



## DAILY ACTIVITIES OF WORKING MEN, WORKING WOMEN AND UNEMPLOYED WOMEN IN ANKARA, TURKEY

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This study was conducted to compare the daily activities of working women, working men and the housewives. A total of 129 men, 133 women and 54 housewives were included in the study. All the participants were married and have at least one child less than 5 years of age. The working women and men were working at the same institution, and the housewives were the neighbors of the working women. Both the working women and the housewives spend more time than men on in-house activities such as cooking, cleaning, dishwashing or ironing and child care; whereas men usually take the responsibility of out-of-house activities such as shopping or following the government office activities, and planning of house budget. Nevertheless, compared to the housewives, the working women take more responsibility in planning the budget, read more books, participate in more social activities, but have less time for sleeping, resting and watching television.

Key words: gender discrimination, housework, inequity, unemployed women, working life, working men, working women, time schedule

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## **INTRODUCTION**

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Women have become increasingly participative in many areas in the working life. As a result of factors such as increasing income demands of the family, establishment of new work places necessitating women work force and cheaper labor of women, the number of working women has been increasing constantly. In recent years, there have been more women working in jobs that were traditionally regarded as men's jobs. Both absolute and relative rates of participation in labor force among women in the manufacturing sector have increased substantially (La Dou et al., 1997, 647-663). However, studies involving working women were relatively few (Poitras and Zenz, 1994, 827-835). In most countries, compared to men, women contributed less to the recorded production. Social environment, statistical inconsistencies and methods of recording labor all contribute to this inequity. In Britain, for instance, in some studies women caring for the household duties were considered to be part of the labor force and in other studies they were not. Furthermore, internationally, women often found themselves in casual, temporary or seasonal work that went unrecorded. During the last two decades, the global female participation rate remained almost constant, yet this was misleading. The percentage of working women in industrial countries increased by 10%, while there was a decrease of 7% in developing countries. Of course, the ability of women to bear children and the social expectations regarding child care often play an important role. It is common in western industrialized countries to see a drop in female participation during childbearing years. Countries with the lowest female participation rates are those with strong religious opinions about women's role in society (e.g., Catholic and Muslim countries) (Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos, 1989, 187-201).

The percentage of women in the workforce in Turkey is 29.7%; 47.6% and 15.8% in rural and urban areas respectively. One third of these women work as an unpaid family worker. Only 9.7% of working women are employed in the industrial sector. On the other hand, 18.1% of women are employed in the service sector. In the working life in Turkey, 2% of men and 0.2% of women are at managerial positions; only one out of ten managers is a woman. In Turkey, the earnings of working women are 90% of that of working men's (Bilir, 2004, 101-110; Özvaris, Akin and Esin, 2002; Turkish Social Insurance Institution Statistics Yearbook, 2002).

In working life, women are confronted with several problems because of their anatomical characteristics, childbearing features and socio-cultural approaches and they are regarded as a risk group (Poitras and Zenz, 1994, 827-835; Osorio and Windham, 1997, 375-391; Sakalli-Ugurlu and Bey-

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dogan, 2002). However, this situation should not lead to gender discrimination in working life. Together with women's entry into working life, their social and family status is improved as well. Women should thus be encouraged to participate in working life.

Because of traditional gender roles, women are considered to be responsible for housework and childcare. After women's participation in working life, their burden of work has increased significantly. Besides the responsibilities of working life, they also have to deal with household responsibilities. As a result, women may be confronted with more health and social problems compared to men. When their daily housework responsibilities are concerned, working women work longer hours and have shorter time for rest and sleep compared to working men and unemployed women.

This study aimed to determine the time allocated for activities other than work by working women, working men and unemployed women.

## METHOD

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This study was conducted between July-August 2002 in Ankara, Turkey. The working men and women were the personnel of The General Directorate of Pension's Fund, and the housewives were the neighbors of the working women. All the participants were married and had a child less than 5 years of age.

