

T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES



**ANALYSIS OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN IRAN: EDUCATION AND
GENDER INEQUALITY IN A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

M.A. THESIS

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Political Science and International Relations Program

Thesis Advisor: Prof. Dr. Hatice DENİZ YÜKSEKER

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FOREWORD

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ABBREVIATIONS

AKP	: Justice and Development Party (AK Parti)
CA	: Capability Approach
EFA	: Education For All
EU	: European Union
GDI	: Gender Development Index
GDP	: Gross Domestic Product
GEI	: Gender Equality Index
GEM	: Gender Empowerment Measure
GGGI	: Global Gender Gap Index
GII	: Gender Inequality Index
GNI	: Gross National Income
HDI	: Human Development Index
IHDI	: Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index
ILO	: International Labor Organization
OECD	: The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPHI	: Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative
OSCE	: The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
UDHR	: Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	: United Nations
UNDP	: The United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHDR	: United Nations Human Development Report
UNICEF	: The United Nations Children's Fund
UNMDG	: United Nations' Millennium Development Goals
WES	: World Education Services

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ANALYSIS OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN IRAN: EDUCATION AND GENDER INEQUALITY IN A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

This thesis attempts to address existing gender parities and gaps in Iran compared to Azerbaijan and Turkey in terms of human development perspective. Human development by enlarging people's freedoms and potentials draws the attention to "ends" and insists on both intrinsic and instrumental values of development. The three main components within human development are: capabilities, free agency and achievements. Health, education and per capita income are the essential indicators of Human Development Index (HDI). Each of which has the same ratio in HDI value estimation. Gender inequality as a global phenomenon, increasingly focuses on women's deprivation of education, health, income and social developments. This thesis discusses Iran's educational developments analytically and compares female-to-male progresses in HDI indicators of Iran with Turkey and Azerbaijan.

The main goal of human development and capability approach is equal distribution of capabilities and functionings among people. The exceptional status of education in having both intrinsic and instrumental values multiplies the significance of equal education in a global context. In addition to the direct impact of education on total health and income rates, parity in education has the capacity to empower women and make them qualified for well-paid vocations.

Iran from 1990 to 2015 has had a sustainable progress in health, education and per capita income. In case of education, Iran has proceeded remarkably in women's access to schools. Iran has almost succeeded to close the gender gap in education, while gender inequality remains in achievements so far. In comparison, in Turkey and Azerbaijan, raising women's capabilities has led to more achievements in terms of economic resources, labor force participation and political participation. According to human development reports, Turkey in capability distribution has experienced more gender disparity than Iran. By filtering the health indicator, Azerbaijan has the best status in gender parity rather than Turkey and Iran. Turkish women's high life expectancy at birth is the best among the analyzed countries. Unlike Iran, educated women in Azerbaijan and Turkey have lower unemployment rates than Iranian women. That is probably why women in Iran recently have less interest to continue their education in tertiary level and this disappointment has reproduced the gender gap.

Keywords: *Azerbaijan, education, employment, equality, gender, HDI, human development, Iran, inequality, Turkey.*

İRAN'DA İNSANİ KALKINMA ANALİZİ: EĞİTİM VE CİNSİYET EŞİTSİZLİĞİ KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR BAKIŞ AÇISINDAN

ÖZET

Bu tez, İran'daki mevcut cinsiyet eşitsizliklerini, Türkiye ve Azerbaycan ile karşılaştırıyor ve bu ülkeleri insani kalkınmanın açısından analiz ediyor. İnsani kalkınma, insanların özgürlükleri ve potansiyellerini baş role koyarak, dikkati “sonuçlara” çekiyor. İnsani kalkınmada üç önemli unsur, kapasiteler, özgür irade ve kazanımlardır. Sağlık, eğitim ve ekonomik kaynaklar, insani kalkınma endeksini eşit ağırlıkla oluşturan üç unsurdur. Cinsiyet eşitsizliği küresel bir sorun olarak, artan bir şekilde kadınların eğitim, sağlık, gelir ve sosyal gelişmelerini engellemektedir. Bu tez, ilk olarak, İranın eğitim alanındaki gelişmelerini analiz etmektedir. İlaveten, İran’da kadınların ve erkeklerin insani kalkınma endeksindeki konumlarını, Türkiye ve Azerbaycan’la karşılaştırmaktadır.

İnsani kalkınma ve kapasite yaklaşımının asıl amacı, kapasiteler ve işlevselliklerin insanlar arasında (erkek, kadın veya yoksun bölgeler) eşit dağıtılmasıdır. Bu arada, eğitimi diğer kapasitelerden daha önemli kılan, esas ve enstrümental değerlere bir arada sahip olmasıdır. Eğitimin genel sağlık ve gelir üzerinde direkt etkisi vardır. Toplam sağlık ve gelir düzeyine doğrudan etkisinin yanı sıra, eğitim kadınları güçlendirme ve onları iyi ücretli işler için kalifiye hale getirme kapasitesine sahiptir.

