Operator	0,6%	0,7%
Supervisor	0,6%	0,7%
Production Manager	0,6%	0,7%
Driver	0,6%	0,0%

5.3. REASONS FOR LEAVING THE PREVIOUS WORKPLACE

As shown in Table 11 for both women and men, the closure of the previous workplace is the main reason for leaving the previous workplace. This is followed by poor wages and working without insurance. On the other hand, 4.2 per cent of women left due to marriage, 3.6 per cent due to maternity leave, 3 per cent due to care problems and 0.6 per cent due to sexual harassment. As discussed in Chapter 6, in cases of sexual harassment, women workers are unable to use complaint mechanisms effectively. This leads some victims of harassment to leave their jobs. The reasons mentioned are not valid for men. Unlike women, 1.4 per cent of men quit their jobs due to discrimination.

Table 11 Reasons for Leaving the Previous Employer

	Reason for leaving your previous employer	Frequency	Percent
Female	Bad safety and health conditions in the factory	4	2,4
	Be Retired	1	0,6
	First Job	17	10,2
	For trade union reasons	2	1,2
	Had a child / elderly / disabled care problem	5	3,0
	The company is closed	29	17,5
	I was fired	11	6,6
	Irregular wage payment	10	6,0
	Left after maternity leave	6	3,6
	Left because of marriage	7	4,2
	Long working hours/ working hours without notice	11	6,6
	Moved or workplace was away	5	3,0
	Other	8	4,8
	Pay was bad	18	10,8
	Physical or Sexual Harassment	1	0,6
	Poor working conditions made me sick or worsened my current health condition	8	4,8
	Shift work/ Night work	1	0,6
	Working without insurance	18	10,8
	Mobbing	4	2,4
	Total	166	100,0

Male	Bad safety and health conditions in the factory	8	5,7
	Be Retired	3	2,1
	First Job	7	5,0
	For trade union reasons	2	1,4
	The company closed	17	12,1
	I was fired	11	7,9
	Irregular wage payment	16	11,4
	Left due to military service	6	4,3
	Long working hours/ working hours without notice	12	8,6
	Moved or workplace was away	10	7,1
	Other (specify)	3	2,1
	Pay was bad	15	10,7
	Poor working conditions made me sick or worsened my current health condition	5	3,6
	Shift work/ Night work	1	0,7
	Working without insurance	13	9,3
	Mobbing	6	4,3
	Discrimination	2	1,4
	Education	3	2,1
	Total	140	100,0

5.4. EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT

According to Turkish Labour Law 4857 Article 8 Written form is required for employment contracts with a fixed duration of one year or more. In cases where there is no written contract, the employer is obliged to provide the employee with a written document within two months showing the general and special working conditions, daily or weekly working hours, basic wage and wage supplements, if any, wage payment period, the duration of the contract, if the duration is fixed and the provisions that the parties must comply with in case of termination. However, in many workplaces, contracts are not made in written form and if they are made in written form, a copy of the contract or any other document including the working conditions is rarely given to the worker. Like the general situation in this study, only 34,9 per cent of female workers and 43,6 per cent of male workers have written contracts. In the CCC (2022) survey of 52 female and 86 male garment workers in Istanbul and Izmir, only 3 per cent of workers said they had employment contracts.

Table 12 Contract of Employment

	Do you have a contract of employment	Frequency	Percent
Female	I don't remember	52	31,3
	Yes, I made a written contract	58	34,9
	Yes, we discussed the terms orally	56	33,7
	Total	166	100,0
Male	I don't remember	35	25,0
	Yes, I made a written contract	61	43,6
	Yes, we discussed the terms orally	44	31,4
	Total	140	100,0

Table 13 shows that 25.7 per cent of men and 19,3 per cent of women have indefinite-term employment contracts.

Table 13 Type of employment contract

	Type of employment contract	Frequency	Percent
Female	No contract	108	65,1
	Do not know	19	11,4
	Do not remember	6	3,6
	Full-time employment contract	1	0,6
	Indefinite (open-ended) employment contract	32	19,3
	Total	166	100,0
Male	No	79	56,4
	Do not know	14	10,0
	Do not remember	7	5,0
	Fixed term employment contract	3	2,1
	Indefinite (open-ended) employment contract	36	25,7
	Part-time contract	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

5.5. FULL TIME PAID/INSURED TOTAL EMPLOYMENT

In Türkiye, women’s participation in informal employment is at higher levels than men. Women also remain in full-time employment for shorter periods than men. As displayed in Table 14, 27.1 per cent of the men participating in this survey have been in full-time paid/insured total employed for more than 20 years, while this rate is only 9 per cent for women. While the rate of female workers with more than 10 years of insurance is 36.1 per cent, this rate is 59.9 per cent for men. Although the average age of women is higher than that of men, their social insurance contributions have a lower duration. This is likely related to the tendency of women whose husbands are insured to accept uninsured work and the shorter duration of employment due to marriage and children. The Bismarckian social insurance model¹⁸ in Türkiye is built on ‘male breadwinner and his dependents.’

In many households, there is a structure where men have a social insurance and women work without social insurance.

Table 14: Proportion of Full time paid/insured total employment

	Full time paid/insured total employment	Frequency	Percent
Female	less than 1 year	13	7,8
	1-5 years	43	25,9
	5-10 years	50	30,1
	10-15 years	26	15,7
	15-20 years	19	11,4
	20 years and above	15	9,0
	Total	166	100,0

¹⁸ In the field of social security, the model that is applied all over the world today is the social insurance model, also known as the Bismarck Model. This model is based on the principle of sharing health (sickness) risks between workers and employers. Its main goal is to protect workers through an insurance approach based on premiums. The costs are partially borne by the employees and partially by the employers. In this model, the right to social security is, as a rule, based on the criterion of employment. Coverage of the social security system depends on their dependent or independent labour status. The government takes on a regulatory function and sometimes contributes to the financing by providing support to those who cannot afford to pay their premiums.

Male	less than 1 year	4	2,9
	1-5 years	31	22,1
	5-10 years	21	15,0
	10-15 years	30	21,4
	15-20 years	16	11,4
	20 years and above	38	27,1
	Total	140	100,0

As displayed in Table 15, while the proportion of men employed full-time/ unregistered is higher than that of women, the proportion of women employed part-time or home-based/ unregistered is higher. This situation is related to the higher proportion of women among part-time and home-based workers in Türkiye as in the rest of the world.

Table 15: Full time paid/uninsured total employment

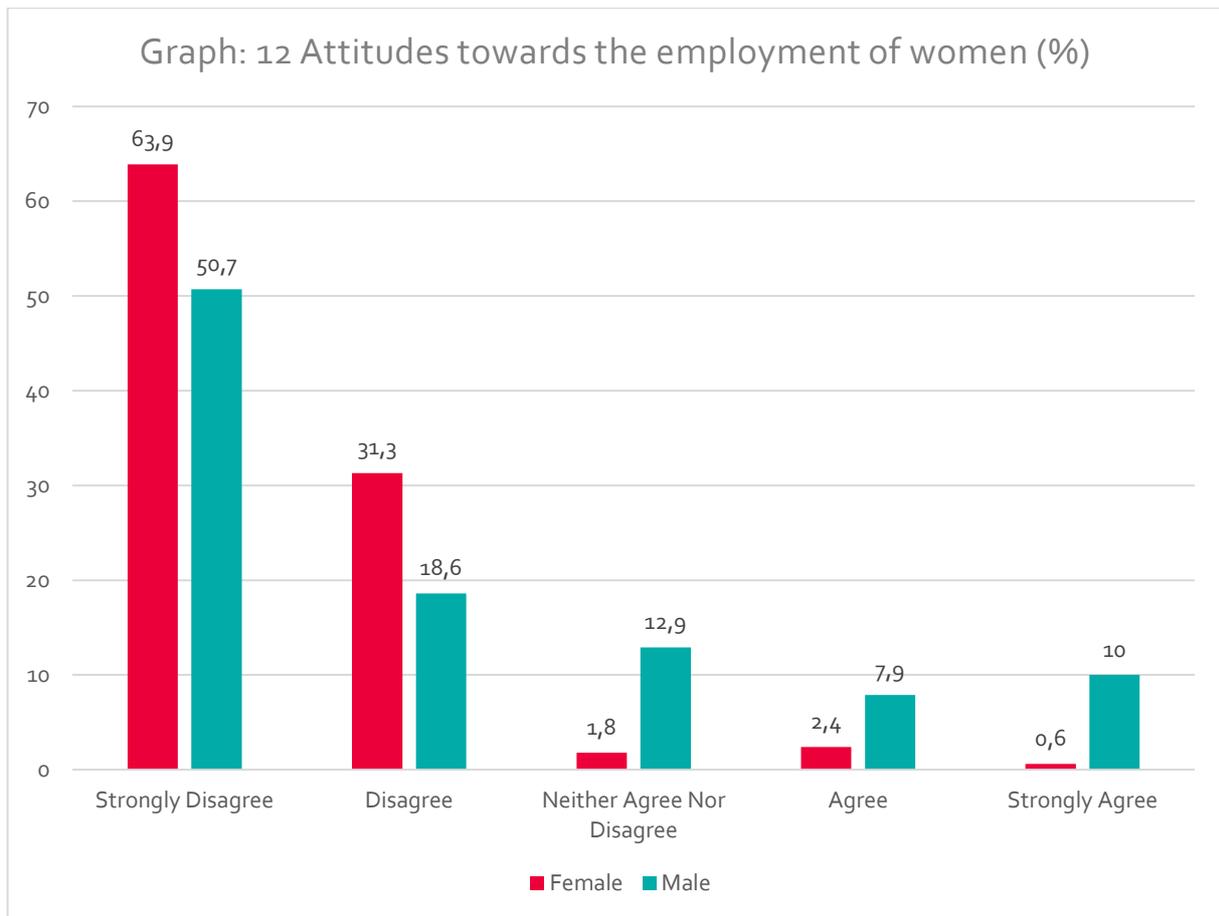
		Frequency	Percent
Female	Never	53	31,9
	1-12 Months	25	15,1
	13-24 Months	11	6,6
	24-36 Months	9	5,4
	37-48 Months	16	9,6
	49-60 Months	12	7,2
	61-120 Months	27	16,3
	120+ Months	13	7,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Never	24	17,1
	1-12 Months	15	10,7
	13-24 Months	16	11,4
	24-36 Months	10	7,1
	37-48 Months	11	7,9
	49-60 Months	10	7,1
	61-120 Months	34	24,3
	120+ Months	20	14,3
	Total	140	100,0

Table 16: Part-time or homebased paid/uninsured total employment

		Frequency	Percent
Female	None	107	64,5
	less than 1 year	17	10,2
	1-5 years	25	15,1
	5-10 years	9	5,4
	10-15 years	5	3,0
	15-20 years	3	1,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	None	120	85,7
	less than 1 year	5	3,6
	1-5 years	10	7,1
	5-10 years	4	2,9
	10-15 years	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

5.6. PATRIARCHAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT

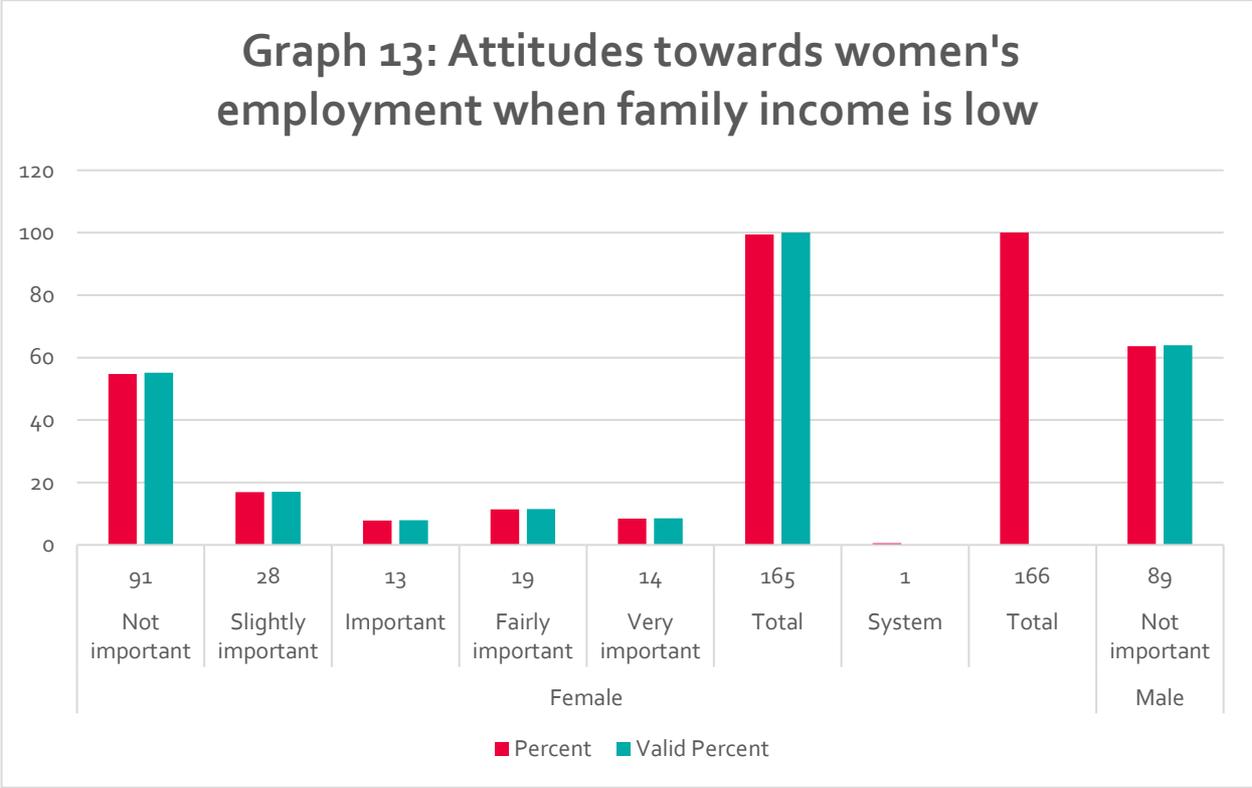
The patriarchal judgements that prevail in Türkiye are a significant obstacle to women's employment, as well as imposing domestic responsibilities entirely on women. As seen in Graph 12, 47,6 per cent of women and 67 per cent of men agree and strongly agree with the opinion that 'Women should not work unless absolutely necessary. If they are going to work, the most suitable jobs for them are part-time jobs where they can also do childcare and housework.' The remarkable difference between men and women can be explained by the fact that women respondents are employed. On the other hand, the awareness of gender equality raised by the struggle of the women's movement in recent years and the deepening economic crisis necessitates a dual-earner family model may also be a factor in the differentiation of women's attitudes from men.



Chi-Square test was performed, and significant differences were observed between male and female workers in terms of agreement with the following statements:

- Some jobs are suitable for men, some jobs are suitable for women.
- It is natural men workers are paid more than women workers.
- Women should not work unless absolutely necessary. If they are going to work, the most suitable job for them is part-time jobs where they can also do childcare and housework.
- Even if the income of the family is low, the woman should stay at home.
- It is normal for a husband to sometimes resort to violence when he is angry. This situation should not go out of the family.
- The main task of women is motherhood.
- Women are weak by nature; they cannot be managers or supervisors.

As seen in the Graph 13, the negative attitude towards women's employment changes under conditions of low family income. The rate of those who think that women should stay at home even if the family income is low is only 3 per cent for women and 17,9 per cent for men.



6. SURVEY FINDINGS ON LIVING WAGES

In this section, workers' monthly income, the link between their current wage levels and the living wage, and their poverty levels will be analysed. Average monthly income of the 75,8 per cent of the workers from the workplace with additional payments such as overtime, child allowance, bonus, premium, transportation, meal payments are below €415,2. Average monthly income of 14,5 per cent of the women workers and 5 per cent of the male workers are below €289,40. The average monthly incomes of female workers are remarkably lower than that of male workers. The income of female workers are stuck between €0-€289,35 and €289,40-€415,15, and the rate of female workers earning wages in this range reaches 88 per cent. The rate of male workers with wage income in the same range is 61.4 per cent. Another data showing that women's access becomes more difficult as wages increase is that while the rate of women earning between €415,20 and €518,94 is 11.4 per cent; this rate is 30.7 per cent for men. As the wage increases, the rate of women decreases. In addition, women's work is underpaid.

Table 17 Average monthly income of the workers from the workplace

	Average monthly income from the workplace	Frequency	Percent
Female	€0 – €289,35	24	14,5
	€289,40 – €415,15	122	73,5
	€415,20 – €518,95	19	11,4
	€519 – €648,70	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	€0 – €289,35	7	5,0
	€289,40 – €415,15	79	56,4
	€415,20 – €518,95	43	30,7
	€519 – €648,70	10	7,1
	€648,75 and above	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

6.1. MONTHLY INCOME OF THE HOUSEHOLD

The household income of 68 per cent of the workers is below €830,40. Household income of 10.8 per cent of female workers and 18.6 per cent of male workers is below €415,20. However, surveys carried out by trade union confederations in the period in June and July 2022, when the survey started, have determined that the hunger threshold was over €311,40, and the poverty threshold was over €1038.

Hunger Threshold estimations by various trade unions

BİSAM	€355,83
BİRLEŞİK KAMU-İŞ	€3151,83
TÜRK-İŞ	€331,69

Poverty Threshold estimations by various trade unions

BİSAM	€1.230,81
BİRLEŞİK KAMU-İŞ	€1.045,27
TÜRK-İŞ	€1.080,45

Table18: Monthly Income of the households

		Frequency	Percent
Female	€0 - €415,14	18	10,8
	€415,20 – €622,75	31	18,7
	€622,80 – €830,35	52	31,3
	€830,40 – €1037,95	26	15,7
	€1038 – €1245,55	18	10,8
	€1245,60 – €1453,15	13	7,8
	€1453,20 and above	8	4,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	€0 - €415,14	26	18,6
	€415,20 – €622,75	42	30,0
	€622,80 – €830,35	39	27,9
	€830,40 – €1037,95	17	12,1
	€1038 – €1245,55	5	3,6
	€1245,60 – €1453,15	6	4,3
	€1453,20 and above	5	3,6
	Total	140	100,0

In Türkiye, income earners in single-earner households are most often men. In this study, the number of men, who are the sole income earners of the household, is three times higher than the number of women. The income level in the multi-earner households of female workers is higher than the income level in the multi-earner households of male workers as displayed in Table 19. However, the monthly income level in female single-earner households is lower than the monthly income level in male single-earner households.