Three groups of participants were included in the study:

a) Working women: 133 women working at The General Directorate of Pension's Fund

b) Working men: 129 men working at The General Directorate of Pension's Fund and responsible for work similar to that of working women

c) Unemployed women: 54 women who shared similar socio-economic conditions and lived in the same apartment facilities (neighbours) with the working women.

The data were collected through a pre-tested questionnaire. In addition to the socio-demographic characteristics, the participants were asked to fill out a time schedule for their daily activities during a one-week period. As the daily activities, data were collected on time spent on child care, cooking, cleaning, house-keeping, dish-washing, laundry and ironing. Also the time spent for reading, watching television, participating in social activities, resting and sleeping were collected. Data on times of going to the cinema or theatre, having meal at a restaurant and the number of books read were also obtained.

Chi square test was used to test the statistical significance where required. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants and their verbal consents were obtained.

## RESULTS

### Socio-demographic findings

Most of the unemployed women (59.3%) were in the 20-29 age group, whereas only 2.9% of working women and 12.9% of working men were in this age group (Table 1). The average age of working men was higher than that of working women. Educational levels of working men and women were higher than unemployed women. The average number of children was 1.4 for working women and 1.6 for working men and unemployed women. Regarding the number of children below the age of five, there was no significant difference between the groups (Table 1). Working women had a lower number of children than working men and unemployed women. 91.7% of working women, 84.5% of working men, 77.8% of unemployed women lived in nuclear families consisting of parents and the children.

TABLE 1  
The Distribution of some Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Participants (Ankara, July 2002)

Socio-demographic Characteristics	Working women		Working men		Unemployed women		p*	p**
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%		
Age group								
20-29	31	2.9	17	12.9	32	59.3	0.0000	0.0000
30-39	97	72.4	76	59.2	20	37.1		
40+	5	3.7	36	27.9	2	3.6		
Median	32		35		28			
Min /max	24/42		23/53		20/47			
Level of education								
Not elementary school graduate								
	1	0.7	-	-	2	3.8	0.8015	0.0000
Graduate of elementary or secondary school								
	2	1.5	2	1.5	20	40.7		
High school graduate								
	38	28.6	36	28.0	26	48.1		
University graduate								
	92	69.2	91	70.5	4	7.4		
Number of children below the age of five								
1	120	90.3	123	95.3	46	85.2	0.1099	0.3224
2	13	9.7	6	4.7	8	14.8		
Number of children								
1-2	133	100.0	116	81.2	47	87.0	0.0001	0.0001
3-4	-	-	13	18.8	7	13.0		
Total	133	100.0	129	100.0	54	100.0		

Comparisons of \*working women and working men, \*\*working and unemployed women.

Most of the working women (74%) and men (76%) worked as typists and record-keepers. The most common reasons for the unemployed women not working were having no one to take care of their children (35.2%) and having no profession (27.8%). Other reasons were "spouses prohibiting them to work"

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(11.1%), "having no desire to work" (9.3%), "being unable to find a job" (9.3%), "no need for income" (7.3%). Nearly two fifths of working men had working wives (44.2%) and 48.3% of these were employed in the service sector. 55.8% of these men had their children looked after by their wives, 14.7% by some relatives, 6.2% by baby-sitters and 23.3% in child care centers.

### Findings related to pregnancy, delivery and children

36.8% of working women's deliveries (179 deliveries in total) and 32.3% of unemployed women's deliveries (65 deliveries in total) had been carried out through Cesarean-section ( $p=0.04943$ ). 10.6% of working women had not used any leave of absence before giving birth, while 31.9% had enjoyed leave of absence of more than three weeks. In nearly two thirds of the deliveries (63.1%) the pregnant women used birth leave of 16 weeks or more.

When their last deliveries were taken into consideration, most of the working women had their children looked after in daily child care (52.7%) or by relatives (42.1%). 24% of working mothers with two children, had taken care of their first child by themselves. After their last delivery, 53.4% of working mothers and 72.4% of unemployed women breastfed their children for more than 6 months ( $p=0.00007$ ).