İran 1990'dan 2015'e kadar sağlık, eğitim ve kişi başına gelir konusunda ilerleme sağlamıştır. İran, kadınların okullaşması konusunda başarı göstermiştir. Diğer yandan, İran cinsiyet eşitliğinin eğitim alanında başarı elde etmesine rağmen, eşitsizlik kadınların çalışması alanında hala mevcuttur. Azerbaycan ve Türkiye’de ise, kadınların kapasitelerinin yükselmesi, onların ekonomik gelir, işgücüne katılım ve siyasi katılımlarını arttırmaktadır. İnsani kalkınma raporlarına göre, Türkiye’de eğitim gibi kabiliyetlerin dağıtımında daha çok cinsiyet eşitsizliği vardır. Azerbaycan, sağlık hariç, cinsiyet eşliği konusunda üç ülke arasında en iyi durumdadır. Türk kadınların ömür ortalaması (sağlık göstergesi) İran ve Azerbaycan’dan daha yüksektir. Diğer taraftan, İran’da eğitilmiş kadınlar, Azerbaycan ve Türkiye’den daha fazla işsizliğe maruz kalıyorlar.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Azerbaycan, cinsiyet, eğitim, eşitsizlik, insani kalkınma, işgücü, İran, Türkiye.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Human development by coming up with a plural value to human capabilities, functionings, wellbeing and human rights, has highlighted the importance of the human sectors _ nutrition, health, education and economic recourses_ for policy makers. To make a brief definition on human development, we can repeat what Amartya Sen (1999), one of the funders of the human development framework has pointed out as “it is nothing more than human capability formation” (Boni &Walker 2013). Freedom and development are interconnected directly with each other. That is why Amartya Sen (1999, p. 4) claims that “Freedom is central to the process of development for two different reasons”; first for efficiency of improvement and second due to the effectiveness of people’s “free agency” (Alkire & Deneulin 2009).

In that case, the capability approach as the first component of human development has the identical motivation with human rights which the main focus of both is on the freedom and dignity of every individual equally (Deneulin 2009). Hence, the concept of capabilities intertwines with the positive freedoms. Capability approach always pursues basically the opportunities by capability building instead of underlining the outputs and products of measures (Crocker 2008). Applying for human development and capability approach framework in educational and social institutions, increases government’s stress on equalization, at the first step rather than developing them unequally which will extend the disparity gap. Hence, in a more precise view, human development pushes societies towards more democracy and parity (Boni &Walker 2013).

Capability-based attitude of human development always has paid a peculiar attention on educational expansion of the societies. This level of importance originated from the different roles that education plays in people’s life whether individually or collectively. Education positively corresponds with different aspects of the human life as productivity, efficient distribution of aggregative national income among people, altering the income and resources into distinct functionings and welbieng.

Besides, through education people can intelligently select between various kinds of lives that they can lead (Sen 2003). Nowadays, there are more collective efforts globally attempting to provide education in every level more equally for all children as girls and boys, rural or urban in underdeveloped, developing and developed countries (UNESCO 2015).

There are various types of hypothesized assumptions corresponding to the inequality in education at schools that reflect people's development process, capabilities, welfare and many other aspects of their life (UNDP 2016, Burchardt & Hick 2017). This thesis is going to address, whether the inequality adjusted-human development and capability approach can help those who are struggling for less social, political, educational, gender and income inequalities in access to capabilities and functionings.

Chapter 1 describes human development and then manifestation of capabilities and human rights. Human Development Index with considering the equal values to health, education and economy wind up the instrumental perspective of the human capital theory on development (Sen 1999, 2013, Walker 2005, Alkire & Santos 2009, Katusiime 2014). The available criticisms raised on human development and capability approach mostly have been adopted and resolved (Robeynes 2005). Furthermore, capability approach introduced by Sen (2003) along with the human rights, connects to the concept of gender inequality. Gender disparity as a global phenomenon, increasingly deprives women as a half of the society, from social, political, cultural and economic development (OECD 2012). Some of the measures to analyze gender gap in societies are including Gender Development Index (GDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The general objective of all aforementioned measures is to improve countries' policies regarding narrowing the gender gap (Staveren 2013).

Chapter 2 focuses on education and its equal distribution as the most crucial capability to empower people. Education correlates with other indicators of HDI as well. Improvement in education leads a growth in health, well-being and income of society simultaneously (Saito 2003). On the other hand, education empowers women as well as attaining their independence (Nussbaum 1998, 2000). The intrinsic values of education on individual's consciousness and enhancement of his/her different

abilities are the fundamental benefits of it. Education can be analyzed from three dimensions including, human rights, capabilities and human capital. However, the last method has failed due to its major problem as instrumentalist and economic vision to education (Robeyns 2006b). The most competent dimension to evaluate education is capability approach that overwhelms all other methodologies as well. However sometimes it is problematic because of children's lack of agency to choose education as a capability and positive freedom for themselves, the expansion of children's freedom by education is more clear-cut in future than present (Saito 2003, Walker 2005). Universal primary education and adult literacy rate have increased remarkably in many countries during the recent decades which displays the apparently triumph of UNESCO's Education for All (EFA) agenda in some regions. Though, the stable rate and low level of literacy in deprived regions worldwide stain the failure of UNESCO in some underdeveloped countries.

Chapter 3 is mainly about Iran and its HDI value and indicators. Iran as a developing country follows a progressive development path since 1990 and according to the UNDP report in 2015, currently is the 68th country among 187 countries. In educational arena, the considerable positive difference between expected years of schooling and mean years of schooling hopefully, points to an increase in Iran's educational indicators in future. Such a prosperity, on one hand is the result of correct internal educational policies to support and facilitate lower classes and deprived provinces' access to education through Social and Cultural Development Plans (Management and Planning Organization of Iran 2004). On the other hand, UN through UNDP, UNESCO and other programs has played a significant role in educational development and progress of countries, internationally. Even though, the gap in literacy rate among different provinces of Iran is increasingly high yet and there are 17 per cent more illiterate people in Sistan-Baluchistan Province of Iran than Tehran in 2016 (Statistical Center of Iran 2016). Unequal distribution of capabilities has irrecoverable consequences such as widening the social, health, well-being, resources and cultural gap between different regions of the country. In case of women's education and empowerment, Iran, particularly after the Islamic Revelation has surpassed huge steps towards the elimination of gender inequality in education which is more obvious in women's entrance in tertiary education (World Bank

2017c). However women's unequal benefits and vocational opportunities compared to men represent an immense gender discrimination as well. These kinds of gender disparity in the society mainly originates from the lack of consciousness, cultural and social education among people that deprives women from formal and well-paid employment chances (Moghadam 1998, 2004). Indeed, Iran along with the proper and reformist policies in enhancement of gender parity will have more improvements in the future years.