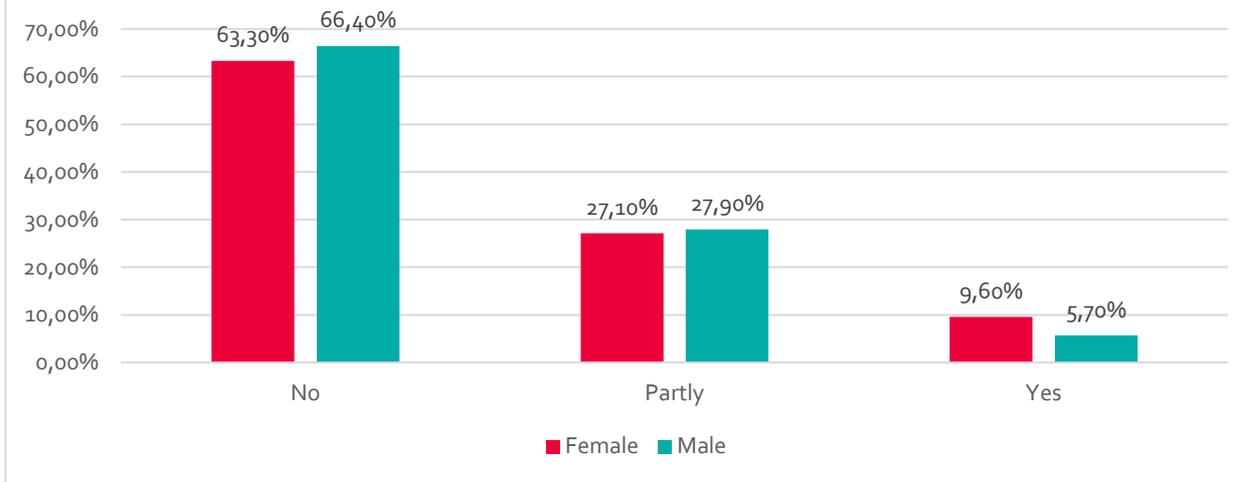
Table 19: Monthly household income according to the number of income earners¹⁹

	How many people other than you bring income to your household?	Monthly income in your household in the last month____(Euro) (Mean)	N	Std. Deviation
Female	1	705,23	83	185,97
	2	958,17	39	284,79
	3	1.008,71	14	362,66
	4	1.181,17	7	178,00
	5	1.580,36	2	33,03
	More than 5	2.270,63	2	458,74
	Only me	392,39	19	137,99
	Average household income of total female employees	803,92	166	351,77
Male	1	743,82	50	167,37
	2	914,06	20	242,90
	3	1500,01	6	741,73
	More than 5	1557,00	2	146,80
	Only me	457,57	60	114,26
	Average household income of total male employees	688,70	138	339,48

Only 7.8 per cent of the workers participating in the survey think that their current wage is a living wage. Conversely, as many as 63.3 per cent of female workers and 66.4 per cent of male workers do not think that their current wages are living wages. Inadequate wages led some workers to do additional work, with 7,5 per cent of the workers reporting that they do additional work.

¹⁹ Two of the responding workers gave inconsistent answers to this question; therefore, their answers were excluded from the calculation.

Graph:14 Proportion of Workers Who Considers Their Current Wage To Be a Living Wage



Around 3 per cent of workers in Istanbul and Mersin think that their current wage is not a living wage, while this rate rises to 70 per cent among workers in Izmir.

Table20: Considering Current Wage to be A Living Wage According to The City

		Place code of the city where the research was conducted			
Do you consider your current wage to be a living wage (i.e., providing you with sufficient resources to meet all of your daily needs, living expenses and make savings)?		33 Mersin	34 Istanbul	35 Izmir	Total
No	N	50	94	54	198
	%	62,5%	63,1%	70,1%	64,7%
Partly	N	28	39	17	84
	%	35,0%	26,2%	22,1%	27,5%
Yes	N	2	16	6	24
	%	2,5%	10,7%	7,8%	7,8%
Total	N	80	149	77	306
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%

6.2. GENDER PAY GAP

Data from the TUKSTAT Income and Living Conditions Survey (ILCS) shows that there is a gender wage gap of 15.6 per cent in Türkiye (ILO, SIDA and TURKSTAT, 2020). According to the results of our study, while the average income of women workers was €336,83, the average income of male workers was €400,67. A comparable situation has been found in the textile and garment industry in Asian countries such as Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Pakistan, where women workers are disproportionately represented in low-paid jobs at the lower levels of the sector's supply chain. In these countries the ILO found an average gender pay gap of around 18.5 per cent, of which around 14.5 per cent is largely the result of gender pay discrimination (ILO, 2022: 3). As shown in Table 21, 18.6 per cent of men and nine per cent of women thinks that it is natural that male workers are paid more than female workers.

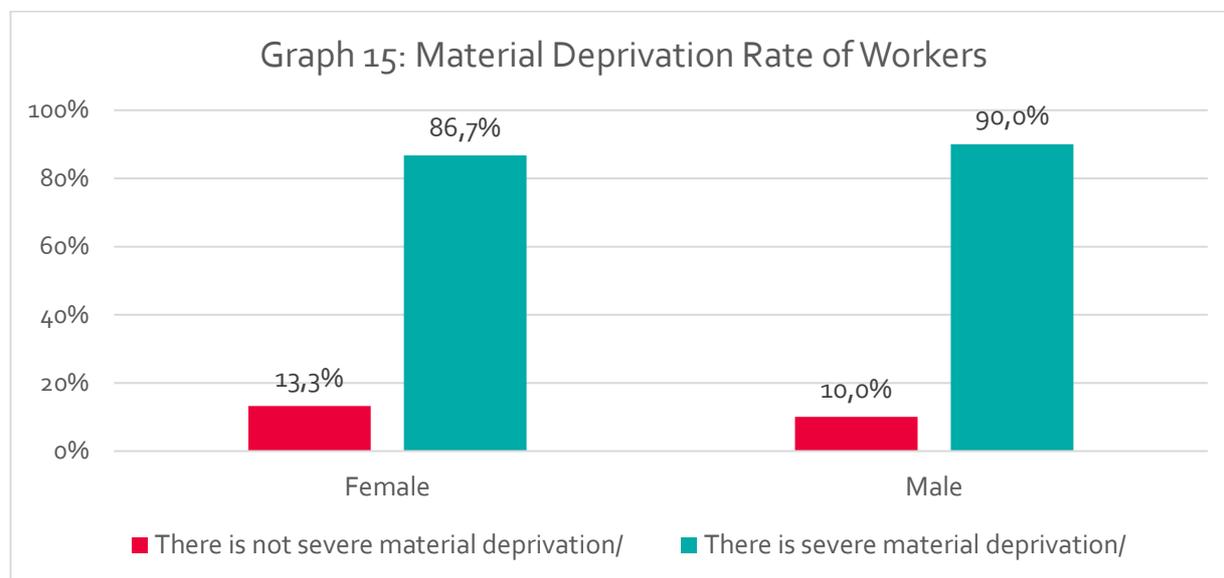
Table 21: Number of the workers who thinks that it is natural that men workers are paid more than women workers

	Statement: It is natural men workers are paid more than women workers	Number	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	108	65,1
	Disagree	38	22,9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	5	3,0
	Agree	10	6,0
	Strongly Agree	5	3,0
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	79	56,4
	Disagree	25	17,9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	10	7,1
	Agree	18	12,9
	Strongly Agree	8	5,7
	Total	140	100,0

6.3. MATERIAL DEPRIVATION OF THE WORKERS

In order to measure the level of material deprivation of the workers, the questionnaire included questions about the main indicators of material deprivation (see Box 3). Material deprivation reflects to perception of households about inability to pay unexpected financial expenses, one week's annual

holiday away from home, mortgage or rent payments, a meal with meat, chicken, fish every second day and heating home adequately warm and the ownership of a washing machine, a colour TV, a telephone and a car. The material deprivation of the participants in this study is 88,2 per cent, as illustrated in Graph 15. This very high rate reveals that workers' wages are dramatically low and they must struggle with very deep poverty despite the harsh working conditions.



The severe material deprivation rate defined as the rate of people faced with the enforced inability to afford at least four of the above-mentioned items was 27.2 per cent in 2021 in Türkiye (TURKSTAT, 2022). It was found that 77,7 per cent of the female workers and 81,4 per cent of the male workers participating in this study had severe material deprivation. The higher rate of material deprivation among men can be explained by the fact that men are more likely to be the sole earners of the family.

Table22: Severe Material Deprivation Rate of Workers

		Frequency	Percent
Female	Others	37	22,3
	Severe material deprivation	129	77,7
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Others	26	18,6
	Severe material deprivation	114	81,4
	Total	140	100,0

Box 3 Indicators of the Material Deprivation

- In the last twelve months, 19,3 per cent of the female participants and 14 per cent of the male participants have missed their rent or mortgage/bank loan payment their residence due to financial difficulties.
- In the last twelve months, 22 per cent of the female participants and 25,3 per cent of the male participants have failed to pay the utility bills (heating, electricity, gas, water, etc.) of the main dwelling on time due to financial difficulties.
- In the last twelve months, 1,8 per cent of the female participants and 3,4 per cent of the male participants or their family members had a salary confiscation initiated due to debts.
- 75,9 per cent of the female participants' and 73,6 per cent of the male participants' entire household cannot afford to go for a week's annual holiday away from home, including stays in a second dwelling or with friends/relatives.
- 75,3 per cent of the female participants' and 77,1 per cent of the male participants' household cannot afford a meal with meat, chicken, fish (or vegetarian equivalent) every second day?
- 74,1 per cent of the female participants' and 72,9 per cent of the male participants' household cannot afford an unexpected, required expense up to €259,5 and pay through its own resources.
- 77,1 per cent of the female participants' and 80,7 per cent of the male participants' households cannot afford to replace furniture (bed, sofa/ dresser, cupboard) when worn out or damaged.
- Thinking of their household's total income, 98,2 per cent of the female participants' and 90 per cent of the male participants' households are unable to make ends meet, namely, to pay for its usual necessary expenses.
- Considering their total housing costs including mortgage repayment (instalment and interest) or rent, insurance and service charges (sewage removal, refuse removal, regular maintenance, repairs and other charges), these costs are a heavy financial burden to 66,3 per cent of the female participants and 73,6 per cent of the male participants.

The effects of severe material deprivation were also felt during the interviews. For example, when asked about salary payments and purchasing power, one worker cried, saying that they no longer had purchasing power and that they were experiencing great difficulties. This worker was living together with her mother and sister and was covering the school expenses of her nephew.

6.4. OVERTIME WORK

Türkiye's competitive advantage in the garment industry is its fast delivery times to the European market. This situation may increase overtime and compulsory overtime practices, especially during high-peak seasons. Some buyer brands also turn a blind eye to overtime in order to keep deliveries on time, even though they recognize overtime in social compliance audits. Late arrival of fabrics and other materials, last minute style changes, short lead times (especially for reorders); limited ability to adapt capacity to changing orders; high and low seasons; quality issues, overbooking and/or reworking of products due to poor planning by the seller are the most common reasons why workers are forced to work overtime. Overbooking is common in the industry. Firms usually do not turn down new orders even if they exceed their capacity. In this case, subcontractors usually come into play. However, this leads to subcontracting of overtime problems to subcontractors. Firms with large orders can never be sure that these order flows are sustainable and are reluctant to invest in capacity expansion. The solution to this problem undoubtedly lies in the purchasing policies of the brands. However, according to the representatives of some brands, some vendors will always continue to double book. As soon as they expand their capacity due to new orders, they will start accepting more orders and nothing will improve in terms of overtime (Stoop, 2005:10).

The root causes of overtime working are identified by Fair Wear (2021) as follows:

- 1** Insufficient supplier evaluation concerning the capacity, knowledge, available technology etc.
- 2** No collaborative planning with supply chain partners – from raw material to garment manufacturing, logistics and transport - may not be fully aware of their responsibilities, and the timing expected of them.
- 3** No or incorrect forecasting to reserve the necessary capacity for the needed time slot for production
- 4** Supplier is not fully informed about key milestones
- 5** Undefined cooperation with suppliers makes the production time longer, and so increases the risk of excessive overtime.
- 6** Lack of costing and planning know how at the brand
- 7** Missing Incorrect or changing product specifications
- 8** Late approval and / or order placement
- 9** Unplanned order placements and unrealistic delivery demands
- 10** Order placement below agreed minimum order quantity
- 11** No capacity reservation based on forecast from buyer

- 12** Lack of organisational know-how
- 13** Manufacturer overbooking its own capacity
- 14** Late material delivery
- 15** Lack of planning and costing know how at supplier, leading to capacity problem
- 16** HR related problems such as
- 17** Inefficient factory process and organisation
- 18** Quality problems of material and product
- 19** Late payments
- 20** Insufficient knowledge on appropriate shipment procedures and responsibilities
- 21** Unrealistic delivery requests and penalty demands
- 22** No commitment to pre-ordering and forecasting
- 23** Lack of transparency regarding production location from agent
- 24** Unexpected event that is beyond anyone's control / force majeure

According to our research, 80.4 per cent of workers work on average between 9 and 11 hours a day. 10.8 per cent of women and 7.1 per cent of men work more than 11 hours a day on average. This is despite the fact that according to Turkish Labour Law Article 63 'in general terms, working time is forty-five hours maximum weekly.' The Regulation on Working Hours Regarding the Labour Law also emphasises the necessity of a 12-hour uninterrupted rest period when regulating breaks.

Although the Labour Law does not regulate monthly or weekly overtime working hours, Article 41 stipulates that the total overtime working hours cannot exceed 270 hours in a year. In its decision, the 7th Civil Chamber of the Supreme Court of Appeals considered overtime work exceeding 270 hours per year as a just cause of termination for the employee.

According to international organisations' social compliance guides such as Fair Wear Working Hours Guide or ETI Base Code Guidance the total hours worked in any weekly period shall not exceed 60 hours.

Working over 9 hours per day is not in accordance with decent working conditions and working over 11 hours per day violates national and international labour regulations. The relevant data on working hours can be found in Table 23 below.

Table23: Average Daily Working Hours

	Regarding your working hours, could you tell us what your average daily working hours are, including overtime	Frequency	Percent
Female	Between 7,5 and 9 hours a day	20	12,0
	Between 9 and 11 hours a day	128	77,1
	Over 11 hours a day	18	10,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Between 7,5 and 9 hours a day	12	8,6
	Between 9 and 11 hours a day	118	84,3
	Over 11 hours a day	10	7,1
	Total	140	100,0

Seventy-six per cent of women with dependent children work on average 9-11 hours a day and 10 per cent of women work more than 11 hours a day. Eighty-two per cent of men with dependent children work between 9-11 hours a day and 9.4 per cent of them work more than 11 hours a day. Long working hours prevent decent working conditions for all workers. On the other hand, for workers with dependent children, it deepens the conflict between work and family life. Moreover, women workers experience the work-life imbalance much more severely when their second shifts, which include domestic and care obligations at home, are taken into consideration.

Excessive overtime not only violates the right to decent working hours but also prevents workers from working safely and healthily. The more overtime hours worked, the higher the likelihood of occupational accidents. Women are also at higher risk of violence and harassment when working overtime (Fair Wear, 2021).

Long working hours are problematic for most of the workers. Only one-fifth of workers do not think that shorter working hours are required. One out of every four workers stated that shorter working hours were extremely needed. The proportion of women considering the importance of shorter working hours is relatively higher than that of men.

Table 24: The need for shorter working hours

	Shorter working hours	Frequency	Percent
Female	No improvement is needed	33	19,9
	Slightly important	14	8,4
	Important	25	15,1
	Fairly important	47	28,3
	Very important	47	28,3
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Not important	31	22,1
	Slightly important	15	10,7
	Important	24	17,1
	Fairly important	36	25,7
	Very important	34	24,3
	Total	140	100,0

Only 7.2 per cent of women and 7.9 per cent of men stated that they did not work overtime in the last month.

Table 25: Average Overtime Work during last month

	During last month, how many hours on average did you have to work overtime?	Frequency	Percent
Female	I did not work overtime last month	12	7,2
	1-10 hours (included)	49	29,5
	10-23 hours (included)	61	36,7
	23-40 hours (included)	26	15,7
	More than 40 hours	18	10,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	I did not work overtime last month	11	7,9
	1-10 hours (included)	46	32,9
	10-23 hours (included)	39	27,9
	23-40 hours (included)	33	23,6
	More than 40 hours	11	7,9
	Total	140	100,0

As displayed in Table 26, on average, 33 per cent of women and 29 per cent of men work more than 50 hours of overtime during the peak season.

Table26: Average Overtime Work during peak season

	How many hours on average do you work overtime in a month during peak season	Frequency	Percent
Female	0 Hours	5	3,0
	1-24 Hours	29	17,5
	25-49 Hours	77	46,4
	50-74 Hours	52	31,3
	75 Hours and Above	3	1,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	0 Hours	1	0,7
	1-24 Hours	25	17,9
	25-49 Hours	73	52,1
	50-74 Hours	38	27,1
	75 Hours and Above	3	2,1
	Total	140	100,0

Only 36,6 per cent of the workers state that overtime work is voluntary, the others state that overtime work is compulsory. Compulsory overtime work is contrary to both Labour Law No. 4857 and ILO conventions.