### Findings pertaining to the performance of certain activities

Working women were identified as reading higher number of books, going to higher number of movies and restaurants compared to working men and unemployed women (Table 2). Regardless of their employment status, housework was mostly performed by women (Table 3). When working women were compared to men, cooking, cleaning, ironing, dish-washing, preparing food for children and dressing them up were usually carried out by women ( $p<0.01$ ), whereas planning of the domestic budget, follow-up of formalities at government institutions and shopping were performed by men ( $p<0.01$ ). Both men and women played with their children at home, however 16.5% of women and 8.5% of men claimed that they were the only ones playing with their children ( $p<0.01$ ).

TABLE 2  
The Number of Books Read, Frequency of Going to Cinemas and Restaurants (mean) (Ankara, July 2002)

Spare time activities	Working women (n=133)	Working men (n=129)	Unemployed women (n=54)
Number of books read within last month	1.1	0.8	0.3
Number of movies watched within last month	0.4	0.3	0.3
Number of visits to a restaurant within last month	3.0	1.3	2.2
Number of books read within last year	4.7	4.0	1.8
Number of movies watched within last year	1.9	1.7	1.6

Housework	Person in charge	Working women n=133	Working men n=129	Unemployed women n=54	p**	p***
Cooking	Himself/herself	81.2	-	87.0	0,0000	0,5850
	Spouse	0.8	83.7	1.9		
	With spouse	12.8	11.6	7.3		
	Other*	5.2	4.7	3.8		
Cleaning	Himself/herself	51.9	-	81.5	0,0000	0,0009
	Spouse	-	72.1	1.9		
	With spouse	33.1	21.7	11.1		
	Other*	15.0	6.2	5.5		
Dish-washing	Himself/herself	76.7	-	88.9	0,0000	0,0058
	Spouse	-	86.0	-		
	With spouse	20.3	12.4	3.7		
	Other*	3.0	1.6	7.4		
Ironing	Himself/herself	69.2	7.0	88.9	0,0000	0,247
	Spouse	5.3	67.4	1.9		
	With spouse	18.7	20.9	5.6		
	Other*	6.8	4.7	3.6		
Child-care	Himself/herself	73.7	-	90.7	0,0000	0,1112
	Spouse	1.5	79.8	-		
	With spouse	14.3	15.5	5.6		
	Other*	10.5	4.7	3.7		
Dressing-up the children	Himself/herself	57.1	-	77.1	0,0000	0,0569
	Spouse	1.5	61.1	-		
	With spouse	34.6	34.1	20.4		
	Other*	6.8	3.2	1.9		
Playing with the children	Himself/herself	16.5	8.5	37.0	0,0024	0,0114
	Spouse	0.8	8.5	-		
	With spouse	75.9	79.9	59.2		
	Other*	6.8	3.1	3.8		
Shopping	Himself/herself	13.5	34.1	22.2	0,0000	0,0029
	Spouse	11.3	2.3	24.1		
	With spouse	75.2	63.6	44.4		
	Other*	-	-	9.3		
Budget arrangements	Himself/herself	16.5	65.1	16.7	0,0000	0,0001
	Spouse	27.1	1.6	51.9		
	With spouse	56.4	33.3	25.9		
	Other*	-	-	5.5		
Follow-up of work at government offices	Himself/herself	15.0	80.6	11.1	0,0000	0,0118
	Spouse	53.4	3.1	74.1		
	With spouse	30.1	14.7	11.1		
	Other*	1.5	1.6	3.7		

TABLE 3  
Distribution of Certain  
Housekeeping Activities  
According to Persons  
Conducting Them (%)  
(Ankara, July 2002)

\*Helper, relative or herself/himself with a helper, herself/himself with a relative, herself/himself with spouse and helper or relative. Others have not been included in testing of the statistical significance. Comparisons of \*\*working women with working men and \*\*\* working women with unemployed women.