Finally, in the Forth Chapter, I have tried to compare Iran with Turkey and Azerbaijan in terms of Inequality-adjusted HDI and gender-based inequality in human sectors (health, education and economic resources). These three countries belong to the high human development category and there are delicate differences among them that highlights Iran's high levels of gender marginalization in employment and political participation. Iran's rank by estimating through IHDI falls 19 ranks back, while, Turkey and Azerbaijan's ranks soar relatively to the upper rankings. Such a transformation implies the need to more conduct and research on inequality in Iran. By analyzing gender-based inequality in the health and education sectors, we find out that in Iran the gender gap in life expectancy at birth and mean years of schooling is much narrower than Turkey and Azerbaijan. However, there is a larger gap between male and women's participation in labor force and politics in Iran. Nonetheless, this gap in case of Turkey and Azerbaijan is much smaller than Iran.

To conclude, according to this thesis relatively high gender discrimination in Turkey initiates from capability distribution, however Turkey's gender disparity in achievements is lower than Turkish women's empowerment. Although Iran has almost eliminated the gender discrimination, in capabilities and empowerment of women, there is a gigantic gender inequality in distribution of functionings and achievements. Hence, such a paradox, first, wastes country's half of educated and empowered labor force. Then, women's unemployment not only increases their dependent role in societies (Nussbaum 1998, 2000), but also can contribute to increasing corruption, and emergence of informal vocations in the society.

2. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT, CAPABILITY APPROACH AND CRITICISMS

2.1 Human Development

Human development represents a paradigm focused on human beings' freedom in different aspects of life and aims to guarantee their human rights. It looks at the development as enlarging the freedoms and potentials of people that draws attention to the "ends" and adds more intrinsic significance to the concept of development (Sen 1999, Walker 2005). Although at the first glance, it seems to be simple in a way, it is quite complex because the quality and equality of human life contains many components that are neither same nor commensurable by any single metric or words (Sen 1999, 2005, Nussbaum 2011). By having a quick look up the human development definition in the first UNDP report (1990), the most highlighted fact to notice is that the actual wealth of a state is its people and the main purpose of development briefly is to advantage people through an equal manner within the globalized world which calls for Universalism in every clause of it (UNDP 2016). In another word, the most crucial segment of development that makes it analyzable and intelligible is the people. Though, people are both the "means and the ends" of development, they are not exclusively remarked as tools for procreating something, as the notion of "human capital" (Sen 1999, 2013, Katusiime 2014). No one can neglect that human beings are the eventual end of development in any sphere, not a convenient promoter for the greedy materialistic process. The final target of every active evaluation is to observe how many people have engaged in it or taken profit from it. Furthermore, the criterion of development's prosperity in social policies leads to the improvement of people's lives and welfare, not just the enlargement of production processes (Robeyns 2003). However, in most of the cases it is overlooked because of paying more attention to the short-term concerns likewise achieving to the higher levels of financial wealth through enhancing some factors of the economy (Gasper 2000). Human development is an interdisciplinary concept which provides an empowering environment for every unit of the social community "individuals" to

expand their available options. To gain this purpose, in the threshold it should enhance people's capabilities through improving their health, education and skills, then turn these capabilities into the functionings (Sen 1999, Robeyns 2003, UNDP 2016).

The human development template includes every individual in a variety of scales to enjoy a healthy and long life, qualified education and equal basic social services. (Nussbaum 2011, UNDP 2016). There are some alternative development approaches that have suggested development is all about economic growth which is not a true story because development is a much broader manifestation than just income and economic growth to be evaluated just through GNI and GDP measurement indicators (Alkire & Deneulin 2009, Alkire 2010). Real Gross Domestic Product per capita (GDP) is an approximately complicated indicator among development studies which is evaluated by economists in particular periods of time. It represents countries' correctness of process of economy and demonstrates all productions of the country including goods and services in terms of United States dollar value. Having a progress in year-to-year GDP value of a country, means a growth in the economy of that country. The growth of GDP per capita or individual income has an instrumental relationship with the expansion of human development (Walker 2005). In one condition the richness of national economy will extend people's choices in other ranges as well, if it was simultaneously along with social equality (UNDP 2016). Hence, people's usage of national wealth is not less valuable than other elements. That is the rationality behind the most common statement of societies that states the only indigenous precious property of them is their people who recognized the existence of the state (Nussbaum 2011). The striking differentiation between economic prosperity and the human development implies that the income and economic factors illustrate particularly one fragment of the human development concept. However, the latter one encompasses all the dimensions of humanness, whether social, cultural, political or economic. It might be assumed that the overflow of people's earning can eventuate to the maximization of the other dimensions as well. But, that is a falsifiable hypothesis which is not correct in all the times and for all the cases.

Lots of human choices can expand separately from economic circumstances. Health, knowledge, political liberty, a clean natural environment and simple delight of life are not merely, or exceedingly, subjected to income. In correspondence with the Table 2.1 drawing up by the available data released by United Nations Development Programme (2016) and World Bank (2015), countries with a lower GDP per capita than Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey have attained better levels of human development indicators, in education and inequality. Thus, economic growth is a sub-category of human development paradigms, albeit a necessary section. On the other hand, the close and extremely improved human development rates of whole countries illustrate that during the past 25 years, human development indicators have progressed remarkably in a universal scale and people nowadays are enjoying longer lives, more social services and more efficient knowledge than before (UNDP 2016). Indeed, human development has succeeded to achieve the Millennium Declaration and The Millennium Development Goals during a quarter of the century after its outset, while it is still uneven and there are lots of human exclusion insistence evidences.