Table27: Compulsory Overtime Work

	Is overtime compulsory in your factory?	Frequency	Percent
Female	I'd prefer not to answer	1	0,6
	No, it's always on voluntary basis and I do not face a negative consequence if I do not want to stay	65	39,2
	Yes, always	42	25,3
	Yes, sometimes	58	34,9
	Total	166	100,0

Male	No, it's always on voluntary basic and I do not face a negative consequence if I do not want to stay	47	33,6
	Yes, always	41	29,3
	Yes, sometimes	52	37,1
	Total	140	100,0

Implementation of the following recommendations of Fair Wear (2021) by brands will contribute to both reducing harassment and violence in the workplace by reducing production pressure and reducing the need for overtime work:

- Frequent communication and updates on production and delivery status with suppliers and inclusion of logistics partners
- Breaking demand peaks with constant orders
- Adding time for the unexpected within lead time
- Forecasting process based on market demand.
- Informing all the supply chain partners regarding the key milestones from all relevant departments (design / development, sourcing / buying, logistics). Coordination between all departments who work with suppliers.
- Setting realistic deadlines that is agreed upon with supply chain partners.
- Getting information on available capacity at suppliers and ordering quantities that are possible to be placed in a certain time frame.
- Ensuring the needed skill level of staff to organise and forecast process based on market demand and efficiently communicate with supply chain partners and provide trainings if needed.

6.5. ISSUES THAT WORKERS WOULD LIKE TO BE CHANGED IN THE WORKPLACE

Another problem is that workers are not informed that they will be working overtime. About half of the workers are of the opinion that the factory needs to inform on the plan of working overtime as shown in Table 28. The rate of women who think that there is no need for improvement in this regard is strikingly higher than that of men.

One of the reasons behind workers' willingness to work overtime is the fear of dismissal and the other is the need for overtime wages. As stated above, the level of material deprivation among the workers participating in the research is very high. Therefore, almost all of the workers believe that their wages should be increased in order to meet their basic needs. The purchasing practices of brands are critical in

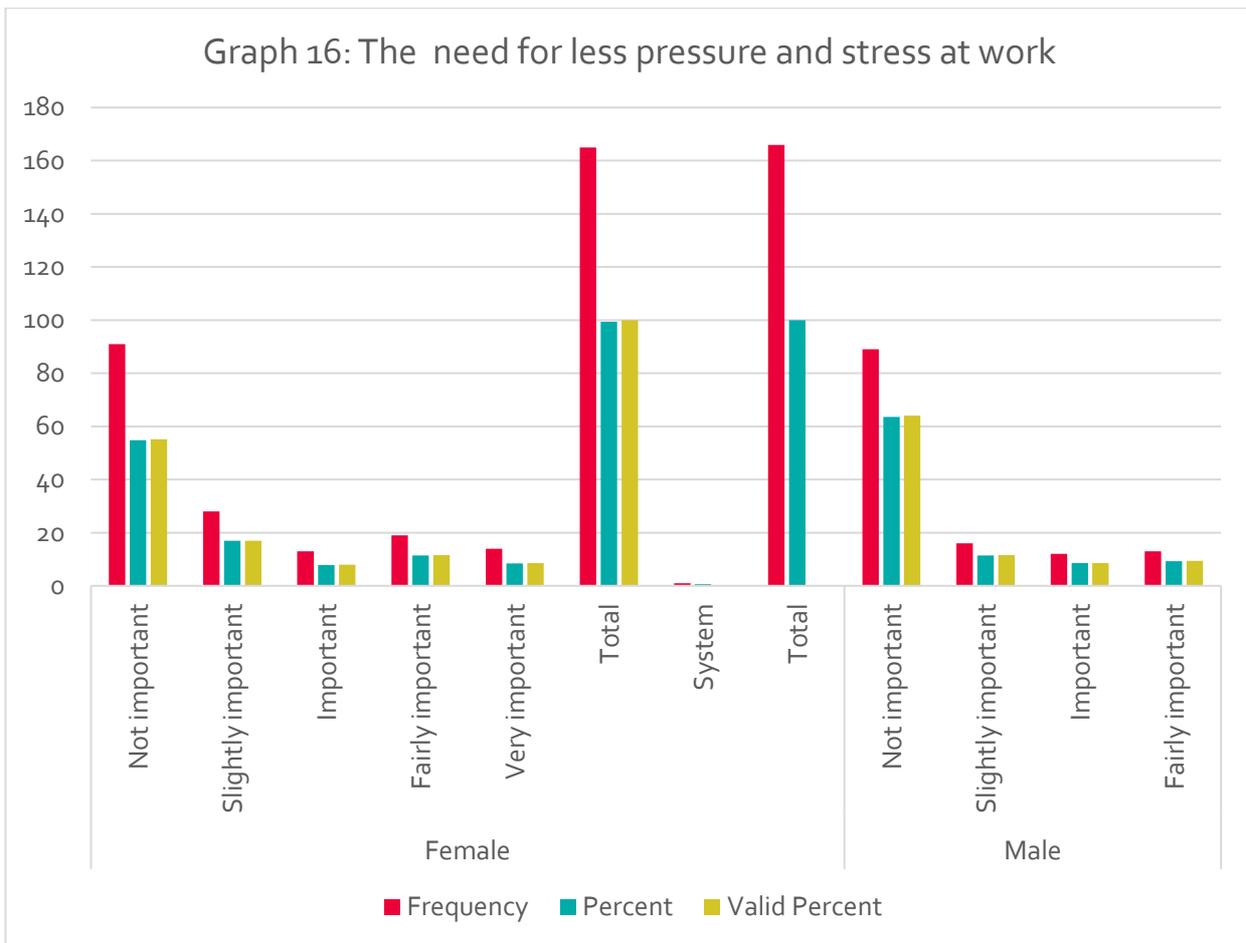
this regard. Labour costs are calculated in the price brands pay for their products. Fair Wear has developed the 'labour minute cost calculation' tool (Fair price app) to ensure fair pricing.

Table 28: The need for wage increases

	The company needs to raise wages so that workers can afford their basic needs	Frequency	Percent
Female	Not important	2	1,2
	Slightly important	5	3,0
	Important	16	9,6
	Fairly important	16	9,6
	Very important	127	76,5
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Not important	3	2,1
	Slightly important	2	1,4
	Important	10	7,1
	Fairly important	13	9,3
	Very important	112	80,0
	Total	140	100,0

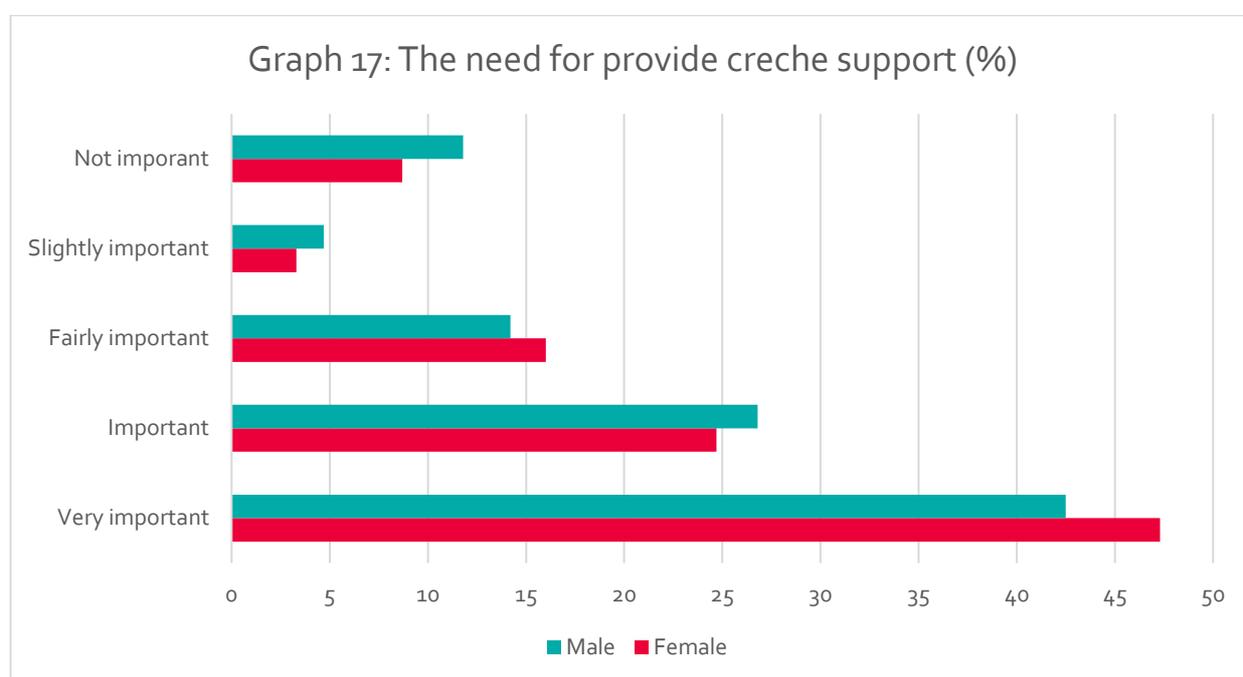
More than half of the workers need less stress at work. Production pressure is often the main source of stress in the garment industry. Women are relatively more likely than men to demand less stress and pressure in the workplace. This may be related to the fact that women feel more intense pressure. Female workers who participated in the study of Kümbetoğlu et al. (2012) also stated that the pressure at the workplace is more intense for women. It was emphasised that many migrant workers create a pool of workers ready to work in the sector, causing workers to be seen as disposable labour. Especially in departments such as packing, the fact that the work can be learnt quickly ensures that a new one can easily replace a worker who leaves. In particular, young migrant women succumb to violence and production pressure in the workplace due to the fear of easy dismissal (Kümbetoğlu, User and Akpınar, 2012: 51). There is a strong link between increased gender-based violence and harassment risks and workers facing employment insecurity due to short-term contracts, poor working conditions, lack of a living wage, lack of social protection, and inability to exercise their rights to bargain collectively. insufficient implementation of labour laws and labour inspection at the bottom of the garment supply chain increases the gender-based violence and harassment risks that women experience in the workplace (Pillinger, 2022: 18).

Graph 16: The need for less pressure and stress at work



According to the provisions of the 'Regulation on the Conditions of Employment of Pregnant or Breastfeeding Women, Breastfeeding Rooms and Children's Dormitories', in workplaces with more than 150 female employees, it is obligatory for the employer to establish a dormitory separate from the workplace and close to the workplace for the leaving and care of children aged 0-6 years and for breastfeeding employees to breastfeed their children. Employers may establish rooms and dormitories jointly, or they may fulfil their obligation to open rooms and dormitories through agreements with dormitories authorised by public institutions. However, opening rooms and dormitories only according to the number of female workers, children of male employees' children whose mothers are dead or under the custody of father are accepted. All female employees working in same employer's different workplaces within the municipal boundaries shall be taken into account as total. This reflects the perception of childcare as a responsibility that belongs only to women, and it is a major deficiency that the number of workers regarding the obligation to open day-care centres is not determined according to the number of female and male workers. Employers do not prefer to open day-care centres in the workplace due to high cost and high responsibility. There is not enough supervision on this issue and monetary fines are much lower than the cost of opening a day-care centre. For this reason, only 2 workplaces in Türkiye have day-care centres (Ünlütürk, 2023). Although there is no data, it is known that

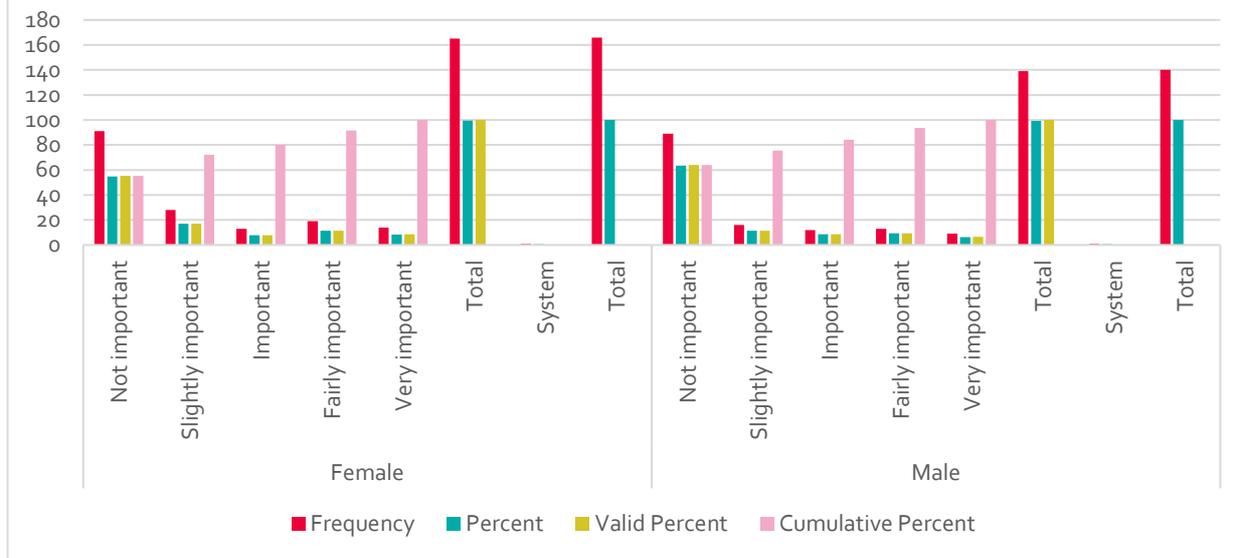
some workplaces outsource daycare services. Some workplaces pay crèche assistance to workers. In this research, the fact that men also have a high rate of need for an improvement in creche support is an indication of this. 89.2 per cent of the women and 85 per cent of the men find it necessary to make improvements on the issue of crèche support. Pursuant to Regulation on 'Work Conditions of Pregnant or Nursing Women, Lactation Rooms and Child Care Units, Article 13' issued in the official journal No. 28737, dated 16th August 2013; a breastfeeding room: must be provided by the employer who employs between 100- 150 women (regardless of their marital status or age), outside of but not far away more than 250 meters from the workplace. Just like day-care centres, many workplaces do not comply with the obligation to provide a breastfeeding room. However, due to insufficient supervision, there is no data on how many workplaces have opened a breastfeeding room.



Remarkably, job security is not considered as an important need by 60,5 per cent of the workers. The fact that for almost 40 per cent of the respondents this is not a serious need can be explained by the high labour mobility in the garment sector. Especially experienced workers do not have a difficulty in finding a job in the industry.

With regards to taking leave, 71,7 per cent of the female and 75 per cent of the male participants do not consider taking leave, when necessary, as a very important need.

Graph 18 :The need to be able to take leave



Regarding a safer working environment for women, 26,7 per cent of the female and 20 per cent of the male participants consider it an essential and very important need.

6.6. ATTITUDES OF THE WORKERS TOWARDS GENDER ROLES

Table 29: Attitudes towards the employment of women

	Women should not work unless absolutely necessary. If they are going to work, the most suitable job for them is part-time, where they can also do childcare and housework.	Frequency	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	52	31,3
	Disagree	22	13,3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	13	7,8
	Agree	42	25,3
	Strongly Agree	37	22,3
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	25	17,9
	Disagree	10	7,1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	11	7,9
	Agree	51	36,4
	Strongly Agree	43	30,7
	Total	140	100,0

The negative attitude towards women's employment changes under conditions of low family income. The rate of those who think that women should stay at home even if the family income is low is only 3 per cent for women and 17,9 per cent for men.

Table 30: Attitudes towards women's employment when family income is low

	Even if the income of the family is low, the woman should stay at home	Frequency	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	106	63,9
	Disagree	52	31,3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	3	1,8
	Agree	4	2,4
	Strongly Agree	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	71	50,7
	Disagree	26	18,6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	18	12,9
	Agree	11	7,9
	Strongly Agree	14	10,0
	Total	140	100,0

Home, family, private sphere, and the gender-based division of labour in this sphere are established as a »natural sphere« within the framework of patriarchal capitalism. All production and reproduction activities carried out by women in this sphere are conceived as a part of the nature of woman and are thus naturalised (Acar-Savran/Tura-Demiryontan 2008: 11). Furthermore, these domestic activities and labour are perceived as symbolic indicators of woman's love for her family. Meanwhile, because care is directly related to privacy, it is tightly associated with the notion of family. As the sole worker of invisible labour spent within a family, woman's response to needs in privacy is conceived of as a natural outcome role assumed as a good wife, mother, daughter, daughter-in-law, etc. (Altuntaş/Topçuoğlu 2014: 310). Patriarchal norms, therefore, see motherhood as the fundamental characteristic of womanhood. In this study, 33.8 per cent of women and 57.9 per cent of men consider motherhood as the main task of women.

Table 31: Attitudes Towards Motherhood

	The main task of women is motherhood	Frequency	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	58	34,9
	Disagree	37	22,3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	15	9,0
	Agree	28	16,9
	Strongly Agree	28	16,9
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	25	17,9
	Disagree	19	13,6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	15	10,7
	Agree	28	20,0
	Strongly Agree	53	37,9
	Total	140	100,0

The vast majority of participants (93,4 per cent of women and 85,7 per cent of men) do not agree with the opinion that women cannot be managers because they are weak by nature. One out of every 10 male participants believes that women cannot be managers. This attitude constitutes an invisible barrier to the promotion of women. The invisible barriers to women's promotion to senior management positions in organisations are referred to as the glass ceiling. Morrison and Von Glinow (1990:200) defined the glass ceiling as 'a barrier that is thin enough to be transparent but strong enough to prevent women and minorities from rising through the management hierarchy'. Sexist organisational culture, negative attitudes and prejudices against women, gender stereotypes about managerial positions, lack of institutional support, personnel policies and practices that do not support the promotion of women cause glass ceilings to prevent women from rising to managerial positions (Ng and Sears, 2017: 134).

Table32: Attitudes towards the management of women

	Women are weak by nature; they cannot be managers or supervisors	Frequency	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	128	77,1
	Disagree	27	16,3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	7	4,2
	Agree	3	1,8
	Strongly Agree	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	83	59,3
	Disagree	37	26,4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	7	5,0
	Agree	5	3,6
	Strongly Agree	8	5,7
	Total	140	100,0

7. WOMEN GARMENT WORKERS' EXPERIENCES OF VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

This section analyses respondents' domestic and workplace experiences of gender-based violence and harassment. Violence and harassment in the workplace are common problems in the Turkish labour market, especially in the garment sector. However, it rarely finds a place on the agenda of either the business world or academia. For this reason, the research results presented here is important in making the problems of violence and harassment in the workplace visible and also in of shedding light on the solutions and ways forward to end gender-based violence and harassment. The survey questions concerning violence and harassment in the workplace were only asked to female participants. Therefore, the research findings in this section reflect only the views of women workers. Since they would have difficulty in describing experiences such as violence and harassment as their own experiences, all questions were asked in the form of 'Have you or a friend of yours had such an experience?'