Working and unemployed women did not differ with regard to cooking, ironing, preparing food for the children and dressing them up ( $p > 0.05$ ). Despite this, unemployed women did more dish-washing, cleaning, shopping ( $p < 0.01$ ) and playing with the children ( $p < 0.05$ ). Working women had more participation in the planning of domestic budget ( $p < 0.01$ ) and follow-up of work at government offices ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### Findings related to the allocation of time for certain activities

The identified unit of time was the time allocated for certain activities during a period of one week. Both working and unemployed women participating in the study spent more time cooking, cleaning, ironing, dish-washing, getting involved in child-care, feeding and dressing-up the children when compared to men. Men were involved in follow-up of work at government offices, resting, watching TV, reading newspapers/magazines and exercising. Unemployed women spent more time on their hobbies, on playing with their children and on social activities when compared to working men and women (Table 4).

TABLE 4  
The Distribution of Time Allocated per Week to Certain Activities by the Individuals Participating in the Study (mean hours: minutes,  $\pm$  standard deviation hours: minutes) (Ankara, July 2002)

Activities	Working women (n=133)	Working men (n=129)	Unemployed women (n=54)
Cooking	5:42 $\pm$ 2:14	0:46 $\pm$ 2:00	7:02 $\pm$ 3:55
Cleaning	6:02 $\pm$ 3:05	0:55 $\pm$ 1:54	9:39 $\pm$ 4:34
Dish-washing	3:08 $\pm$ 1:46	0:14 $\pm$ 0:38	3:01 $\pm$ 1:25
Ironing	2:17 $\pm$ 1:13	0:22 $\pm$ 0:43	2:35 $\pm$ 1:49
Shopping	2:19 $\pm$ 1:43	2:14 $\pm$ 1:35	2:23 $\pm$ 2:35
Adjusting the family budget	0:26 $\pm$ 0:38	0:40 $\pm$ 0:47	0:22 $\pm$ 0:34
Child care	1:35 $\pm$ 1:37	0:30 $\pm$ 1:12	3:01 $\pm$ 1:41
Dressing-up of children	2:11 $\pm$ 2:24	0:22 $\pm$ 0:37	1:48 $\pm$ 1:06
Playing with the children	6:08 $\pm$ 3:56	7:06 $\pm$ 4:58	9:50 $\pm$ 7:40
Follow-up of work at government offices	0:14 $\pm$ 0:36	0:43 $\pm$ 0:59	0:06 $\pm$ 0:23
Reading newspapers	1:25 $\pm$ 1:17	2:42 $\pm$ 2:16	1:16 $\pm$ 1:37
Exercising	0:38 $\pm$ 1:05	1:17 $\pm$ 2:44	0:41 $\pm$ 1:26
Resting-watching TV	6:26 $\pm$ 4:32	10:53 $\pm$ 5:50	9:08 $\pm$ 6:07
Hobbies	1:46 $\pm$ 2:16	1:29 $\pm$ 3:29	2:16 $\pm$ 3:35
Social activities	2:44 $\pm$ 2:56	3:35 $\pm$ 5:20	2:59 $\pm$ 8:08
Total housework and child care	31:03 $\pm$ 2:10	13:52 $\pm$ 2:05	39:43 $\pm$ 3:35
Total rest	13:13 $\pm$ 2:15	20:41 $\pm$ 3:47	16:41 $\pm$ 3:27
Sleep (daily)	7:05 $\pm$ 0:49	7:19 $\pm$ 0:41	8:35 $\pm$ 1:26

Weekly time allocated to housework and child care were 31.03 $\pm$ 2.10 hours for working women, 13.52 $\pm$ 2.05 hours for working men and 39.43 $\pm$ 3.35 hours for unemployed women. Weekly time spent on rest were 13.13 $\pm$ 2.15 hours for working women, 20.41 $\pm$ 3.47 hours for working men and 16.41 $\pm$ 3.27 hours for unemployed women. Daily sleep time were 7.05 $\pm$ 0.49

hours for working women,  $7.19 \pm 0.41$  hours for working men and  $8.35 \pm 1.26$  hours for unemployed women.