For instance, Panama's GDP per capita (13,268.1\$) in the Table 2.1 is approximately two times more than Azerbaijan's GDP (5,496.3\$), though, the percentage of income inequality in Panama (38.0) has been measured five times more than Azerbaijan (8.9). This proportion even applies to the level of "Inequality in education" in these two countries as well. In fact, the high GDP in this case has not guaranteed the development for every individual of the Panama and a striking part of people have not reaped benefits from high GDP per capita average to develop their capabilities. On the contrary, one of the other interesting cases in 2015 HDI data is Ukraine whose GDP per capita (2,115.0\$) according to World Bank datasets in 2015, is remarkably lower than other developing countries in the Table 2.1 such as Iran and Turkey _respectively with 5,442.8\$ and 9,125.7\$ GDP per capita_ while, Ukraine has a significantly lower level of inequality either in education (3.6%) or income (9.2%) than Iran and Turkey and a higher adult literacy rate (99.8) than Iran (86.8).

Table 2.1: GDP per Capita and Selected Human Development Indicators

Country	GDP Per Capita (US\$)	Adult Literacy Rate % (Ages 15 and Above)	Inequality in Education (%)	Inequality in Income (%)
Developing sample countries in this thesis				
Azerbaijan	5,496.3	99.8	8.3	8.9
Iran	5,442.8	86.8	37.3	46.6
Turkey	9,125.7	95.0	14.2	21.8
Low GDP per capita with high HDI				
Kyrgyzstan	1,103.2	99.5	5.0	17.7
Ukraine	2,115.0	99.8	3.6	9.2
High GDP per capita with modest HDI				
Korea, Rep.	27,221.5	No Data	25.5	18.4
Panama	13,268.1	95.0	13.6	38.0

Source: (UNDP 2015, World Bank 2015)

A successful development policy or in the terminology of Aristotle “a good political arrangement” from social and political perspectives has to contain “human good”, that is an improvement in health, education and freedom, while a decrease in poverty and all the social, cultural and political inequalities that facilitates people’s capabilities to achieve long, healthy and innovative lives (Sen 1999, 2013, UNDP 2016). This is why human development is not considered as a novel idea. Since ancient times, the pillar of people and social policies had been centralized as the first strategy among politics (UNDP 1990). Indeed, this notion goes on evolving with the

idea of analyzing a country's needs from human development perspective by social changes influencing on progress or decline of HDI (UN 1999).

A promising human development according to 2030's agenda of UNDP, is the one that gives people the ability to achieve their whole potential capabilities by leaving no individual behind. To fulfill the vulnerabilities of the society through a persuasive document, at the first step, there is no necessity to be imposed by the force of hard power or even by economic threats in which actually they are never justified in human development agenda. If the concept is a nation in the developed world, it usually gives the priority to things like health and education; but the crucial point is just as what Martha Nussbaum (2011) argues, "no matter in what level developed or developing a country is, it should put more emphasis on its people, by giving equal life qualities and let them decide what they want to do with it with their own cogent". She provides a template for nations to protect their accountability among people; nonetheless, attempting to convince people of something equal to the other citizens' share, would improve their freedom and trust over policy makers.

On the other hand, however countries defend certain rights in their nations or constitutions, such as the freedom of association, the freedom of speech, the freedom of religion; it would not mean that they have enough freedom and pluralism. Indeed, the relationship between universalism and pluralism is complicated; because satisfying everyone with different concerns and demands is a kind of far-reaching plurality, particularly in a developing country with a wide range of ethnic groups. No one can dragoon people into pursuing one of the capabilities due to they are a set of opportunities. Maybe some of them hate that culture or believes and still believe in the integrity of the freedom, thus it would be beneficial for all the people who have any types of religion, language, ethnicity or culture. It is an approach that is all about opportunity and free choice (Robeyns 2016).

Development necessitates eliminating immense resources of the lack of freedom or "unfreedom". This is a well-established fact that the poverty is identical to tyranny and it exactly implies the same as organized public exclusion which fails to provide the social facilities. There is no doubt that these are the certain characteristics of an undeveloped state. What developing states can perform to improve positively satisfaction and achievement of people is affected by political liberties, social

facilities, economic opportunities and providing conditions of efficient health, basic and equal education for every individual to cultivate and encourage their initiatives (Ul Haq 1995, Sen 1999). Therefore, the human development and well-being of people according to the Sen should be appraised through the illumination of the measured functionings obtained by a person (Sen 1987, Saito 2003)

Freedoms do not refer to merely the fundamental "ends" of development; simultaneously, they are vital "means" of the development as well (Sen 2013). Besides acknowledging the appraising significance of freedom mainly, we should ponder over its remarkable practical and empirical conjunction that associates different types of freedoms with each other, rather than being hostile to one another. There is a formidable interdependence among political, social and economic freedoms strengthening one another. For instance, achieving to social opportunities in the form of equal and basic education or health facilities would be just a faraway dream, without economic participation, political freedom, and transparency insurance (Sen 1999, 2005, 2013).

2.2 Necessary Components and Aspects of Human Development

Human development has consisted of three interdependent components: capabilities (opportunity, choices or the real freedoms), process freedoms (agency, democratic practice and empowerment) and justice in functionings or achievements (Alkire & Deneulin 2009, Alkire 2010).