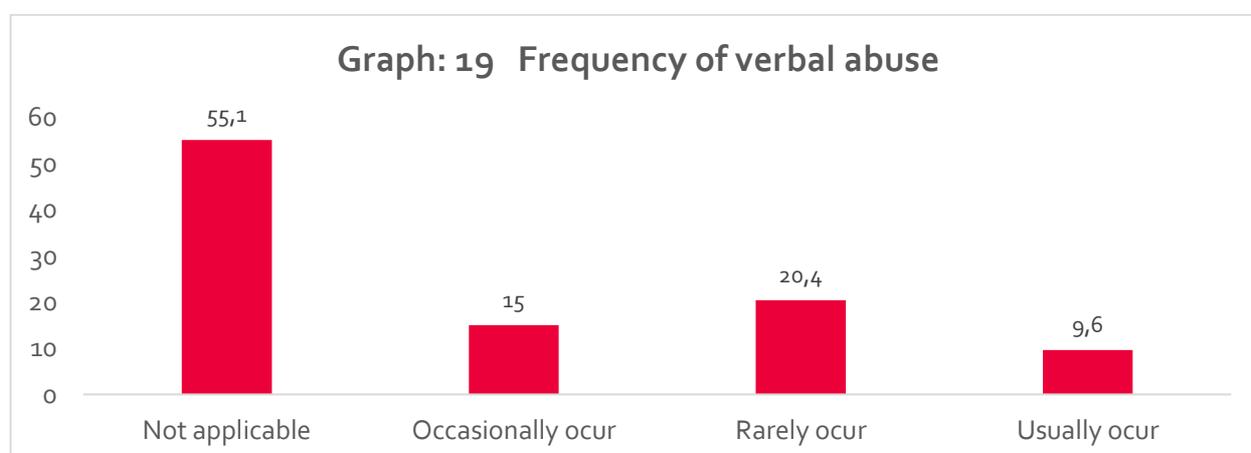
7.1. VERBAL VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT

As seen in Table 33, approximately one in five women reported inappropriate behaviour by a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc. in the factory such as making sexual remarks; making inappropriate or offensive comments about her or someone else's body, appearance or sexual activities; asking her or her colleague inappropriate questions about other personal issues e.g. religious beliefs, social activities, her political beliefs etc. or having rumours of a sexual spread about her or that she witnessed of a colleague at work.

Table 33: Verbal abuse and harassment

From your own experience (or from what you have witnessed) has a colleague, supervisor, manager, or someone else associated with the factory carried out any of the following.			
Questions	Yes (%)	Yes (n)	Total (N)
Made sexual remarks/told jokes or stories that were insulting or offensive?	21,08%	35	166
Made rude comment about her or her family members?	13,86%	23	166
Made inappropriate or offensive comments about her or someone else's body, appearance or sexual activities?	22,89%	38	166
Referred to her or her colleague in sexist or degrading terms.	12,65%	21	166
Said crude or gross sexual things or tried to get her or her colleague to talk about sexual matters.	11,45%	19	166
Badgering her or her colleague to go out with her/them after work?	6,02%	10	166
Asked her or her colleague inappropriate questions of a sexual nature, e.g., personal questions about personal relationships or sex life?	7,83%	13	166
Asked her or her colleague inappropriate questions about other personal issues e.g., religious beliefs, social activities, her political beliefs etc.?	20,48%	34	166
Had rumours of a sexual spread about her or that she witnessed of a colleague at work?	19,28%	32	166
Has her or that she witnessed of a colleague's phone number been shared without her knowledge? Or was it asked for no reason?	5,42%	9	166

As illustrated in Graph 19, 9,6 per cent of the female participants stated that forms of verbal abuse usually occur, 20,4 per cent of the female participants stated that forms of verbal abuse rarely occur, and 15 per cent of the female participants stated that verbal abuse occasionally occurs.



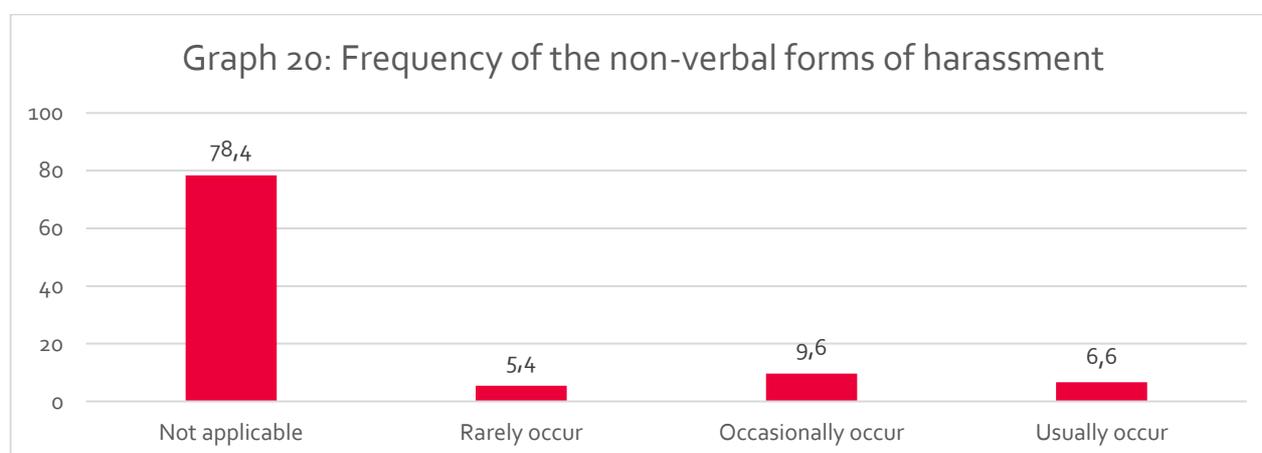
16,87 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., made obscene sexual gestures, sounds or stares. The demand for 'just-in-time' production and global supply chains in the garment industry often leads to high levels of production pressure and high production targets. These production considerations are the most commonly cited causes of a culture of verbal and sexual harassment in the workplace by male supervisors and managers (Pillinger, 2022: 3). Pillinger's (2022:20) interviews with women union leaders revealed that supervisors and managers regularly engaged in verbal harassment to get orders in on time and to force workers to increase production targets. The research of ILO and IFC (2013) suggests that by aligning supervisor and worker wage incentives, training supervisors on gender-based violence and harassment, and workforce management skills, workplace, the problem of sexual harassment can be reduced.

7.2. NON-VERBAL VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT

Table 34 Non-verbal forms of harassment

Questions	Yes (%)	Yes (n)	Total (n)
Made obscene sexual gestures, sounds or stares	16,87%	28	166
Emailed, texted, tweeted, phoned, or instant messaged offensive sexual remarks, jokes, stories, pictures or videos to her or her colleague.	4,22%	7	166
Followed her home, showed up somewhere or waited for you/or a colleague when you did not/they did not want that person to be there in a way that made her/them afraid for personal safety.	5,42%	9	166

As shown in Graph 20, 6,6 per cent of the female participants stated that non-verbal forms of harassment usually occurs, 9,6 per cent of the female participants stated that non-verbal forms of harassment occasionally occurs, 5,4 per cent of the female participants stated that non-verbal forms of harassment rarely occurs.



7.3. PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT

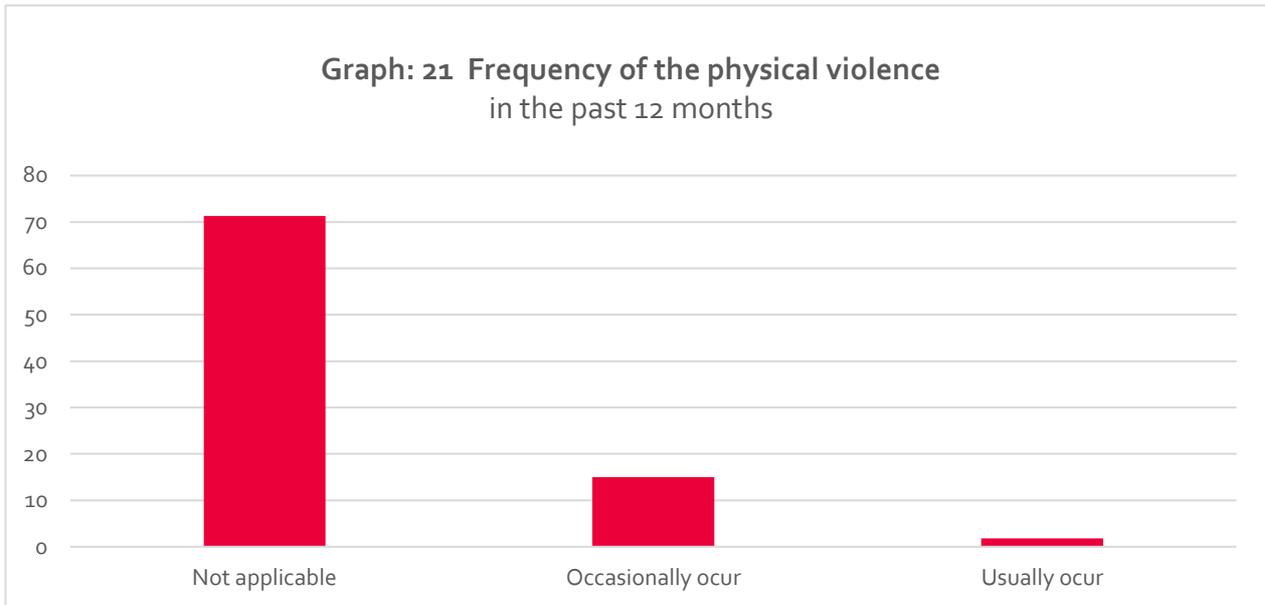
Table 35 details findings on physical harassment. While 7,23 per cent of the women reported that a colleague, supervisor or manager, had contact with her/her colleague involving kissing or other sexual touching and had unwanted physical contact with her/ colleague; 3,61 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor or manager, sexually assaulted or forced her (or a colleague) to have sex with them.

Table35: Forms of physical violence

Questions	Yes (%)	Yes (n)	Total (N)
Had contact with her/her colleague involving kissing or another sexual touching (e.g., touching her arms, legs, breasts or bottom?)	7,23%	12	166
Had unwanted physical contact with her/colleague, such as hitting, pulling hair, punching, standing too close to her, leaning over her, or other unwanted physical contact?	7,23%	12	166
Sexually assaulted or forced her (or a colleague) to have sex with them?	3,61%	6	166

As shown in Graph 21, 1,8 per cent of the female participants stated that physical violence usually occurs, 15 per cent of the female participants stated that physical violence occasionally occurs, 12 per cent of the female participants stated that physical violence rarely occurs. The following is an example of one female participant’s experience:

One of the female participants was beaten by a male labourer working in a factory. She did not tell her husband about this situation because she was afraid of his reaction. The female worker was afraid of meeting the perpetrator on her way to and from work after the incident, but they never met.



Overall, in the experiences of one out of every three respondents the main perpetrators are male colleagues. This is followed by female colleagues and male supervisors respectively.

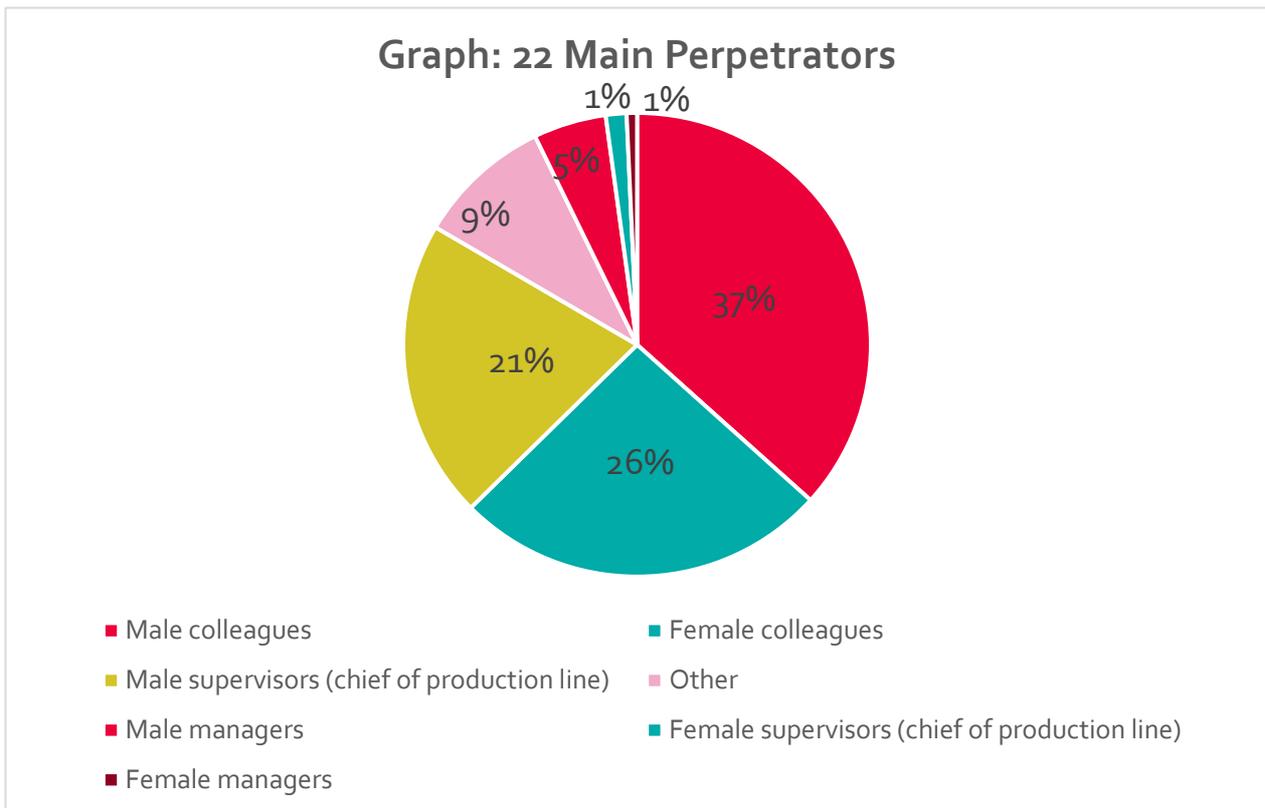


Table 36 shows that effects of violence and harassment on women workers: 44 per cent of the respondents who were subjected to concerning behaviours felt angry, 24,1 per cent of them felt traumatized and 24,1 per cent of them felt humiliated.

Table 36: Results of the Behaviour

Overall, how did the behaviour make you (or that you witnessed a colleague) feel?	Yes
I feel angry	44,6%
I feel traumatized	24,1%
I feel humiliated	24,1%
I feel degraded	13,3%
I feel scared	12,0%
Other	3,0%
It does not affect me at all	2,4%
I feel depressed	1,8%

Rates of reporting of violence and harassment remain very low. Only 12,4 per cent of the respondents, who experienced (or witnessed) any of the concerning behaviours, reported what happened to her. Of those who reported the behaviours, 71,1 per cent reported it to their manager, 21,1 per cent to their colleagues, 5,3 per cent to the HR Department, 2,6 per cent to family, or friends. Of the 38 women who complained to their employers and trade unions about this behaviour, only 10 women stated that action was taken against the perpetrator and two women stated that an investigation was opened. Only two out of 38 women who complained about the behaviour concerned stated that the complaint result in a safer place and/or that the company policies including training been reviewed. As shown in Table 37 the main reasons for not reporting what happened are fear of the negative consequences, fear that they will not be believed and the fact that previous similar cases were not properly dealt with.

A female participant who is subjected to harassment by a male colleague at the workplace keeps silent about the harassment. She is afraid that if she reports it to the workplace, she will be subjected to rumours and if her husband finds out, she will not be able to continue working.

Similarly, another participant was psychologically exhausted due to the harassment she experienced. She could not share the harassment with her family for fear of getting her husband or son in trouble. She struggled with the psychological effects of harassment alone for 2 years. She thought of calling the factory complaint line but gave up.

According to the findings of another interview, a white-collar worker harassed a blue-collar daily worker in the workplace. The interviewer, who witnessed this situation, encouraged the daily worker to disclose this situation, but did not get an outcome.

This situation shows that daily labour not only violates the rights of workers, but also increases their vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence in the workplace.

7.4. REASONS FOR NOT REPORTING WHAT HAPPENED

These examples show the importance of encouraging women to report harassment and violence at the workplace and ensuring that such reporting remains completely confidential.

Table 37: Reasons for not reporting what happened

Reasons for not reporting	Frequency	Percent
I knew other similar cases where they were not properly dealt with	6	3,61%
Fear of negative consequences	8	4,82%
I didn't think people would believe me	8	4,82%
I was afraid of being fired	5	3,01%
I did not think it was serious enough to report	4	2,41%
I felt embarrassed, ashamed and I thought it would be too emotionally difficult	3	1,81%
I was afraid of being ostracized, of gossip	3	1,81%
I didn't know how to make a complaint	1	0,60%
I was afraid my partner, children and family would hear	2	1,20%
I blamed myself/ was wrong too	2	1,21%

Managers and supervisors are the people to whom respondents would most often turn when they need help or advice.

Table 38: Help or advice at the factory

If you need help or advice, who could you turn to in the factory for help?	Valid (N)	Agree
Factory complaint hotline/grievance box/grievance mechanism	166	1,8%
Trade union representative or Worker Representative	166	7,8%
There is no one I could turn to	166	8,4%
HR department	166	15,7%
A colleague I trust	166	18,1%
My immediate supervisor	166	41,0%
The factory manager	166	46,4%

Overall, 7.2 per cent of women are of the opinion that harassment against women workers regularly occurs at the workplace. The rate of those who say that harassment is 'part of the job' is 4.8%.