## **DISCUSSION**

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In recent years, urban population has increased in Turkey. At the same time, there have been changes in working areas of both men and women. There has been a progressive decline in the agricultural sector, whereas a rapid increase has occurred in the service sector. Although there has been a change in the working area of women, at home, the traditional roles of men and women still persist.

This is the first study in Turkey assessing the work burden of working men, working women and unemployed women based on a time schedule and comparing these three groups.

The sharing of housework and working life are the main areas in which gender discrimination is observed. In countries like Turkey, in which gender discrimination is still an issue because of social circumstances, women are faced with difficulties when they work. Major difficulties are "being unable to find employment", "being paid lower wages than men", and "being unable to have managerial positions". In one study, authors examined how patriarchy, sexism, and gender influence Turkish college students' attitudes toward women managers. A regression analysis showed that support for patriarchy and hostile sexism was more important for explaining less favorable attitudes toward women managers than was benevolent sexism (Sakalli and Beydogan, 2002). Another important problem which working women face is that their burden increases together with the domestic responsibilities. In Sweden, one study investigated the influence of domestic responsibility and job strain, and especially simultaneous exposure to these factors (i.e. 'double exposure') on common physical and mental symptoms in Swedish women. Women shouldering great domestic responsibility or who experienced job strain were at risk of a high level of common symptoms (Krantz and Ostergren, 2001).

### **Socio-demographic findings and findings related to pregnancy, delivery and children**

Working women within the scope of this study were older than unemployed women and their level of education was significantly higher. Women who had university degrees participated more in working life. As the level of education of women increases, the ratio of the women working in the formal service sector also rises. 90.7% of non-working women had a desire to work. The two leading causes of not working for unemployed women were "having no one to take care of



their children" (35.2%) and "their spouses' negative attitudes towards their working" (11.1%). Having their children cared for, vocational training and employment opportunities were the requirements for women to enter working life. Spouses' approaches to gender issues, their belief that "women should stay at home" will require longer time to be changed, yet efforts should be spent on this issue.

Working women had a smaller number of children compared to unemployed women. In Turkey, the average number of living children per married woman was 2.49 (Demographic and Health Survey of Turkey, 1998). In this study, the average number of children possessed by working men, working women and unemployed women was lower than Turkey's average. This difference might have been due to the fact that the study was performed in an urban setting. Although they were younger, unemployed women had more children compared to working women. Having fewer children might have been the result of a positive influence of working life on women. In Bangladesh, research was done on the relationship between women's work and fertility. A survey revealed that when women had worked, they had 3 children on average compared to 4 children of women who had never worked. Factors that might affect these trends included the availability of child care, the need for children in times of crisis and sickness or death of the household head. A negative relationship between employment and fertility was more prevalent in wife-dominant and egalitarian couples than male-dominated ones (Mahmud, 1988). Women wanted to have fewer children as they were involved in working life, besides they had easier access to health and family planning services, which might have been a determining factor for them to have a lower number of children.

Working women had a higher number of Cesarean-section deliveries when compared to unemployed women and nearly two thirds of these women (63.1%) enjoyed leave of absence from work for 16 weeks or longer in the post-partum period. At the data collection phase of this study, the legal post labor leave was 6 weeks, as of 2004 this period was increased to 8 weeks. In Australia a study found that 46% of women were in the workforce during pregnancy, 55% of women who were in employment before their 1st child returned to the workforce within 18 months of the birth (Glezer, 1988).

42.1% of working women had their children looked after by their relatives. In Turkey and similar countries, due to traditional family relationship, intra-family solidarity is an important support for women. Until their children reach the age of one, working mothers have 1.5 hours of daily leave for

breastfeeding. In spite of this, 46.6% of working women and 27.6% of unemployed women breastfed their children for less than 6 months.

### **Findings pertaining to the performance of certain activities and allocation of time for certain activities**

Depending on the results of this study, working women read more books, watch more movies and go to more restaurants, when compared to unemployed women and working men. As working women have their own income, they have an easier access to social opportunities.