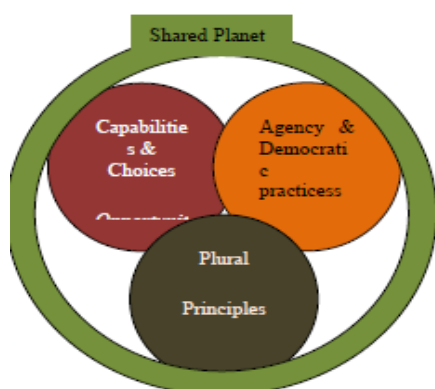


Figure 2.1: Human Development Components

Source: (Alkire 2009)

First, the establishment of human capabilities, for instance, enhancement of knowledge, healthcare, and skills (UNDP 1990). The notions of capability and freedom are not separable (Walker 2005). Nonetheless, capabilities as opportunity and choice freedoms, in fact, are different from contractual freedoms; since they address people's real abilities to attain something. Basic capabilities are consist of having chance to health services, literacy, free media, and participation in significant occasions and so on. In fact the range of valuable capabilities can change from one community to another and that is why Sen (1999, p. 242) leaves this framework open and controversial (Walker 2005). Human development elaborates people's freedoms within the particular limitations of their specific circumstances which consist of time, political will, resources, information and transparency (Nussbaum 2011).

The second one is the preparation of people to make of their obtained capabilities functioning, along with increasing employment environments, productive and active roles, political participations (Deneulin 2009). Third, distributing these capabilities and opportunities equally between individuals of the society, regardless of their gender, ethnicity, social class and language is the last inevitable gear of human development. A society requires promoting human capabilities as well as guaranteeing the liberal and equal attainment to life opportunities (UNDP 2016). The remarkable scale of people's disappointment will be the outcome, if the measures of human development do not scrupulously balance these two sides.

Human development is essentially 'plural' and 'multi-dimensional'. It focuses on health as much as it pays attention to education and economic income. It equally considers several other aspects of human life such as culture, political participation, employment and fiscal policy as well (Alkire & Deneulin 2009).

One of the main perspectives in human development has been raised by Mahbub Ul haq in his book of *Reflections on human development* (1995) that describes four important principles of the human development template, which are equity, sustainability, productivity, and empowerment.

Human development has to expand people's opportunities and capabilities while they enjoy equally from them. Development without equity means the restriction of development for some strata of individuals who are living within the same society. It does not matter how equitable the development procedure is, as a result it can

deprive all segments of the society; in addition, in human development when we talk about parity it consists of fairness in the distribution of opportunities, not essentially in outcomes. Equity in distribution of capabilities and social and political achievements, in fact, has been considered as the main human right in the human development template.

Besides, lack of sufficient levels of equality in societies contributes to other negative consequences. The prominent example of that is the societies with high amounts of discrimination whose increasing criminality levels causes suffering for people in general and individuals' security (Stewart & Deneulin 2002). Sustainability and security indicate a kind of responsibility toward the future generations, to guarantee them the right to achieve the identical level of development received by the current generation (Boni & Walker 2013).

In the case of empowerment, it is corresponding with the activity agent role of people. Thus, in the stage of participation and empowerment of human development, people have to be involved as agents who have the potential to follow and recognize the objectives they value and have cause to value (Alkire & Deneulin 2009, pp. 28-30).

On the other hand, productivity plays an important role in the human development framework. It demands to invest in people and provide them a deserved well-being and employment to obtain their highest potential capabilities in practice. The productivity of human capabilities has been mostly put in the center of the massive development literature. Even though, some latest development models are focused basically on the human capital context, which unfortunately, considers people exclusively as an instrument to achieve economic growth and in most of the times. Indeed, it casts doubt on the centrality of people as the eventual end of development. Therefore, the component of productivity has to be treated as only a section of the human development template, with identical significance given to equity, sustainability and empowerment. Human development guarantees a capable environment by entitling every individual to credit, productive and equally distributed advantages (Ul Haq 1995).

2.3 Human Development Index

As I mentioned before, Human Development Index concentrates mainly on obtaining of three parameters of human development: health, education, and living standards. So that, H indicates the life expectancy, E represents the educational accomplishments and Y indicates (GNI) Gross National Income per capita. It describes the average income of a country's national people, which is estimated anniversary in United States' dollar value. There is no doubt that the economic resources are essential properties for a gentle life (Alkire & Santos 2009). These parameters are normalized through the HDI formula by the values of 0 and 1. Accordingly, the value for HDI can be evaluated by using the average of the three indicators.

$$HDI = [H + E + Y]/3$$

The distribution of those parameters can be shown as h, e, and y. So, by considering that HDI is the mean of those variables, it can be written as follows (Alkire & Santos 2009):

$$HDI = \mu[\mu(h), \mu(e), \mu(y)]$$

Human Development Index was influenced mainly by Sen's viewpoint and its aim with a multidimensional and statistic essence is to guarantee human development process and to reflect the real demand and distribution of capabilities in countries and even in an international sphere (UNDP 1992, Alkire and Foster 2010, Klugman, Rodríguez & Choi, H 2011). HDI attempts to shift the attention towards human well-being rather than economic growth. To present an inclusive criterion for development progress, since 1990- the first Human Development Report- United Nations Development Program releases updated HDI values for each county universally by new data and analyses. Human Development Index ranks different countries in comparison with each other and regarding their transformation from the lowest achievement to the highest achievement in economic, social, cultural and political indicators. As the Figure 2.2 illustrates, HDI pushes the governments to target their policies towards various ends such as education and health for all individuals, through a proper environment and standard life qualities (Saito 2003).