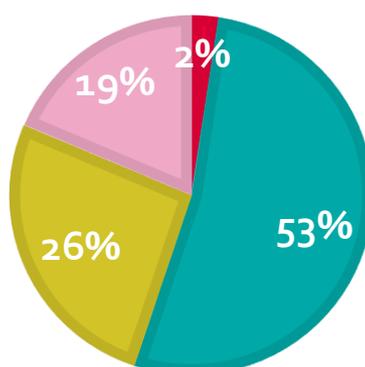
Table 39: Frequency of harassment

Do you agree/disagree with the following statements about the factory where you work?	Agree
Harassment against women workers is a regular occurrence where I work/	7,2%
Being harassed is 'part of the job'	4,8%

When asked whether harassment occurs in the factory during the peak season when there is pressure to complete orders on time, 19 per cent of the female workers answered as 'this occurs occasionally', while 26 per cent of the women workers answered 'yes, supervisors put us under pressure to work faster'. Pillinger (2019) also found a strong relationship between violence and harassment and production pressures and overtime. Violence and harassment were 3.8 times more likely to occur in the peak season than during the rest of the year according to the research which the Pillinger was conducted in Vietnam's garment industry.

Graph: 23 Harassment occurrence in the factory during the peak season when there is pressure to complete orders in time

- I'd prefer not to answer
- No, we are treated the same regardless of the status of the order
- This occurs occasionally
- Yes, supervisors put us under pressure to work faster



Despite relatively low levels of reporting on violence and harassment, large numbers of women workers were aware of the fact that their factories had policies and complaints procedures on violence and harassment. As Table 40 shows, 28,3 per cent of respondents stated that their factory had a policy on violence and harassment at work, while 62 per cent stated that there is a complaints procedure in their factories and that this procedure works. Furthermore, 71,1 per cent of respondents stated that they knew whom to make a complaint to if violence and harassment occurred, the same number stated that they would use the complaint procedure and 72,3 per cent stated that they felt confident that the complaint would be dealt with seriously.

Table 40: Statements about complaint procedures

Do you agree/disagree with any of the following statements about making a complaint?	Agree
In my factory there is a policy on harassment and violence at work	28,3%
In my factory there is a complaints procedure	62,7%
In the factory where I work, I know who I can make a complaint to	71,1%
If you or one of your colleagues' experiences harassment or violence in the future, would you use the complaints procedure?	71,1%
I feel confident that a complaint would be dealt with seriously	72,3%

A female worker complained that the management has no dialogue with the workers and the grievance mechanism does not work.

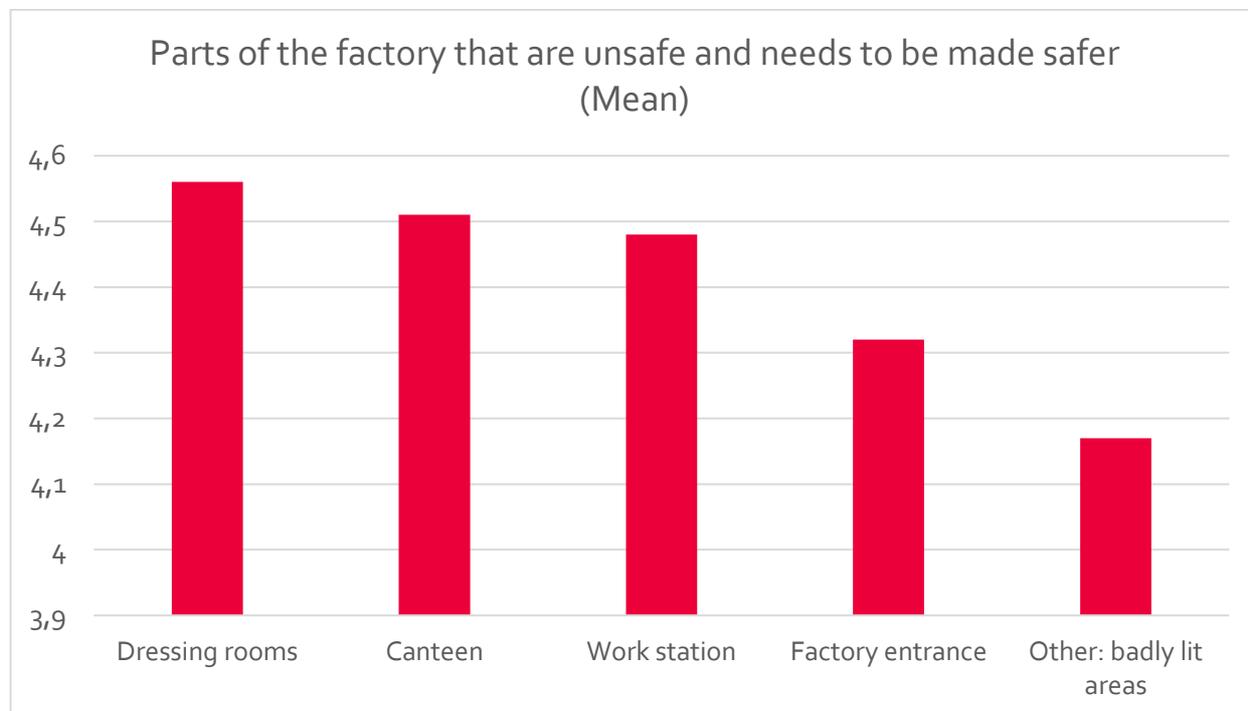
'Complaint boxes are used by the workers, but the management does not give feedback to the workers about the complaints, the complaints are ignored. In the sewing department, some female workers swear and have loud conversations with sexual content. the supervisor does not intervene even though he witnesses these conversations. For this reason, I thought of quitting my job, but my husband does not allow me to change my job because harassment is very common in the textile sector in Izmir.'

7.5. PARTS OF THE FACTORY THAT ARE UNSAFE AND NEEDS TO BE MADE SAFER

Table 41: The need to create a safer working environment for women

	Create a safer working environment for women	Frequency	Percent
Female	Not important	101	60,8
	Slightly important	20	12,0
	Important	14	8,4
	Fairly important	13	7,8
	Very important	17	10,2
	Total	165	99,4
	System	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Not important	98	70,0
	Slightly important	13	9,3
	Important	13	9,3
	Fairly important	7	5,0
	Very important	8	5,7
	Total	139	99,3
	System	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

The participants were asked to rate the factory sections from 1 to 5 on the level of priority that should be made safer. 1 is the least safe, and 5 is the safest place. According to workers' responses which is displayed in the Graph 24, the poorly illuminated parts of the factory and the factory gates are the least safe parts. You may find the relevant Graph below:



Female respondents stated that the highest level of violence and harassment occurred on public transport. Therefore, providing safe transport facilities by the employer, including after overtime, is much more critical for women workers.

7.6. TRANSPORTATION TO WORK

With regards to transportation, 70.6 per cent of the employees reach their workplace by the bus provided by the employer and eighteen per cent of them walk to their workplace as shown in the Table 42. As Akyelken (2016) found, transportation facilities are the most important factor after workplace conditions and shift hours in the employment decision, especially for shop-floor women workers. Due to the insufficient public transport facilities in Türkiye and the high risk of violence and harassment for women during transportation, the availability of employer-provided buses is extremely important.

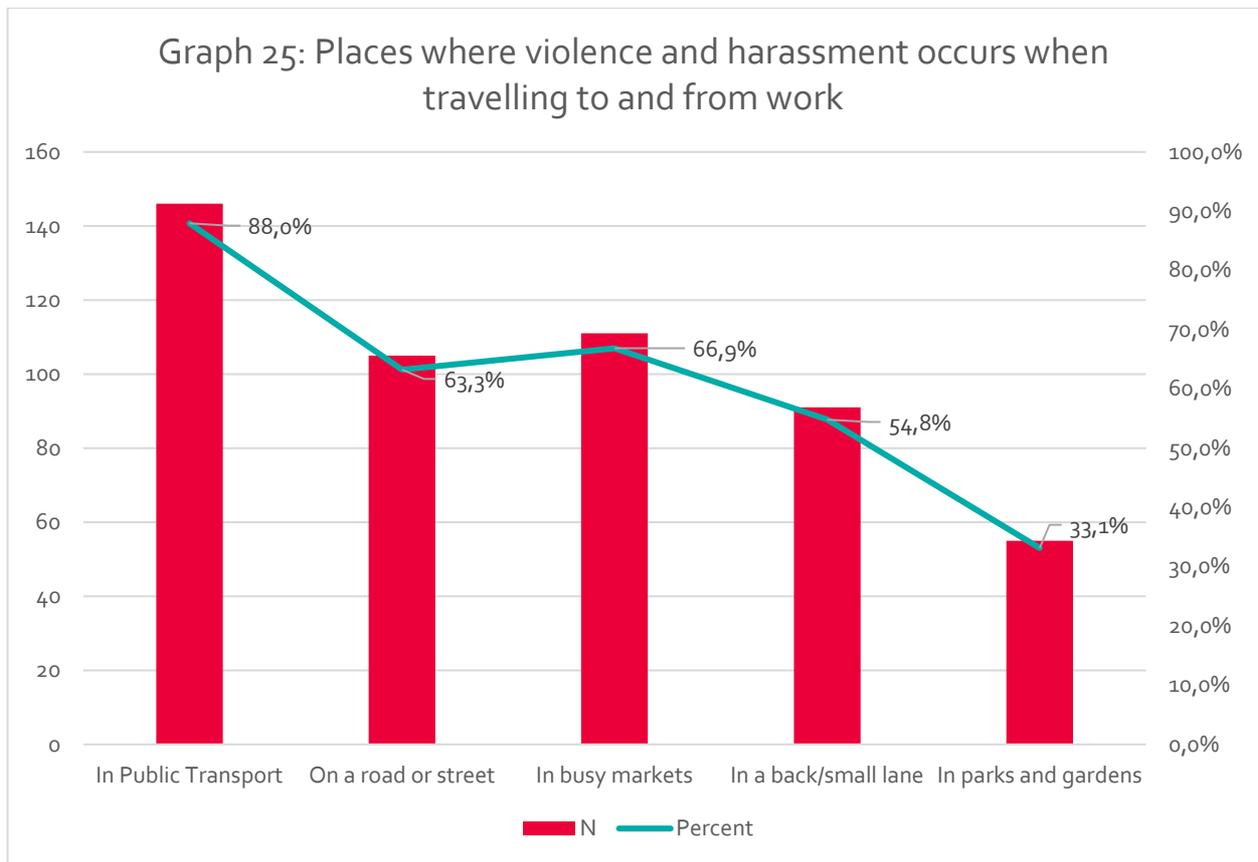
According to Article 6 of the Regulation On Working Conditions Of Female Employees On Night Shifts 'Employers of all kinds of workplaces outside the municipal boundaries and employers of workplaces

within the municipal boundaries, but within the municipal boundaries, where it is difficult to commute by public transport during the postal change hours, are obliged to take the female employees they will employ in night shifts from the centre closest to their residence to the workplace with the appropriate vehicles they will provide’.

After overtime, 7.2 per cent of women return home by public transport, and 14,5 per cent of women return home by walking, while 8.6 per cent of men return home by public transport and 14,3 per cent of men return home by walking.

Table 42 Means of transport to the workplace

	How do you usually travel to work?	Frequency	Percent
Female	Bus provided by employer	116	69,9
	Car	3	1,8
	Public transport (bus, minibus, metro, metrobus, etc)	14	8,4
	Walking	33	19,9
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Bike	1	0,7
	Bus provided by employer	100	71,4
	Car	5	3,6
	Public transport (bus, minibus, metro, metrobus, etc)	12	8,6
	Walking	22	15,7
	Total	140	100,0



* Since a person can tick more than one option, each heading should be evaluated in itself.

The research team asked women workers what measures they individually take to protect themselves from sexual and gender-based violence and harassment. As seen in Box 4, the women implement many different measures for their safety.

Box: 4 Individual Safety Measures of Female Workers

- 51,2 per cent of the women workers avoid certain public spaces to ensure their safety
- 71,7 per cent of the women workers avoid going out alone when is dark as a safety measure
- 74,1 per cent of the women workers avoid wearing certain clothes to ensure their safety.
- 56,6 per cent of the women workers always try to travel with another worker if it is late at night
- 8,4 per cent of the women workers carry items such as pepper spray, safety pins or keys in their hand
- Only 5,4 per cent of the women workers do not take any precautions as they always feel safe

7.7. WOMEN WORKERS' EXPERIENCES OF VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT AND THEIR SUGGESTIONS FOR RELEVANT MEASURES

This section discusses women workers' experiences of violence and harassment and the measures they suggest promoting gender equality and combat harassment and violence in the workplace.

The main problems mentioned by women were pressure, gender discrimination shouting, and mobbing in the workplace. The prevalence of shouting and humiliation in garment production was expressed. A participant woman said that those who wanted to leave the factory could not leave because their compensation was not paid. This situation indicates that there is forced labour in the factory.

Another worker stated that she was regularly checked for toilet hours and was constantly told 'you are making a mistake' and 'if I had the authority, I would dismiss you'.

In Türkiye, menstruation is seen as a shameful event that should be hidden. Especially women who have painful menstruation periods have great difficulties in the workplace. Many participants demanded menstruation leave. They also stated that they had to hide their pads on these days.

'Equality between women and men should be ensured in workplaces, positive discrimination should be made for women - for example, women should be given paid leave during menstruation periods. There should be a woman supervisor or a woman boss to whom they can tell about this special situation.'

'For 10 years I worked only among women workers. We were very comfortable. We could leave our orchids in our drawers. Here, even on our menstrual days, we feel nervous going to and from the toilets.'

In addition, many women complained that the toilets were dirty. This situation shows the need for clean and enough toilets in the workplace as well as the need for sanitary pads in the toilets. With high inflation in Türkiye, sanitary pad prices have risen dramatically. Access to sanitary pads has become very difficult for financially deprived women garment workers. As part of workplace practices, at least one packet of sanitary pads could be provided free of charge to each female worker.

Workers frequently emphasised the key role of managerial response in combating harassment and violence. One worker emphasised the important role of managers with these words:

'It happens because managers allow it to happen, so it can be corrected with the intervention of managers.'

An Afghan woman, who had previously been subjected to harassment at her workplace in Mersin Free Zone and had left her job, expressed the importance of managers' attitudes towards violence and harassment.

'Managers should act more harshly in cases of harassment and similar incidents, that person (perpetrator) should not continue to work. When a woman says something (complains of harassment), they should understand how upset she is and how difficult it is to work. Chiefs should not use their power to suggest that they can offer anything.'

Other women expressed similar sentiments.

'The textile sector is often associated with harassment. In some enterprises, women do not have the opportunity to voice their complaints. This perhaps causes the problem to continue. I don't believe that bad people can change. I can't make a concrete suggestion.'

It was also stated that the management should not take a passive attitude towards harassment and should try to reveal the existence of harassment and violence:

'The management can gather only women and ask us questions about harassment in a place where there are no men. An atmosphere where we can speak out without hesitation should be created. The approach of 'such things do not happen here' should be avoided.'

Women also frequently expressed the need for a change in society and the need for an egalitarian social order that values women and does not discriminate based on gender.

'The society itself needs to change first. The view of women needs to change, laws need to be improved, criminals need to be punished. Harassment and murders are legitimised and popularised in Türkiye. '

'Women's labour should be respected. They should not be seen only as a mother. Women should be able to have everything that men have. Divorced women should not be pressurised and harassed.'

7.8. DOMESTIC VIOLENCE EXPERIENCES OF THE WORKERS

In this sub-section, women's experiences of domestic violence and workers' views on domestic violence are analysed in order to have a holistic analysis of all forms of gender-based violence and harassment that impact the workplace. One participant emphasized the role of prevention of domestic violence in combating violence at the workplace.

'Firstly, domestic violence must be prevented. If domestic violence is prevented in society, working life will also change.'

Indeed, tackling domestic violence is an important issue that business cannot afford to ignore. Domestic violence is a widespread problem in Türkiye and can also result in femicide. Of the participants, 7.2 per cent of women and 22.2 per cent of men agree that it is normal for husbands to resort to violence when they are angry, and that this situation should not go out of the family. This attitude also suggests that men who agree with this judgement may resort to domestic violence. Of female participants, 22.9 per cent stated that 'due to domestic violence, she or her colleague did not come to work or quit/was dismissed from work'. During the interviews, some workers also shared the details of how domestic violence impacted on women workers.

For example, one worker was subjected to physical and psychological violence, insults, swearing, beatings and threats by her ex-husband for 10 years. When she was 7 months pregnant, she was beaten by her husband. Divorced 2 years ago, this woman was afraid that her ex-husband would kill her or her family. This worker expressed her distrust of legal remedies in the following words:

'Women need justice first and foremost. If I could trust the law ... I could take refuge in the law, but I could not apply anywhere out of fear. I never even got a battering report.'

Another woman worker said that she had been subjected to physical and psychological violence by her husband for many years. The violence was so severe, she has been hospitalised many times, requiring intensive treatment and support. When she took refuge with her family, her husband threatened to kill her family. One of her daughters has a learning disability which affects her ability to interact with others. Three years ago, the daughter was sexually harassed and when the father found out about this, he used

violence against the daughter, who then attempted suicide (when she was 28 years old). After her daughter's suicide attempt, the worker received support from her employer. However, she hid the situation from her colleagues for fear of rumours.

These interviews point to the importance of employers taking responsibility to mitigate the effects of domestic violence at work. Supporting workers experiencing domestic violence can serve to protect workers at risk of domestic violence at work, prevent absenteeism, sick leave and layoffs, and is part of the social responsibility of companies. The severe consequences of the withdrawal from the Istanbul Convention and the non-implementation of 6284 Law to Protect Family and Prevent Violence against Woman, the abolition of which is currently under discussion, are also evident in these interviews.

It is noteworthy that the male and female respondents of the survey, when asked if they agree or disagree with the statement *'It is normal for a husband to sometimes resort to violence when he is angry. This situation should not go out of the family'*, the rate of female workers who agree with the statement is 7.2 per cent while the rate of male workers is 22.2 per cent.