Domestic responsibilities were identified to be predominantly assumed by women. When working women were compared with men; cleaning, ironing, dish-washing, preparing the food for children, dressing the children up were done by women, whereas planning of the house budget, follow up of work in government offices and shopping were mostly carried out by men. Both men and women played with their children at home. However, 16.5% of women and 8.5% of men reported that only they played with their children. In US families approximately 23%, 36%, and 27% of men reportedly were involved in meal planning, shopping, and preparation, respectively (Harnack et al., 1998). Men in dual-earner relationships reported the smallest contribution to household labor by women (Kiger and Riley, 1996).

In a study on the nature and degree of female household decision-making in Pakistan, as expected, men made more decisions on the purchase of all consumer goods than women, even for items in which women felt more need than men (e.g. sewing machines, washing machines). The study found that for the needs felt by women for all durable goods, men made 2/3 of all decisions, while women made only 1/3 of decisions. And in cases where the need was felt by men, the men made 93% of the decisions, while women decided only 3% of the time. The study identified various cultural and economic factors that affected women's decision-making power. Urban women, women in nuclear families, educated women, and working women generally had more decision-making power than rural women, women in extended families, illiterate women, and unemployed women (Mujahid-Mukhtar and Mukhtar, 1991).

When unemployed women were compared to working women, no difference was determined in the rates of performing tasks such as cooking and ironing, preparing the food for children and dressing them up. However, unemployed women washed the dishes, did the cleaning and shopping more frequently and they played more with their children a-

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lone compared to working women ( $p < 0.05$ ). Working women when compared to unemployed ones, had more responsibility in the planning of the family budget, and follow up of work at government offices.

Another study from Calcutta city examined the differences between a group of working mothers and a socio-economically comparable group of unemployed mothers with respect to their time use patterns. Results suggested that though the working mothers had contributed significantly less time in parental, domestic, conjugal and individual activities compared to their unemployed counterparts, they hardly faced role conflicts as corroborated from their lower anxiety scores (Mukhopadhyay, 1998).

In this study, working mothers spent 1:36 hours on average for the care of their children, whereas unemployed women spent 1:99 hours. On the other hand, in one study from India, working mothers spent 5 hours/day on average on child care, while unemployed mothers spent 7 hours/day (Jain and Choudhry, 1993). Results from both of these studies revealed that working mothers spent less time with their children compared to unemployed women.

Both working and unemployed women who participated in the study spent significantly more time on cooking, cleaning, ironing, dish-washing shopping, getting involved in child-care, feeding and dressing-up the children when compared to working men. Men spent more time on the follow up of work at government offices, relaxing, watching TV, reading newspapers-magazines and exercising. Unemployed women had more time for their hobbies, playing with their children and social activities compared to working men and women. The time spent on weekly housework and childcare were  $31.03 \pm 2.10$  hours for working women,  $13.52 \pm 2.05$  hours for working men, and  $39.43 \pm 3.35$  hours for unemployed women. The time allocated for resting in one week were  $13.13 \pm 2.15$  hours for working women,  $20.41 \pm 3.47$  hours for working men, and  $16.41 \pm 3.27$  hours for unemployed women.

In another study, a sample of 139 married couples with young children and with relatively equal career statuses (wives were university professors or businesswomen) were interviewed about work and home life. Overall, women were more self-critical than men about their performance in domestic roles, and women's performance was more appreciated by their husbands than themselves (Biernat and Wortman, 1991).

In Italy, a study examined the views of men towards the division of household duties when the female partner was employed. A variety of behaviors ranging from a complete refusal to participate in domestic activity to an equal division of household tasks was demonstrated. The main determining

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factors seemed to be: socio-cultural level and age of the group. The woman's right to pursue a career was recognized mainly by men in middle to upper social classes in the age group 25-30 who participated in household duties. It was evident that, even in the case of domestic collaboration, women had the ultimate responsibility for household tasks. In that occasion, men tend to choose the more gratifying duties (e.g. cooking, child care) (Guarnone et al., 1989).