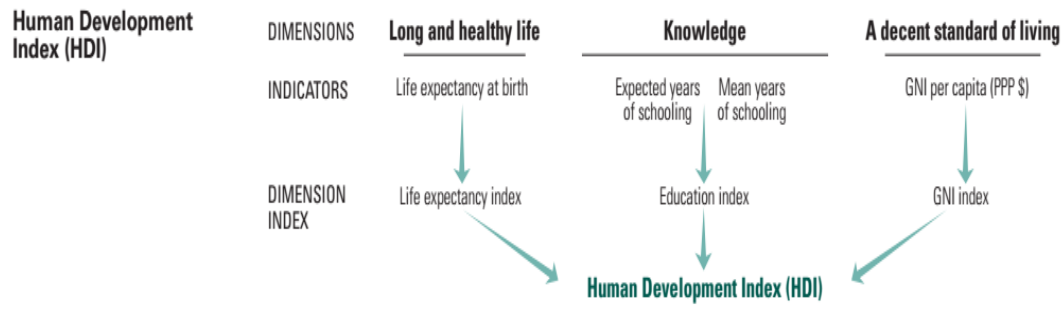


Figure 2.2: Human Development Index (HDI)

Source: UNDP 2016

Hence, traditional human development circulates around three basic concepts since its onset – people’s health to guarantee them a long life, access to the preferable level of education and decent living criteria (Alkire & Foster 2010). In order to analyze the first component, life expectancy at birth is the main indicator; because according to most of the scholars’ point of view, longevity of life is a result of having enough nutrition and appropriate health. Having access to knowledge including a good quality not only empowers individuals in different aspects of life, but also, is an essential component for attaining a decent vocation and a productive life in today’s modern society. The third element lies in the required resources for decent life qualities which can be partially based on income, access to land, credit and other sources (UNDP 1999). In HDI generally income plays dual roles as means to reach the qualified level of health and education, and as an end itself. Using the years of life expectancy, mean years of schooling and adult literacy as the merely social indicators is not sufficient to conclude that a country is developed or not. In fact, it leads to cast doubt on truthfulness of HDI as a reflection of individuals’ real achievements (UNDP 1992).

How calculating HDI in different countries can address the inequalities? Or how can HDI achieve the inequality rates in distribution of capabilities, functionings and agency through the people? The challenging issue in evaluating the HDI distribution among people is that we need to have the data for each individual. Accordingly, there are multiple parameters for that purpose: H, E, and Y which are the main parameters in Human Development Index. By taking into account different groups, the first thing is to calculate the mean accomplishment for each group such as gender, age, race, religion. The problem here is that income is more fluctuated than health and

education, so if the value for income is greater, as a result, the inequality measurement of it will be higher than the other factors such as health and education (Alkire & Santos 2009).

To address the above-mentioned problem, another way is to consider the other factors such as expectancy instead of other health variables. Hence, the average of life expectancy, educational outcomes, and average income will be taken into consideration to calculate HDI. There are various criticisms to HDI because of its error in correct articulation of Sen's capability approach and particularly, in the case of its ignorance of inequality and distribution process of indicators (Alkire & Foster 2010). That is the logic of this statement of UNDP's 'human development proceeds beyond what HDI's choices captures'. In other words, if two countries have an identical average achievements and even same HDI level, they may enjoy very distinct '*distributions of achievements*'. Since 2010, HDI has added the indicators of inequality in gender, education and income (Alkire & Foster 2010). Therefore, we can say that the selection of indicators and functionings in the HDI may require to be reexamined in order to make it much more efficient (Saito 2003). By analyzing the HDI as a composite of human life's different aspects, underestimating one aspect by preference of other is not logical.

2.3.1 Inequality adjusted HDI

As Figure 2.3 displays, the inequality adjusted HDI method was proposed by Foster, Lopez-Calva, and Székely (2005) to calculate the HDI for the individual level data. Indeed, through IHDI human development is analyzed based on a distribution-sensitive approach. In this method, the β variable has been used to obtain the average of the distribution for every HDI parameter. The values for a β variable are 0 and -1. So, if the value for β is low, then the degree of the inequality will be higher.

By aggregating the parameters (H, E, and Y), the β -based HDI value can be obtained by using the means of means approach (Alkire & Santos 2009):

$$HDI_{\beta} = \mu_{\beta}[\mu_{\beta}(h), \mu_{\beta}(e), \mu_{\beta}(y)] \quad \text{for } \beta \leq 1$$

The above formulation considers the inequalities in terms of the specific costs and inconsistent development. Hence, IHDI shows country's average functionings in education, health and income through discounting every component's value

regarding its inequality level. However, it is possible that a couple of countries with different distribution path of achievements share the identical HDI value and rank. The fundamental objective behind the formation of IHDI is to illuminate the costs of inequality in society that consequently, directs policies toward inequality decline (UNDP 2016).

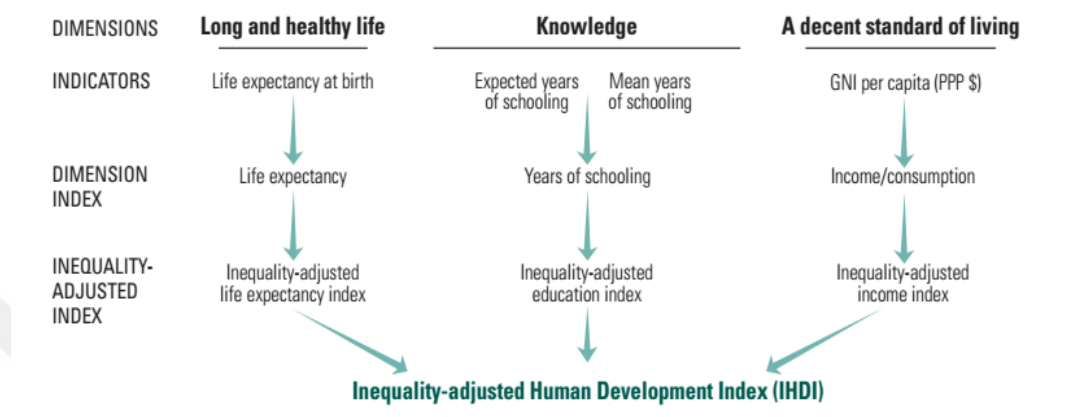


Figure 2.3: Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)