Table 44 Attitudes towards domestic violence

	Statement: It is normal for a husband to sometimes resort to violence when he is angry. This situation should not go out of the family	Frequency	Percent
Female	Strongly Disagree	122	73,5
	Disagree	27	16,3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	5	3,0
	Agree	7	4,2
	Strongly Agree	5	3,0
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Strongly Disagree	76	54,3
	Disagree	21	15,0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	12	8,6
	Agree	11	7,9
	Strongly Agree	20	14,3
	Total	140	100,0

As with other forms of workplace violence, domestic violence affects the health and well-being, attendance, productivity and safety of victims, all of which impose significant costs on employers. At this point, employers have an important duty both to change the attitudes of their employees who are prone to violence and to protect their employees who are victims of violence. Victims of domestic violence in the workplace can be provided with counselling, a change of workplace or the creation of safe spaces to prevent harassment or violence from spouses or strangers, permission for the victim to attend lawyer interviews or hearings or to move to another location, and safe transport. Trade unions have also started to develop knowledge and negotiation skills for sectoral and workplace policies on domestic violence at work. This includes integrating domestic violence into collective bargaining and training union representatives and shop stewards on how to support victims of domestic violence sensitively. Trade unions should negotiate with employers for practical support in combating gender-based violence and harassment and ensure that the prevention of domestic violence in the workplace is included in workplace risk assessments and on the agendas of safety and health committees (Pillinger, 2016: 43-44).

8. ANALYSIS OF THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In this section, the outputs of the focus group discussions, which were held with trade unions and women's organisations, are analysed.

8.1. ANALYSIS OF THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS WITH TRADE UNIONS' REPRESENTATIVES

The representatives of four Trade Unions participated in the first focus group discussion. In this discussion, union representatives mostly expressed their views on gender-based violence. However, some unions also provided information about their activities and views on the living wage. Trade Union-1 representative stated that:

'We generally take the poverty threshold set by TÜRK-İŞ as a basis for the living wage. In the pilot study we conducted with ACT brands, we demanded that unionised workplaces be more advantageous in purchasing. The main role of unions is already the collective bargaining agreement (CBA). ACT relies on bargaining over workers' wages, which is only possible with a strong CB institution.'

The campaigns by IndustriALL and ILO against gender-based violence and harassment in the workplace have significantly impacted trade unions in the Turkish textile and garment industry. All four unions signed the IndustriALL pledge concerning the fight and prevention of gender-based violence 'Violence Against Women: Not in My Union, Not in My Workplace'. The support of both organisations has enabled trade unions to initiate work on gender-based violence.

'IndustriALL GE task force prepared documents and training materials that everyone can benefit from, and we benefited from them. IndustriALL Global Union's Global Framework Agreements (GFA) supported by the Global Framework Agreements (GFA), the first of the training activities planned to raise awareness on violence and harassment at the workplace and to lay the groundwork for the adoption of ILO Convention No. 190 (Representative of Trade Union-1).'

In terms of activities related to violence and harassment in the workplace, Trade Union-1 stands to the fore. As mentioned in second chapter, Trade Union-1 established a social dialogue platform for the

ratification of the convention by Türkiye and in this context, the 'Prevention of Violence and Harassment against Women in the Workplace' Project carried out by the union:

'We have an important study on the prevention of violence and harassment. We surveyed 2311 women with a 33-question questionnaire on violence and harassment. We forwarded the complaints to the brands... At the same time, in the collective labour agreements signed by our union, there is a clause stating that members who are found to have committed violence against women by a court decision cannot take part in union and workplace committees...Our union provides training to end violence and harassment by applying the zero violence principle in the workplaces where we have signed collective labour agreements. Training is needed on what violence and harassment are. We are working on how to create a mechanism to combat violence and harassment. For example, we have implemented a zero-tolerance document for violence in HM and their supplier workplaces...Training on Gender Equality in the Workplace, Effective Communication, Raising Awareness on Violence and Harassment' started on 25 April 2023 at one factory, where our union is organized.' (Representative of Trade Union-1).

Other trade unions are also working on steps to be taken in this regard with ILO support.

'We have worked directly with the ILO to integrate ILO 190 into our CBAs. We are currently working on the following in our union: Providing training on the subject; training of occupational health and safety specialists on this subject; development of grievance mechanisms; training of workplace representatives; (...) counselling' (Representative of Trade Union-2).

None of the participating trade unions have a complaint hotline or an institutionalised and systematic procedure for the follow-up of complaints of gender-based violence and harassment. All participants emphasised the importance of establishing such a mechanism:

There is rudeness related to speech and behaviour at the workplace. One of the important problems here is how to intervene with the perpetrator. There is a need for an institutional intervention method that emphasises the institution, not the victim. Trade unions should take the lead and ask the employer to intervene in their committees. What should be done? It is important to integrate gender-based violence and harassment into collective labour agreements. In addition, it is necessary to define the grievance mechanisms very well and to disseminate information on this issue (Representative of the Trade Union-2)

All participants stated that there were very few cases of gender-based violence and harassment reported to trade unions. They also shared their experiences on the procedures they have used so far for the complaints they have received:

'When there is a problem related to violence or harassment in the workplace, the brand applies to us. We provide one-to-one coaching to the witness, victim, and perpetrator... Sometimes there are such situations that the grey-collar worker is not aware that he/she is committing violence. We have come a long way in this regard with training. We share complaints with our women's committee and work together. We make field visits and talk to the parties one-on-one, but we have not encountered many cases. So far, we have filed one mobbing and one harassment case.' (Trade Union-1)

'If there is a case of harassment or violence, it is evaluated, and the disciplinary process begins. There are also disciplinary procedures that are annexed to collective labour agreements. These complaints are assessed appropriately. The union's solution for one woman worker who has experienced violent harassment is to transfer her, who has been subjected to violence and harassment, to another branch of the factory in a different city. This will enable her to continue her life without harm.' (Representative of Trade Union-3)

The participants' statements reveal the lack of protective mechanisms for victims of violence in many textile factories and the importance of supervisors in developing these mechanisms. Once organisational policies and procedures on gender-based violence and harassment are established, supervisors need to be trained and tasked in this regard. As a representative from Fair Wear explained:

'Whenever a worker resigns due to violence or harassment at work, the reason is cited as poor performance or something similar. The factory does not know what to do in such a situation, how to follow the process. Mostly, the supervisor is consulted. With his/ her guidance, the issue is covered up, messages, if any, are deleted, and the perpetrator is put on annual leave. As a result, either the female worker resigns, or both the perpetrator and the victim are dismissed... Supervisors are the mainstays of the textile factories. The problem is mostly communicated to them. It is very important to train supervisors on this issue.' (Representatives of Fair Wear)

It was stated by all participants that not being aware of what constitutes harassment and what constitutes violence is a fundamental deficiency. Therefore, the concepts should be explained to

workers and managers through trainings. The representative from Fair Wear highlighted the importance of having a standard definition of violence and harassment.

'Workers also need to know what gender-based violence and harassment is. If they learn the definition of violence and harassment, it will be easier for them to fight and complain.'
(Representatives of Fair Wear)

'I consider targeting men in training to be very important. When men participate in the GE training, they say 'I wish we had received this training earlier, we should have raised our children accordingly.' After the training, we had male members who said, 'I was doing this behaviour, but I didn't know what it meant''. (Representative of Trade Union-2).

Participants emphasised the importance of training male workers and supervisors, as well as occupational health and safety (OHAS) professionals, on gender and gender-based violence and harassment and how to integrate violence and harassment into risk assessments:

'OHAS experts also do not know how to draw the framework of gender-based violence and harassment and how to conduct risk assessments. The concept of gender is also not really known. We gave training to both men and women, and the reaction of men was very good. While there is an attack against the concept of GE, this training is much more important' (Representative of Trade Union-2)

Another important emphasis is the need for a constant renewal of training and awareness-raising activities due to the high labour turnover in the sector:

'It is very important to provide training and concepts on gender-based violence. Female members have high labour turnover rates, so it is necessary to provide training over and over again.'
(Representative of Trade Union-3)

'We have adapted ILO 190 to all our collective labour agreements. However, it is necessary to know what violence is and what harassment is. It is very important to clarify the concepts. Many people say that what happened to me was harassment, after they have learnt what harassment is.'
(Representative of Trade Union-2)

The fact that female workers hide the information that they are divorced due to fear of gossip and harassment was also frequently mentioned in the interviews conducted within the scope of this project. Although the participants recognised the importance of increasing women's representation in trade unions, they stated that they had problems in this regard:

'One of the important points is that women are not organized. It is important to increase the number of women workplace representatives. We want workplace representatives who are elected, not appointed, but even in workplaces with more than 50 per cent female employees, there are no representative candidates'. (Representative of Trade Union-2)

'We reflected the work done through IndustriALL to our own union and we worked towards establishing a women commission within our union. However, we were unsuccessful in mobilizing the woman workers in this regard. We talked to them many times about the importance of the commission and standing up for their own problems, and although a few enthusiastic individuals stepped forward, we later found out that they did not follow through with the work. We initiated a series of trainings. We provided training to both women and men workers. We included certain clauses in their collective agreements, but these clauses did not go beyond the intention. (Representative of Trade Union-3)

Family meetings with unionised workers, training and support programmes for women workers, mentoring and quotas can enable women to be more willing to stand for representation roles. The two most emphasised issues in this focus group discussion are the importance of training of male/female workers, supervisors, managers and OHAS experts on gender-based violence and harassment and the step-by-step identification of grievance mechanisms for trade unions.

8.2. ANALYSIS OF FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS WITH REPRESENTATIVES OF WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS

Focus group discussions were held online with the participation of representatives from five Women's Organisations, as well as a representative from one International Organisation. The representative of Women Organisation-2 did not take the floor due to lack of appropriate connection conditions. She submitted a written proposal.

These focus group discussions reveal the lack of sufficient awareness and advocacy on gender-based violence and harassment in the workplace, despite the long-standing and vigorous fight against gender-

based violence and femicide in Türkiye. This can be explained both by the small number of women's organisations working in the field of women's labour and the poor communication between women's organisations and workers' organisations:

'When we interviewed (blue-collar) working women, some were very conscious (about violence and harassment), while others were not. I am of the opinion that providing widespread training on gender-based violence and harassment first and then conducting surveys with workers will have more positive results.' (Women Organisation-1)

Participants emphasised the importance of gender equality training but found the gender equality trainings provided by workplaces inadequate in terms of target group and training purpose:

'In its previous research on women's labour and employment, Women Organisation-1 has encountered women's demand to work in a safe environment, and the lack of safety in workplaces is an important factor in women's withdrawal from working life. Factories need to provide more widespread training on gender equality. Garment companies demand gender equality training from us, but they mostly want us to give 'gender equality Certificates'. Their aim is marketing rather than training' (Women Organisation-1)

'We provide GE trainings to NGOs, trade unions, local authorities and chambers and monitor key indicators of women's safety such as lighting at night. We have also taken part in ILO 190 Experience sharing meetings. We receive training requests from the textile and garment sector, but these trainings are mostly for middle and senior managers. However, training should be provided to blue-collar workers' (Women Organisation-3).

Another important emphasis was that the struggle for wage transparency would contribute to achieving a living wage and narrowing the gender pay gap.

'The gender-based division of labour and the gender wage gap are mentioned a lot in our interviews with workers. They constantly ask the question 'why do men get paid more even though we work harder.... Wage transparency, which is very much on the agenda in the world, and the gender-based wage gap should be put on the agenda. Many countries have introduced wage transparency into the laws. This can also be put on the agenda here'. (Women Organisation-4) (Women Organisation-2 representative also gave strong support to this recommendation.)

Although Women Organisation-4 representative criticised the lack of a united struggle on gender-based violence and harassment, the International Organisation representative disagreed with this assessment.

'In the recent resistance of women workers in the textile industry, women mostly talk about mobbing and harassment. On the other hand, there is not much change in the trade union movement. There are not enough campaigns in this field. Why not enough campaigns? The link between trade unions and the feminist movement is weak. That's why there are not so many campaigns. For example, for ILO 190, everyone is doing their own campaign, there is no united struggle.' (Women Organisation-4)

The International Organisation Representative pointed out that they had particularly brought all parties together in their campaigns following the ratification of ILO Convention No. 190:

The International Organisation has united all parties in the campaign to sign ILO Convention 190 since 2021. Workers, employers, NGOs... Although not at a sufficient level, the fight against domestic violence also entered the agenda of these campaigns. We prepared article examples and templates for collective labour agreements; we organised awareness raising trainings and meetings. We are planning to conduct research concerning gender-based violence at the workplaces. (International Organisation)

Representative of Women Organisation-4 suggested that the English guidelines on these issues be published in Turkish:

'Domestic violence should also be an area of union struggle. There are guides on violence and work-life balance, but there is no Turkish version, these guides should be translated into Turkish. Workplace representatives should receive training on how to gender-based violence and harassment identify victims of. Trade unions should campaign for paid leave for women victims of violence in order to combat domestic violence.'

9. CONCLUSION

The results of the field research conducted in eighteen factories with 140 male and 166 female workers provide important data on workers' working conditions, working hours, wages and experiences of violence and harassment in the garment industry. These data point to long working hours, low wages, deep poverty, gender inequality and the existence of violence and harassment at the workplace.

The gender-based division of labour in the garment industry is profound. The results of the research also reflect this division of labour. While the majority of women work as sewing operator or quality control workers, the majority of men work as sewing operators or print workers. Gender-based discrimination is still firmly entrenched; 79.5 per cent of women and 83.6 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for men. Likewise, 77.2 per cent of women and 72.1 per cent of men think that there are jobs specialised only for women.

Workers' wages are far from the living wage and, on the contrary, lead them to live in deep poverty. The household income of 68 per cent of the workers is below €830,40. Household income of 10.8 per cent of female workers and 18.6 per cent of male workers is below €415,20. However, surveys carried out by trade union confederations in the period of June and July 2022 when the survey started have determined that the hunger threshold was over €311,40, and the poverty threshold was over €1038. As a result, only 7.8 per cent of the total workers think that their current wage is a living wage. Low wages have led to high poverty. It was found that 77,7 per cent of the female workers and 81,4 per cent of the male workers participating in this study had severe material deprivation.

According to our research, 80.4 per cent of workers work between 9 and 11 hours a day on average. Long working hours are problematic for most of workers, and particularly for workers with care and family responsibilities. Approximately 2/3 of the employed workers have dependent children. Long working hours both violate labour rights and create conflict between work and family life.

The patriarchal judgements that prevail in Türkiye are significant obstacles to women's employment, as well as imposing domestic responsibilities entirely on women. The research found that 47,6 per cent of women and 67 per cent of men agree and strongly agree that 'women should not work unless absolutely necessary. This patriarchal perspective is at the root of the discrimination, violence and harassment women are subjected to. This perspective constructs the workplace as a place that belongs only to men. Thus, women workers are excluded and may even be subjected to violence and harassment.

This research has provided evidence of violence and harassment at a striking level. Approximately one in five women reported inappropriate behaviour by a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., in the factory, such as making sexual remarks; making inappropriate or offensive comments about her or someone else's body, appearance or sexual activities; asking her or her colleague inappropriate questions about other personal issues, e.g. religious beliefs, social actions, her political beliefs etc. or having rumours of a sexual spread about her or that she witnessed of a colleague at work. 16, 87 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., made obscene sexual gestures, sounds or stares. While 7,23 per cent of the women said that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc., had contact with her/her colleague involving kissing or other sexual touching and had unwanted physical contact with her/ colleague, 3,61 per cent of women reported that a colleague, supervisor, manager, etc. sexually assaulted or forced her (or a colleague). Overall, in the experiences of one out of every three respondents, the main perpetrators are male colleagues. However, patriarchal norms, victim-blaming attitudes, fear of being subjected to rumours at the workplace and fear of their husbands' reactions prevent women from applying to complaint mechanisms. Research results reveal that grievance mechanisms at workplaces are not functional.

10. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the research team has formulated recommendations for several actors: brands, suppliers, Government, trade unions and Fair Wear. These recommendations indicate potential areas for implementing change within brand and supplier policies, practices and procedures, social dialogue initiatives, multi-stakeholder structures and other joint collaborations, and legislative and procedural change within institutions and government.

The recommendations for brands are grounded in a human rights due diligence framework, with brands taking responsibility for human rights throughout their whole value chain and embedding this throughout all their business practices. In order to do this, brands need to effectively, and in good faith, engage with relevant stakeholders, such as suppliers, workers' representatives, and workers.

Moreover, the recommendations encourage increased support to ensure that insights from local structures – in particular workers' voice – are translated into effective guidance for and verification of brands and helps to determine which information leads to which brand actions.

RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING LIVING WAGE

Recommendations for Brands

- Engage in respectful sourcing dialogue; and strive for mutually beneficial outcomes, with a shared responsibility to improve working conditions.
- Support unionisation in supplier workplaces and prioritise unionised workplaces in supplier selection.
- Set a goal to increase wages and implement systematically financing approaches throughout your supplier base. Have a solid strategy and map of the process, and a holistic approach on 'how you fulfil your responsibilities.'
- Demonstrate a clear understanding of the labour cost component of its buying prices. Labour costs are fixed (not negotiable).
- Collaborate with other brands at production sites to raise wages in the garment supply chain.
- Take a proactive role in changing purchasing practices: Whilst brands generally do not have direct control over workers, they are decisive in determining the retail value of a product, which is an important variable for 'wage levels'. Fair Wear Foundation has observed that brands commonly calculate the retail value of a product and use projected retail figures to determine the product's target margin, enabling 'top-down pricing'. For the prices paid by brands to cover the costs of living wages, there must necessarily be pricing that takes into account the amount of labour required to make clothing and the cost of that labour. Change brands' purchasing

practices, planning and the building of long-term business relations with subcontractors, can play a role in reducing the risks of production pressures (Pillinger, 2019). It can also prevent competition based solely on labour cost minimisation. Low wages are not the only reflection of the effort to minimise labour costs. Compulsory overtime, serving cheap and poor-quality meals, unregistered employment and hiring daily workers are also common practices. In addition, brands should recalculate and revise the product prices at least every 3 months using the Fair Price application, in response to the pressure on labour costs caused by the increase in raw material and material prices against high inflation, with which they agreed with their suppliers months ago.