The average time spent in sleep were  $7.05 \pm 0.49$  hours for working women,  $7.19 \pm 0.41$  hours for working men and  $8.35 \pm 1.26$  hours for unemployed women. There wasn't any significant difference between working men and women's sleeping times. According to the results of another study, the prevalence rates of excessive daytime sleepiness were 13.3% for women and 7.2% for men (Doi and Minowa, 2003).

Socio-cultural factors that create obstacles for women in entering working life should be eliminated. Working women have to be supported by their spouses and other family members with sharing of the household tasks. As a result, the social status of women who participate in working life will be enhanced.

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## Dnevne aktivnosti zaposlenih muškaraca, zaposlenih žena i nezaposlenih žena u Ankari, u Turskoj

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Ova je studija provedena kako bi se usporedile dnevne aktivnosti zaposlenih žena, zaposlenih muškaraca i kućanica. Ukupno 129 muškaraca, 133 žene i 54 kućanice bilo je uključeno u istraživanje. Svi su sudionici vjenčani i imaju bar jedno dijete mlađe od pet godina. Zaposlene žene i muškarci radili su u istoj ustanovi, a kućanice su bile susjede zaposlenim ženama. Utvrđeno je da i zaposlene žene i kućanice provode

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više vremena od muškaraca obavljajući kućanske poslove poput kuhanja, čišćenja, pranja posuđa ili glačanja te brinući o djeci; dok muškarci uglavnom preuzimaju odgovornost za poslove izvan kuće, kao što su kupovanje, rješavanje administrativnih poslova u uredima uprave i planiranje kućnog proračuna. No, u usporedbi s kućanicama, zaposlene žene preuzimaju više odgovornosti za planiranje kućnog proračuna, više čitaju knjige, više sudjeluju u društvenim aktivnostima, ali imaju manje vremena za spavanje, odmor i gledanje televizije.

Ključne riječi: spolna diskriminacija, kućanski poslovi, nejednakost, nezaposlene žene, radni život, zaposleni muškarci, zaposlene žene, vremenski raspored

## Tägliche Aktivitäten berufstätiger Männer und Frauen sowie nicht berufstätiger Frauen in Ankara, Türkei

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Diese Studie soll einen Vergleich zwischen den Tagesaktivitäten berufstätiger Frauen und Männer einerseits und den Aktivitäten von Hausfrauen andererseits ermöglichen. An der Untersuchung nahmen 129 berufstätige Männer, 133 berufstätige Frauen und 54 Hausfrauen teil. Alle Probanden waren verheiratet und hatten mindestens ein Kind im Alter bis zu fünf Jahren. Die berufstätigen Untersuchungsteilnehmer waren alle im selben Unternehmen beschäftigt; bei den Hausfrauen handelte es sich um Nachbarinnen der befragten berufstätigen Frauen. Es erwies sich, dass die Frauen beider Gruppen mehr Zeit mit Hausarbeiten wie Kochen, Putzen, Geschirrspülen und Bügeln sowie mit der Sorge um die Kinder zubringen als Männer. Die Männer übernehmen hauptsächlich außerhalb des Hauses anfallende Arbeiten wie Einkäufe und Behördengänge sowie Planung der Haushaltskasse. Hingegen im Vergleich zu den Hausfrauen übernehmen die berufstätigen Frauen mehr Verantwortung bei der Budgetplanung, lesen mehr Bücher und zeigen eine größere Teilnahme an gesellschaftlichen Aktivitäten. Dies bedeutet allerdings, dass sie weniger schlafen und weniger Zeit zum Entspannen und Fernsehen haben.

Schlüsselwörter: Geschlechterdiskriminierung, Hausarbeiten, Ungleichheit, nicht berufstätige Frauen, Berufsleben, berufstätige Männer, berufstätige Frauen, Zeiteinteilung