Source: UNDP 2016

2.4 Capability Approach

The first appearance of this approach has been in Amartya Sen’s lecture in 1979 in Stanford University as ‘Equality of What?’ to find a competent way to evaluate equality in the society (Alkire & Deneulin 2009). According to Sen (1992, p.5) ‘An individual’s capability to attain functionings that he or she has personal causes to value it, provides a broad-spectrum approach to the assessment of social arrangements, and this yields a specific way of observing the evaluation of equality and inequality’. This approach toward human welfare attempts to ‘focus on freedom in order to attain the general capabilities then work in particular’ (Sen 1995, Saito 2003, Walker & Unterhalter 2007). The fundamental experiment of development is up to this question’s answer ‘whether people’s freedoms today are greater than what they had in the past’. Furthermore, an experiment of inequality lies in whether capability sets of people are distributed equally or unequally (Alkire & Deneulin 2009). The capability approach concentrates on three key issues: functioning, capability (Robeyns 2016) and agency (Alkire & Deneulin 2009). This approach

begins with a very simple question which is what people are actually able to do and be. In that case, human development is presumed to have two dimensions. First, the establishment of human capabilities, for instance, enhanced knowledge, healthcare, and skills. The second one is the utilization of people to make of their obtained capabilities functioning, in order to recruitment, productive operations, political tasks or relief. A society requires promoting human capabilities as well as guaranteeing the liberal attainment to human opportunities. The remarkable scale of people's disappointment will be the outcome, if the measures of human development do not scrupulously balance the two hands.

There are three key terms within the capability approach:

- Capability is the actual freedom to engage in different functionings regardless of having access to a certain adequacy level of resources. Indeed, capabilities are a set of vectors toward functionings which reflect the individual's freedom to propel one kind of living to another and give them the positive liberty to select among possible living opportunities (Sen 1992, p.40, Ul Haq 1995) (Saito 2003, Robeyns 2016).
- Functionings refer to the achievements and as Sen defines (1999, p.75) 'the different things a person may value doing or being'. In fact, functionings are prized outcomes and declare things that provide people's welfare— likewise being educated, being safe, being healthy and well-fed, being educated, having a good career and the several other goals (Saito 2003, Walker 2005).
- Agency includes in the process freedoms and has been defined by Alkire and Deneulin (2009, p.22), as "person's potential to follow and recognize the objectives she or he values and has particular cause to value". Indeed, an agent is 'the one who acts and brings to change.' (Sen, 1999, p19) According to Alkire (2009) human development backup people "as agents" either 'individually' within family and society, or 'collectively' in democratic practice and public discussion (Deneulin 2009).

2.5 Capability Approach towards Human Rights

The notion of the capability approach is a crucial threshold of the practical endorsement of a broad range of human rights' crises such as ethnical debates along with the idea of human dignity, political and civil rights and freedoms, social and economic rights, a sufficient standard of wellbeing that consist of enough nutrition, shelter, health and education. Repeating what Sen (2000, 2005, 2013) advocates, any kinds of freedoms as 'process' and 'opportunity' have the enough capacity to be considered as human rights (Robeyns 2003, Vizard, Fukuda-Parr & Elson 2011). Therefore, the absolute coherence between human rights and capabilities approach is undeniable (Nussbaum 2011). Besides, highlighting the notion of the human dignity and capabilities in contemporary human rights' approach leads the claim on their close connection (Nussbaum 1997, Sen 2005, Vizard, Fukuda-Parr & Elson 2011).

According to Sen (2005), the notion of capability and human development allies mainly with 'the freedom—a range of the choices and rights belong to a person, to decide what sort of life to live. Human rights and capability approach are circulating both on the same concepts _ substantive freedom and human dignity for every single person and group (Saito 2003). With a perspective toward public policy, the capability approach underlines the crucial significance of the self-dependent freedoms and opportunities of either individuals or groups, whereas the human rights approach calls more attention toward the values likewise dignity, respect and freedom, non-marginalization and equality, contribution and independence, and the efficient social and political arrangements that are required to preserve and advance them. Indeed, the human rights-based approach chiefly concentrates on the concepts of "accountability and obligation" (Orend 2002, Vizard, Fukuda-Parr & Elson 2011). This might be the reason behind popularity of the distinction between rights which are legally instituted by international conventions or national legislation, and human rights originated from 'human-ness' or 'humanity' of individuals in itself. In fact, the peculiar notion of human rights to education drives to a kind of "incomplete" comprehension, and thus, the accomplishment of these entitlements (Saito 2003, Alkire 2009).

An application of human rights-based approach, to education, which is one of the greatest challenges in developing countries, particularly in Iran, contributes to recognizing the policy-makers as the responsible to the heaviest burden. Human rights are at the heart of every development agenda therefore no one can separate human rights and development approaches. Human rights conventions which stand in the norms' level, should guide the policy settings because being in laws and conventions is not adequate to fulfillment its effect in all citizens' lives. Hence, it is very clear that why every new government which comes to office, sets new policies prior to any action to translate their functioning in people's routine life and activities that is in coherence with development processes.

2.6 Critiques of Capability Approach

The Human development and capability approach as a very general framework is open to quite a lot range of different interpretations. In this section a number of key critiques raised by different scholars regarding the capability approach will be reviewed.

First of all, what makes capability approach controversial is its lack of functioning's index that makes the way of its operation problematic (Roemer 1996, Saito 2003). This critique has been raised by Nussbaum (2003) about the absence of "a specific list of capabilities". Sen (2004) has responded by declaring the fact that as part of democratic procedure, selection of a particular list of capabilities should differ from case to case and presenting a predetermined capability list would be problematic. There is another response to this question by Robeyns (2005) that refuses both the aforementioned opinions. According to her Sen's capability approach is obscure to some extent and he does not explain how public representation would occur and in fact, it is not guaranteed in Sen's method. She criticizes the specific capability list of Nussbaum (2000, 2003) due to its generality that can create much crisis through the non-democratic local decision-making procedure (Robeyns 2005).