- Develop mechanisms to avoid exceeding the factory's production capacity or excessive overtime. Implement protocols to mitigate overtime.
- Recognise the concept of a living wage as an essential aspect of decent work and its importance for responsible business and gender equality. Achieving gender equality in a workplace is not only based on gender-based discrimination in recruitment and employment processes. Many women garment workers work second shifts at home in addition to working long hours in the factory. Women are not only poor in terms of money, but also in terms of time. Earning below the living wage leads women in the garment industry to work excessive overtime, deepening their time poverty. A living wage would also allow women more time to participate in social, cultural and political life and enable work-life balance.
- Calculate the prices taking into account the living wages and time of the workers who produce the products. Maintaining a solid relationship between the payments to suppliers and the wages that suppliers pay their workers.
- Pay suppliers in a timely manner.
- Set clear rules in contractual arrangements for suppliers concerning wages, working conditions, payments, gender equality and prevention of gender-based violence and harassment.
- In case of adverse economic conditions, make it clear to the factory that, as a business partner, brands are committed to working together with their suppliers and offering support to the factory and its workers throughout this difficult period.
- Monitor whether living wages are paid by suppliers.
- Avoid short notice changes in orders and recognise that this can lead to excessive overtime work.

Recommendations for Suppliers

- Develop wage policy and procedure in accordance with the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Implement a monitoring system for wages to align with international standards.
- Respect the freedom of association and the rights of collective bargaining. Make collaboration with trade union to improve working conditions in the workplace.
- Ensure that all workers in the workplace are treated equally in terms of their wages and working conditions. Implement a 'pay transparency' policy among the workers.

- Communicate with your brands so they are able to understand how their purchasing practices are effecting issues such as exceeding factory production capacity, excessive overtime, low wages,
- Work with brands to ensure that increased prices paid by brands reach workers so that they make a living wages that allow them to cover all basic living expenses, and to ensure a wage that takes into account basic criteria such as seniority, education level and difficulty of the job while calculating wages.
- Provide training on 'wage calculation, overtime premium and pay slips' to the workers.
- Collect gender-disaggregated data for all the HR practices as well as wages in order to identify the gender pay gap. Gender roles in society position women in lower-skilled and lower-paid jobs in the workplace, while men are able to earn higher wages in these lower-skilled jobs. It is important to conduct research and make determinations on whether job segregation based on gender and gender-based wage disparities exist. This will help end gender-based division of labour and wage discrepancies.
- Work with brands to avoid exceeding the factory's production capacity. Avoid compulsory and excessive overtime work under all circumstances.
- With their own suppliers of materials, prevent delays in material procurement by establishing continuous and sustainable supply relationships.

Recommendations for Trade Unions

- Adopt union policies to prevent gender-based division of labour and wage inequality and use collective agreements as a tool for this purpose.
- Make collaboration with brands and suppliers to improve working conditions in the garment supply chain.
- Carry out wage surveys in the garment sector and expose how wage levels in the sector are below the living wage.
- Work in collaboration with local and international multiple stakeholder groups, such as MSIs (Multi-Stakeholder Initiatives), NGOs (Non-Governmental Organisations), universities, worker rights organisations, and women's organisations, to actively promote and advocate for the rights of workers.
- Organise campaigns against low wages and poor working conditions in the garment sector and enlisting the support of consumers.
- Collaborate with IndustriALL, ETUC, ITUC, and the ILO to enhance the proportion of union membership within the brand's supply chain.

Recommendations for the Government

- Remove de facto and de jure barriers to unionisation in Türkiye, on the basis that freedom of association, strong trade unions and effective collective bargaining at workplace and sectoral levels are critical to living wages.
- Ratify the Convention No. 131 of ILO regarding the determination of the minimum wage and lift the reservation regarding the minimum wage imposed by the European Social Charter. (The minimum wage should be determined as an amount that allows not only a worker but also their family to make a living, in accordance with international standards)
- Ensure that the minimum wage is determined by an independent commission that is impartial and represents all the concerned parties equally.
- Develop policies to combat worker poverty and protect workers against high inflation waves. Additionally, strive to raise the minimum wage to a level that ensures a living wage.
- Carry out a radical transformation of development policies based on production with cheap labour.
- Legal regulations should be made in the conditions of unemployment insurance application in order to relax the conditions of unemployment insurance benefits, extend its duration, and increase the amount of unemployment benefits, as a precaution to protect workers against poverty.
- Increase the frequency and number of workplace labour inspections and ensure effective systems for inspecting living wages and gender pay gap.
- In cooperation with the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Labour, the Union of Turkish Bar Associations and Trade Union Confederations, establish a workers' legal support programme to improve workers' access to free legal advice and legal aid especially on workers' rights, discrimination and gender-based violence and harassment at the workplace.
- Incorporate pay transparency and gender pay gap reporting into legislation.

Recommendations for Fair Wear

- Prepare guidelines on living wages and combating gender-based violence and harassment for trade unions, women's organisations and manufacturing companies in Türkiye and/or translating existing guidelines into Turkish and adapting them to the Turkish context.
- Promote the Fair Price application tool more widely and its adoption by more brands and their suppliers.
- Train and raise awareness amongst suppliers on the Fair Pricing Methodology to increase wages. Onboard of interested suppliers.
- Work on strengthening relationships with other Turkish stakeholders that are working on the topic of a living wage, such as universities and unions that are involved in wage benchmarking.
- Prioritise disseminating best practices and lessons learned throughout its network.

- Incorporate the principles of pay transparency and pay equity into the Fair Wear's Code of Labour Practices.
- Discuss the importance of pay transparency and pay equity with member brands and guide them in this regard.
- Develop awareness raising publications, podcasts, social media posts and organising campaigns to make visible the high poverty and low wages of garment workers in Türkiye.

RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING GENDER-BASED VIOLATION AND HARASSMENT

Recommendations for Brands

- Review all existing company's policies and procedures in terms of gender equality.
- Carry out due diligence on gender equality and gender-based violence and harassment by drawing on guidance provided by Fair Wear.
- Collect gender-disaggregated data within the supply chain, and analyse it to understand the links between the business conduct of your brand and gender inequality. Use the data to inform your business practices.
- Create, support, monitor, and document an action plan to ensure gender equality in the supply chain.
- Support suppliers in receiving training on gender equality and gender-based violence and harassment within the value chain, promoting gender equality in their work practices.
- Lead the implementation of a zero-tolerance policy on gender-based violence and harassment by suppliers and ensure that suppliers adopt these policies through programmes including the sharing of good practice examples, consultancy and training.
- Raise awareness among suppliers to prioritize the needs of vulnerable groups of workers, such as young people, migrants, pregnant women, the elderly, and individuals with disabilities.
- Draw up contractual obligations on suppliers e.g., to have a workplace policy, a complaints system and measures to prevent gender-based violence and harassment.

Recommendations for Suppliers

- Adopt a comprehensive policy on zero tolerance to gender-based violence and harassment which is aligned with ILO Convention No. 190 / Recommendation No. 206. A statement of commitment to zero tolerance, should cover all workers regardless of their contractual status, trainees, interns, job applicants, whistle-blowers and witnesses and that the policy covers all workers regardless of the gender, gender identity or sexual orientation; there is no victimisation/retaliation against complainants and witnesses. The policy covers all forms of gender-based

violence and harassment, including sexual harassment, stalking and domestic violence when it impacts the workplace.

- Transform the factory grievance mechanisms into a reliable system where sensitive issues such as violence and harassment can be addressed. Prepare a policy and procedure regarding this matter.
- Review all current company policies and procedures with regard to gender equality, including documents related to recruitment and termination policies. Create, announce, and ensure the implementation of a workplace policy regarding violence and harassment. Review the policy document annually and make improvements to its shortcomings.
- Provide clear and accessible information about the policy, made available for workers and in a language and format that they can understand.
- Evaluate the complaints on violence and harassment, establish a commission to investigate the issue consisting of two women representing the management and two women representing the workers, for a total of four person. The committee should be composed of women with the authority to conduct investigations on gender-based violence and harassment. The committee, along with the information and documents it collects, will submit an evaluation report to the Workplace Discipline Committee and/or upper management. If necessary, the factory should seek guidance from an expert consultant.
- Evaluate acts of gender-based violence and harassment in the workplace as disciplinary offenses. Consider the statement of the woman as essential in the investigation of violence and harassment. The other party is obligated to prove otherwise. Hold perpetrators accountable by consistently applied sanctions.
- Provide support for victims and survivors, including counselling and paid leave for necessary appointments with doctors, lawyers, etc. Consider making changes to the working schedule, such as changing the shift or transferring to a different workplace if possible. Additionally, relocation between departments may be an option up on worker's consent. Ensure that personal and confidential data and information related to the victim, which is held by the employer, is not shared or disclosed. Domestic violence should also be part of factories' anti-violence policies. Women workers who are victims of domestic violence should also be able to benefit from the above-mentioned supports.
- Raise awareness about gender-based violence and harassment, including a commitment to examining the organisation's values, policies and procedures to identify the causes of gender-based violence and harassment and unequal power relationships in the workplace, along with specific awareness raising events are held in the workplace. Research shows that one of the most important predictors of sexual harassment is organisational culture. While focusing solely on policies and procedures will largely fail to reduce sexual harassment, significant changes in organisational culture can help foster an equitable workplace climate and a culture of respect. Training and awareness raising are important tools for this cultural change (UNWOMEN, 2018: 61).
- Carry out training and awareness raising for workers, supervisors, occupational health and safety specialists, workplace doctors and managers on preventing and addressing gender-based violence and harassment, on appropriate behaviour in the workplace, creating safe spaces for

workers to discuss gender-based violence and harassment, training on investigation for the committee members, including how to effectively remediation of complaints.

- Communicate its gender-based violence and harassment policy to its business partners, subcontractors, service providers, and suppliers through trainings. Ensure that your gender equality policies are included in the service and goods procurement agreement.
- Consider violence and harassment as a matter of occupational health and safety. When conducting risk assessments related to gender-based violence and harassment, also include domestic violence in your evaluations. Take measures to eliminate, mitigate identified risks. Implement necessary measures and awareness raising regarding violence and harassment in the workplace and include them in legal periodic health and safety trainings.
- Commit to reducing gender inequality in employment in order to end gender-based violence and harassment and aims to implement positive measures that increase the number of women in the garment sector's recruitment processes and all working areas. Fight against discrimination based on gender, gender identity, and sexual orientation.

Recommendations for Trade Unions

- Review the union statute, executive board, union staff regulations, collective agreements, trainings, publications, member roles, and all activities offered to members and all existing policies/procedures through a gender lens and to reconstruct them in a gender-equal manner.
- Hire a gender expert who will support the mainstreaming of gender equality and coordinate awareness-raising activities for gender equality.
- Monitor the working conditions of unionised workplaces through a gender lens.
- Raise the awareness of all union representatives on gender equality, violence, and harassment through education and various activities.
- Provide legal support and guidance to victims of violence and harassment.
- Publish simple user-friendly manuals and infographics in Turkish, Farsi and Arabic on the basic rights of workers, remedies in case of rights violations, gender-based violence and harassment, and legal remedies for victims of violence.
- Set target that will promote gender equality in all levels within the union and act proactively to achieve them. Create women committees, commissions, and networking groups with a specific focus on advancing women's empowerment. Support, train and mentor women workers to engage in positions of union representation.
- Push for the ratification and implementation of ILO C190 in Türkiye and argue for it to be used as a framework in all workplaces. Campaign and advocate against gender-based violence and harassment among union members and in the public.
- Integrate the following provisions into their collective labour agreements:
 - Clearly and comprehensively defining and prohibiting gender-based violence and harassment, including its physical, verbal, non-verbal and sexual forms that are understood by all.

- Publishing a zero-tolerance statement on violence and harassment against women in the workplace
- Establishing a workplace committee, composed of employer and worker representatives, tasked with monitoring the implementation of the policy.
- Organising training programmes concerning gender-based violence
- Establishing an effective, fully confidential complaints and enquiry mechanism and implementing specific timeframes to ensure a timely and diligent resolution.
- Providing flexible (paid or unpaid) leave or flexible working hours to enable victims to seek protection, attend court appointments or seek safe accommodation for children.

Recommendations for Government

- Develop gender mainstreaming policies and strategies and ensure that this includes mainstreaming of gender-based violence and harassment into all policies and procedures covered by the workplace.
 - Invest to create more and better jobs for women.
 - Strengthen the capacities of support services for victims of gender-based violence and harassment, including women's shelters and increase their number.
 - Initiate a comprehensive fight against gender-based violence and harassment by ratifying ILO Convention 190 and re-ratifying the Istanbul Convention.
- Incorporate the principles and provisions contained in C190 and the Istanbul Convention into national criminal and labour laws and practices, as part of a comprehensive legal approach to ending domestic violence, gender-based violence and harassment at work.
- Provide financial support to women who have experienced violence and harassment so that they can rebuild their lives.
- Train law enforcement officers, judges and prosecutors on gender-based violence and harassment.
- Improve legal aid and support mechanisms to increase women's access to justice.
- -Develop gender-responsive labour inspection mechanisms and train inspectors on gender equality and gender-based violence and harassment.
- Increase the frequency of inspections and the number of inspectors.
- Develop measures to prevent daily contract labour and other forms of informal employment in garment factories.
- Expand social insurance incentives for young and female workers to increase formal employment.
- Evaluate workplaces by adopting a tool developed for gender-equal workplace practices or by developing a gender-equal workplace tool designed for this purpose. Provide insurance premium incentives, tax deductions, etc. to workplaces that fulfill the necessary conditions.

- Integrate gender-based violence and harassment at the workplace into KADES application (KADES is an emergency response application prepared by the General Directorate of Security against violence and harassment to which women and children are exposed.).
- Ensure that the legislation allows trade unions to have workplace gender-disaggregated data available anonymously.

Recommendations for Fair Wear

- Incorporate the principles of pay transparency and pay equity into the Fair Wear's Code of Labour Practices.
- Develop closer relations with women's organisations and cooperate with women's organisations as well as trade unions in combating violence and harassment in the workplace.
- Preparing publications, videos and podcasts, making social media posts and organising campaigns to make the problem of gender-based violence and harassment in garment workplaces visible.
- Provide guidance for brands, suppliers and trade unions on carrying out due-diligence on gender-based violence and harassment, including best practices in training, and the development of workplace policies and prevention measures in the workplace.
- Create a training module on addressing violence and harassment for workers, supervisors and management.
- Translate the Gender-based Violence in Global Supply Chains resource kit prepared in cooperation into Turkish and adapt it to Türkiye (<https://gbv.itcilo.org/>).

11. REFERENCES

1. Acar-Savran, G., Tura-Demiryontan, N. (2008). *Kadının Görünmeyen Emeği*. İstanbul: Yordam.
2. Akgökçe, N. (2022). *Women in Trade Unions*, retrieved from <https://feministbellek.org/sendikada-kadinlar>.
3. Akyelken, N. (2016). *Organize Sanayi Bölgeleri'nde Kadın İstihdam Yapısı Ve Erişilebilirlik*. The World Bank, retrieved from: <http://kasaum.ankara.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/sites/34/2013/02/ORGANIZE-SANAYI-BOLGELERINDE-KADIN-ISTIH DAM-YAPISI-VE-ERISILEBILIRLIK.pdf>
4. Altuntaş, B., Topcuoğlu, R.A. (2014). *Engelli Hakları, Bakım Güvencesi ve Toplumsal Cinsiyete Dayalı İş Bölümü Çerçevesinde Evde Bakım Hizmeti*. VI. Sosyal İnsan Hakları Ulusal Sempozyumu, 13-14 Kasım, Eskişehir, 307-322
5. Arslan Batuk, L. (2022). *Türk Tekstil Ve Hazır Giyim Sektörleri Dış Ticaretinin Katma Değer Ve Dikey Uzmanlaşma Açısından İncelenmesi*. (Unpublished Expertise Thesis) İstanbul: Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası Yapısal Ekonomik Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü.
6. Arslan, A. (2019). Kapitalist Ataerkinin Ablukasında Kadınların Sınıf Deneyimleri: İzmir Konfeksiyon Sektöründe Üretim Süreçlerinin ve Gündelik Hayatın Cinsiyetçi Yapısı. *Praksis*, 52, 135- 155.
7. Aytac, S., Bozkurt, V. Bayram, N., Yıldız, S. Aytac, M., Sokullu Akinci, N, Bilgel, N. (2011). Workplace Violence: A Study of Turkish Workers, *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics*, 17:4, 385-402.
8. Better Work (2014). *Garment Factory Characteristics and Workplace Sexual Harassment*, retrieved from <https://betterwork.org/portfolio/garment-factory-characteristics-and-workplace-sexual-harassment>.
9. BİSAM (2022). *Metal İşçilerinin Mesleki Sağlık Riskleri ve Sağlık Durumları Saha Araştırması I*, retrieved from <https://www.birlesikmetal.org/index.php/tr/guncel/toplant/1896-isiq-22>
10. Çelik, Y., Çelik, S. Ş. (2007). Sexual Harassment Against Nurses in Türkiye. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 39(2), 200–206.
11. Clean Cloths Campaign (2021). *Covid 19 Salgınının Tekstil Sektörü İşgücüne Etkisi Araştırması*, retrieved from <https://www.stgm.org.tr/sites/default/files/2021-06/coc-covid19-rapor-final.pdf>
12. Clean Cloths Campaign (2022). *Türkiye Tekstil Endüstrisi Profili ve Yaşam Ücreti*, retrieved from https://www.temizgiysi.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/CP_TR.pdf
13. Coneybeer, R. M. (2022). *Evading Responsibility: Living Wage Methodologies and Initiatives in the Fashion Industry*. Centre for Justice Briefing Paper, retrieved from <https://research.qut.edu.au/centre-for-justice/wp-content/uploads/sites/304/2023/03/Briefing-Paper-Series-Dec22-Issue34-09022023-1.pdf>.
14. Dedeoğlu S. (2012). *Türkiye'de Tekstil Sektörü ve Kadın İşçiler, Gaziantep, Kahramanmaraş, Malatya ve Adıyaman Araştırması*, Ankara: ILO.
15. Dedeoğlu, S., Şanhanakaya, A. (2016) Türkiye'de İşverenlerin Kadın İstihdam Etmeye Yönelik Tutumları: Malatya, Şanlıurfa ve Adıyaman Örneğinde Talep Yönlü Bir Analiz, Ankara: World Bank.
16. Dursun, S., Aytaç, S. (2011). İşyerinde Şiddet Davranışlarının Çalışan Üzerindeki Etkisi: Bir Uygulama. *TISK Akademi*, 2011(1): 6-29.
17. Eğitim-Sen (2003). Çalışan kadın olmak zor. Cumhuriyet Gazetesi, 5 Ekim.
18. Erdoğan, S. (2021). Toplumsal Cinsiyetin Esnek Üretim Sistemine Transferi: Mersin Kadın Konfeksiyon İşçileri Üzerine Nitel Bir Araştırma. *Çalışma ve Toplum*, 2021. (4).
19. Erol, E., Akyol, A. E., Salman, C., Pınar, E., Gümüşcan, İ., Mısırlı, K.Y., Kahveci, M., Mutlu, P. (2017). *Suriyeli Sığınmacıların Türkiye'de Emek Piyasasına Dahil Olma Süreçleri ve Etkileri: İstanbul Tekstil Sektörü Örneği*, İstanbul: Birleşik Metal-İş Yayınları.
20. ETI (2022). ETI Base Code Guidance, retrieved from <https://www.ethicaltrade.org/eti-base-code>.
21. Eurostat (2020), retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Gender_pay_gap_statistics.
22. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Gender_pay_gap_statistics.

23. Fair Wear (2012). *Climbing the ladder to living wages*, retrieved from <https://api.fairwear.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/ClimbingtheLadderReport.pdf>.
24. Fair Wear (2018). *Türkiye Country Study 2017-2018*, retrieved from <https://api.fairwear.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/Türkiye-Country-Study-2017-2018.pdf>.
25. Fair Wear (2019). *Living Wage Policy*, retrieved from <https://api.fairwear.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Fair-Wear-Living-Wage-Policy-V2-July-2020-updated-Oct2020.pdf>
26. Fair Wear (2021). *Fair Wear Fair Working Hours Guide*. retrieved from <https://api.fairwear.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/Fair-Wear-Fair-Working-Hours-Guide-vDEF2.pdf>.
27. Gerelioğlu, Z. (2022). Women employment perspectives of employers and employees in Denizli. Denizli: Pamukkale Üniversitesi [Unpublished master's thesis]
28. IHKIB (2023). *Turkish Apparel*, retrieved from <https://www.ihkib.org.tr/fp-icerik/ia/d/2023/02/03/2023-02-3-guncel-durum-202302031653370120-3C860.pdf>.
29. Gülenç, N. (2018). *Kadınlar için şiddetten arındırılmış işyerleri ve sendikalar*, retrieved from <https://sendika.org/2018/12/kadinlar-icin-siddetten-arindirilmis-isyerleri-ve-sendikalar-nuran-gulenc-521541/#more>.
30. İlkaracan, P., İlkaracan, İ. (1998). 1990'lar Türkiye'sinde Kadın Ve Göç, in: O. Baydar (Ed.) *75. Yılda Köylerden Şehirlere*, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yayınları, 305-322.
31. ILO and IFC (2013), *Progress and potential, findings from an independent impact assessment*. Geneva: Better Work.
32. ILO (2011). *Equality at Work: The Continuing Challenge*, Geneva: ILO.
33. ILO, SIDA, TURKSTAT (2020). *Measuring The Gender Wage Gap Türkiye Case*, retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---europe/---ro-geneva/---ilo-ankara/documents/publication/wcms_756660.pdf.
34. ILO (2022). Pay transparency legislation: Implications for employers' and workers' organisations, retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/travail/info/publications/WCMS_849209/lang--en/index.htm
35. Kara, D., Toygar, S. A. (2018). Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment of Health Care Employees: A Turkish Case Study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 34 (17).
36. Karşılaştığı Sorunlar Hakkında Bir Uygulama. *İktisadiyat*, 1(1), 145-170.
37. Kaya, E. (2020). Denizli tekstil sektöründe emek süreci: Nitel bir analiz. Denizli: Pamukkale Üniversitesi. [Unpublished master's thesis]
38. Kaya, G. (2018). *Az gelişmiş Bölgenin Tekstil Sektöründe Kadın İşçi Olmak: Adıyaman Örneği*, *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 17 (68), 1502-1517.
39. Külek, C., Çavuş, C.Z. (2022). *The relationship between labour-intensive textile industry and the urbanisation in Istanbul's districts*, TÜCAUM 2022 International Geography Symposium 12-14 October 2022, Ankara.
40. Kümbetoğlu, B. User, İ., Akpınar, A. (2012). Kayıp işçi kadınlar- kayıt dışı çalışmaya dair bir alan araştırması. İstanbul: Bağlam Yayıncılık.
41. Lortoğlu, S. C. and Kurtulmuş, M. M. (2020). Tekstil Sektöründe Suriyeli Çocuk Emeği: İstanbul Örneği. *Marmara Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*. 42 (1), 124-156.
42. Ministry of Industry and Technology, UNDP (2021). *Tekstil Sektörü Analiz Raporu Ve Kılavuzu TR31 Bölgesi (İzmir)*, Ankara: T.C. Sanayi ve Teknoloji Bakanlığı Kalkınma Ajansları Genel Müdürlüğü.
43. Ministry of Industry and Technology, UNDP (2021). *Tekstil Sektörü Analiz Raporu Ve Kılavuzu TR62 Bölgesi (Adana, Mersin)*, Ankara: T.C. Sanayi ve Teknoloji Bakanlığı Kalkınma Ajansları Genel Müdürlüğü.
44. MoLSS (2023a). *Çalışma Hayati İstatistikleri Aylık E-Bülteni*, retrieved from <https://www.csgeb.gov.tr/media/90579/calisma-hayati-istatistikleri-aylik-e-bulten-subat-2023.pdf>
45. MoLSS (2023b). Sendikaların Üye Sayılarına İlişkin 2023 Ocak Ayı İstatistikleri. Retrieved from https://www.csgeb.gov.tr/media/90468/ocak_2023-isci.pdf.

46. Morrison, A. M., Von Glinow, M. A. (1990). *Women and Minorities in Management*. American Psychologist, 45: 200-208.
47. Ng, E. S., Sears, G. J. (2017). The Glass Ceiling in Context: The Influence of CEO Gender, Recruitment Practices and Firm Internationalisation on The Representation of Women in Management. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27 (1): 133–151.
48. Oelz, M., Olney, S., Tomei, M. (2013). *Equal Pay: An Introductory Guide*, Geneva: ILO.
49. ÖZ İPLİK-İŞ (2021). Öz İplik İş'ten Şiddet ve Tacize İlişkin Araştırma, Retrieved from https://www.oziplikis.org.tr/basina_aciklama-1352.html.
50. Paker, H. Uysal, G. (2015). *İşgücü Piyasasında Ayrımcılık ve Taciz*, Retrieved from <https://betam.bahcesehir.edu.tr/wpcontent/uploads/2015/09/ArastirmaNotu187.pdf>.
51. Pillinger, J. (2014). Bargaining for equality: How collective bargaining contributes to eliminating pay discrimination between women and men performing the same job or job of equal value. ETUC (Brussels). Retrieved from https://www.etuc.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/bargaining_equality_en.pdf
52. [etuc.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/bargaining_equality_en.pdf](https://www.etuc.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/bargaining_equality_en.pdf).
53. Pillinger, J. (2016). Psychosocial risks and violence in the World of work: A trade union perspective, Psychosocial risks, stress and violence in the world of work, *International Journal of Labour Research*, 8(1/2): 35-61.
54. Pillinger, J., Schmidt, V., Wintour, N. (2016). *Negotiating for Gender Equality*. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---travail/documents/publication/wcms_528947.pdf.
55. Pillinger, J. (2019). Violence and harassment against women in the garment industry: Risks and solutions in Vietnam, Fair Wear.
56. Pillinger, J. (2021). *EU Economic and Social Committee public hearing on pay transparency*, Retrieved from <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/en/news-media/presentations/eu-economic-and-social-committee-public-hearing-pay-transparency-5-may-2021-presentation-dr-jane-pillinger#downloads>.
57. Pillinger, J. (2022). *Risks of gender-based violence and harassment: union responses in the mining, garments and electronics sectors*. Retrieved from https://www.industrial-union.org/sites/default/files/uploads/images/Women/gender-based-violence-and-harassment/final_gbvh_report_05042022.pdf
58. Pillinger, J. (2023) *Eliminating violence and harassment in the world of work: the role of workers' organisations in implementing ILO C190 and R206*. Geneva, ILO.
59. Reynaud, E. (2017). *The International Labour Organisation and the Living Wage: A Historical Perspective*. Geneva: ILO.
60. Sanayi Genel Müdürlüğü (2020). *Tekstil Hazır Giyim ve Deri Ürünleri Sektörleri Raporu*, retrieved from <https://www.sanayi.gov.tr/assets/pdf/plan-program/TekstilHazirgiyimveDeriUrunleriSektorleriRaporu2020.pdf>.
61. SGK (2021). <https://www.sgk.gov.tr/Download/DownloadFile?f=158e1746-5918-459d-bfe8-127d0d4ef691.zip&d=b449b3c3-1c9f-4c33-bc21-d317d29e97a4>.
62. Solum, S.E. (2022). Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği Bağlamında Tekstilde Kadın İşçilerin Sorunlarına İlişkin Nitel Bir Araştırma. *İbn Haldun Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 7 (2) 2022, 181-199
63. Stoop, S. (2005). Overtime and excessive overtime: Legal requirements, compliance situations and opportunities for the Turkish (Istanbul) garment industry. Fair Wear, retrieved from <https://api.fairwear.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/turkey-overtime-paper05.pdf>.
64. Tatlı, H. ve Koç, B. (2017). Çalışan Kadın Bakış Açısıyla Kadınların İş ve Aile Yaşamında
65. TURKSTAT (2022) *Gelir ve Yaşam Koşulları Araştırması Haber Bülteni*, retrieved from <https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=Gelir-ve-Yasam-Kosullari-Arastirmasi-2021-45581>.

66. Toksöz, G. (2015). Kalkınmada Farklı Yörüngeler Kadın İstihdamında Farklı Örüntüler Işığında Türkiye'de Kadın İstihdamı. In A. Makal and G. Toksöz (Ed.), *Geçmişten Günümüze Türkiye'de Kadın Emeği*, Ankara: İmge Kitabevi Yayınları, 143-168.
67. TÜSİAD, TÜRKONFED, UNWOMEN (2020). Covid-19 Salgınının Kadın Çalışanlar Açısından Etkileri, retrieved from https://tusiad.org/tr/yayinlar/raporlar/item/download/9518_ec0035a1bob5abe221boc28e16doe5oc.
68. UNDP (2022). Human Development Report 2021- 22, New York: UNDP.
69. UN Global Compact (2023). *Ensuring a Living Wage is an Essential Aspect of Decent Work*, retrieved from <https://www.unglobalcompact.org/what-is-gc/our-work/livingwages>.
70. UNWOMEN (2018). Towards an end to sexual harassment: the urgency and nature of change in the era of #metoo, retrieved from <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2018/Towards-an-end-to-sexual-harassment-en.pdf>
71. Ünlütürk, Ç. (2023). Bakım yükü Kimin Yükü? Türkiye'de Çocuk Bakım Rejimi. *İktisat ve Toplum Dergisi*, 149, 44-56.
72. Ünlütürk Ulutaş, Ç., Akbaş, S. (2018). Ötekilerin Ötekisi: Denizli İşgücü Piyasasında Suriyeli Kadınlar. in: Ç. Ünlütürk-Ulutaş (Ed.). *Feminist Sosyal Politika: Bakım, Emek, Göç*. Gülay Toksöz'e Armağan. İstanbul: Notabene, 281-308
73. WEF (2022). Global Gender Gap Report, retrieved from https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2022.pdf.
74. Yakar, M. (2015). Türkiye'nin İç Göç Paterni: Kim Nerede İkamet Ediyor? Nereye Kayıtlı? *Ege Coğrafya Dergisi*. 24 (1), 15-38.
75. Yörük, E. (2009). Labor Discipline in the Informal Economy: The Semi-formal Professional Code of Istanbul's Apparel Urban Factory. *Berkeley Journal of Sociology*, 53, 27-61.
76. <https://actonlivingwages.com/who-we-are/faqs>.
77. <https://fair-wage.com>
78. <http://feminisite.net/index.php/2023/01/yoksulluk-kiskacinda-kadin-dayanismasi-panel-metni>
79. <https://www.oziplikis.org.tr>
80. <https://disk.org.tr/2022/12/disk-kadin-temsalciler-kurulu-sonuc-bildirgesi>
81. World Economic Forum (2022) Global Gender Gap Report 2022 Insight Report July https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2022.pdf

12. ANNEX

TABLES

Nationality of the survey participants

		Frequency	Percent
Female	Citizen	163	98,2
	Refugee	1	0,6
	Syrians under temporary protection in Türkiye	1	0,6
	Temporary resident	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Citizen	133	95,0
	Syrians under temporary protection in Türkiye	7	5,0
	Total	140	100,0

Gender of the survey participants

	Frequency	Percent
Female	166	54,2
Male	140	45,8
Total	306	100,0

Education Level of the survey participants

	Education Level of the survey participants	Frequency	Percent
Female	Illiterate	11	6,6
	Literate but drop out of school	2	1,2
	Dropped out of primary school	5	3,0
	Primary school	78	47,0
	Secondary school	26	15,7
	High School	29	17,5
	Vocational school	10	6,0
	Junior college	2	1,2

	University	3	1,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Illiterate	2	1,4
	Literate but drop out of school	3	2,1
	Primary school	66	47,1
	Secondary school	32	22,9
	High School	29	20,7
	Vocational school	1	0,7
	Junior college	3	2,1
	University	4	2,9
	Total	140	100,0

Marital Status of the Survey Participants

		Frequency	Percent
Female	Divorced/Separated/Widowed	24	14,5
	Married	95	57,2
	Single	47	28,3
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Divorced/Separated/Widowed	2	1,4
	Married	103	73,6
	Single	35	25,0
	Total	140	100,0

Number of Dependent Children

		Frequency	Percent
Female	0	61	36,7
	1	38	22,9
	2	46	27,7
	3	14	8,4
	4	4	2,4

	5	3	1,8
	Total	166	100,0
Male	0	45	32,1
	1	23	16,4
	2	48	34,3
	3	13	9,3
	4	9	6,4
	More than 5	2	1,4
	Total	140	100,0

Number of people in the household of survey participants

		Frequency	Percent
Female	1	2	1,2
	2	24	14,5
	3	46	27,7
	4	48	28,9
	5	21	12,7
	More than 5	25	15,1
	Total	166	100,0
Male	1	3	2,1
	2	8	5,7
	3	30	21,4
	4	44	31,4
	5	29	20,7
	More than 5	26	18,6
	Total	140	100,0

Average Working Hours of Workers According to Have Dependent Children

	Do you have dependent children? (Including your own children, adopted or your stepchildren)
--	--

		Average daily working hours including overtime	0	1	2	3	4	5	More than 5	Total
Female	Between 7,5 and 9 hours a day	Count	6	8	4	2	0	0		20
		%	9,8	21,1	8,7	14,3	0,0	0,0		12,0
	Between 9 and 11 hours a day	Count	48	25	37	12	4	2		128
		%	78,7	65,8	80,4	85,7	100,0	66,7		77,1
	Over 11 hours a day	Count	7	5	5	0	0	1		18
		%	11,5	13,2	10,9	0,0	0,0	33,3		10,8
	Total	Count	61	38	46	14	4	3		166
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100		100
Male	Between 7,5 and 9 hours a day	Count	4	2	5	1	0		0	12
		%	8,9	8,7	10,4	7,7	0,0		0,0	8,6
	Between 9 and 11 hours a day	Count	40	17	40	11	8		2	118
		%	88,9	73,9	83,3	84,6	88,9		100,0	84,3
	Over 11 hours a day	Count	1	4	3	1	1		0	10
		%	2,2	17,4	6,3	7,7	11,1		0,0	7,1
	Total	Count	45	23	48	13	9		2	140
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Average overtime work during low season

	Monthly average hours of overtime work during low season	Frequency	Percent
Female	0 Hours	85	51,2
	1-24 Hours	74	44,6
	25-49 Hours	7	4,2
	Total	166	100,0
Male	0 Hours	67	47,9
	1-24 Hours	64	45,7
	25-49 Hours	8	5,7
	50-74 Hours	1	0,7
	Total	140	100,0

Transport after overtime work

	Transportation after overtime work	Frequency	Percent
Female	Bus provided by employer	124	74,7
	Car	3	1,8
	Motorbike	1	0,6
	Other (specify)	2	1,2
	Public transport (bus, minibus, metro, metrobus, etc)	12	7,2
	Walking	24	14,5
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Bike	1	0,7
	Bus provided by employer	102	72,9
	Car	4	2,9
	Other (specify)	1	0,7
	Public transport (bus, minibus, metro, metrobus, etc)	12	8,6
	Walking	20	14,3
	Total	140	100,0

Length of time working for current employer

	How long have you worked for your current employer?	Frequency	Percent
Female	Under 6 months	14	8,4
	6 months to 1 year	20	12,0
	1-2 years	30	18,1
	>2-5 years	47	28,3
	>5-10 years	38	22,9
	Over 10 years	17	10,2
	Total	166	100,0
Male	Under 6 months	17	12,1
	6 months to 1 year	11	7,9
	1-2 years	19	13,6
	>2-5 years	40	28,6

	>5-10 years	28	20,0
	Over 10 years	25	17,9
	Total	140	100,0

Ideas of Workers Concerning Jobs for Males

	In your factory, are there any jobs that are only for males	Frequency	Percent
Female	No	34	20,5
	Yes	132	79,5
	Total	166	100,0
Male	No	23	16,4
	Yes	117	83,6
	Total	140	100,0

Ideas of Workers Concerning Jobs for Females

	In your factory, are there any jobs that are only for females?	Frequency	Percent
Female	No	36	21,7
	Yes	129	77,7
	Yes, No	1	0,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	No	39	27,9
	Yes	101	72,1
	Total	140	100,0

Frequency of Workers who consider their current wage to be a living wage.

	Do you consider your current wage to be a living wage?	Frequency	Percent
Female	No	105	63,3
	Partly	45	27,1
	Yes	16	9,6
	Total	166	100,0
Male	No	93	66,4
	Partly	39	27,9

	Yes	8	5,7
	Total	14,0	100,0