The second and the most frequent criticism against the capability approach link to the various ideas of individualism, groups and social structures. Hence, mostly the capability approach is condemned to be extremely individualistic which includes different claims (Robeyns 2000, 2003, 2005, 2008, Sen 2002, Stewar & Deneulin

2002, Stewart 2004). In that case, they denounce the capability approach because of its ignorance of the importance of groups and communities and individuals' significant role in their social environment and society. In addition, individualism critique claims that the capability approach ignores the significance of social structures and institutions. The reason why this criticism is recurrent lies in the fact that the capability approach does have a very strong emphasis on the individual; it means that the capability approach has at its core the idea that what is the value of the lives that individuals are able to lead (Burchardt & Hick 2016). This perspective has been developed by Robeyns (2005) through her classification of two types of individualism as ontological individualism and ethnical individualism. Capability approach gives the priority to evaluate groups in themselves as well as communities, cultures, minority group peoples or any other collectivities to which people belong. Though, it is in no sense ontological individualistic; ignoring the role which communities, groups, ethnicities, families and cultures play to shape the capability sets that individuals have is not logical. Having reciprocal opinion with Robeyns and Burchardt's persistence on the ethnical individualism dimension of capability approach, is one of the common points of contemporary approaches. Therefore, the criticism of individualism on the capability approach to some extent can be considered as true; however, there are lots of collective analyses since 1990 on human development and capability approach by Sen about households as places of cooperative conflict. He advocates the capability approach of human development as "‘people-centered’ approach which puts human agency (rather than organizations alike; governments or markets) at the center of platform" (Dre`ze & Sen 2002, p. 6).

It is a well-established fact to approve that the capability approach is individualistic in terms of the holders of value or "individuals", whereas, it is not individualistic in terms of its analysis of what shape individuals' lives; due to there is plenty of research that compares one group with another regarding to their average capabilities. Nussbaum (1998, 2000), Robeyns (2003a) and Sen (1995) have addressed the gender inequality concept to the collectives of women and have highlighted the significance of the groups in conjunction with their capabilities and well-being (Robeyns 2005).

It is better described in Figure 2.4 with locating the individual in the middle. However, around them groups likewise family and society, whether religious or identity communities, that is both enabler and constraint on capabilities in different situations. On the other hand, basically the infrastructure and the local employment available to each person is a key determinant of their capabilities. Beyond that, the national and global perspective is where migration flows, trade agreements and indeed climate change examples are taken into account. Hence, the individual is nested within the all series of various stages of capability enhancers and capability constraints (Burchardt 2015).

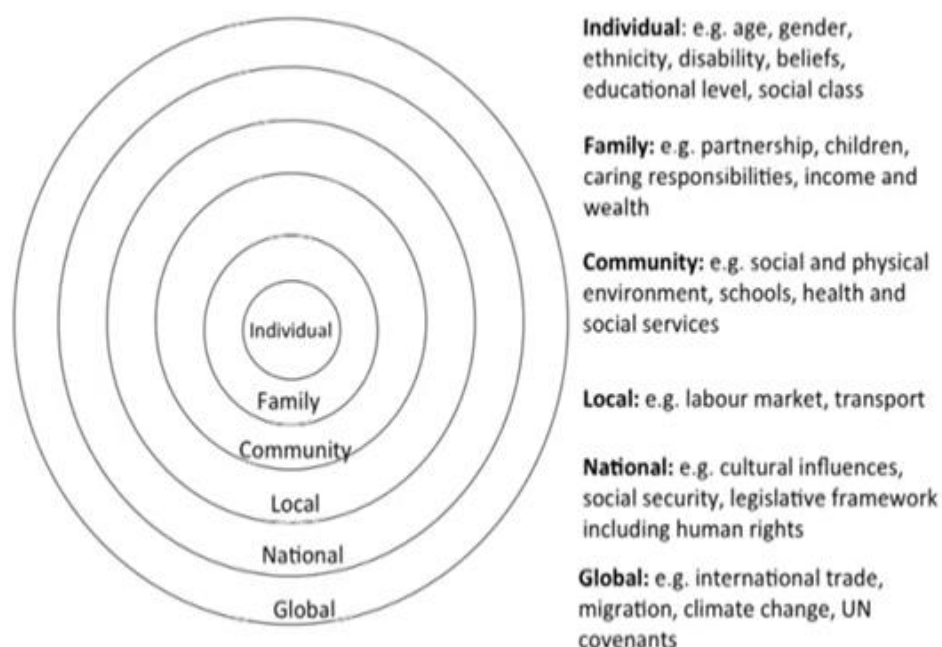


Figure 2.4: The Capability Set of an Individual as Enhancer and Constraint

Source: (Burchardt 2015)

The other criticism of human development and capability approach, as I mentioned before, is that with respect to its multidimensionality notion, sometimes, it reduces the focus on redistribution of wealth and income from the rich to the poor (Alkire 2009). Thus, one side of criticism is that it is an interruption which allows ‘wriggle room’ for policy-makers to decrease the emphasis on the hard objectives of income

distribution. Maybe, there is an actual risk specifically in times of severity with very significant variations in the income distribution which is important to retain a clear focus on income. Besides, the capability approach is quite beneficial in reminding us that ‘income is a tool to an end rather than an end in itself’ (Burchardt 2015).

The final two criticisms of the capability approach, argued by Burchardt (2015) are in a sense, polar contraries. The capability approach is in some cases, accused of being extremely idealistic. On the other hand, it is sometimes accused of being an apology for capitalism. In that sense, it seems to be correct that it does not automatically imply a criticism of capitalism itself. Moreover, in the other interpretations, if we take seriously an idea of equality of capability with regard to the kind of structural constraints which operate on people's capabilities, it can have really quite radical implications.

2.7 Gender Inequality Concept

Gender is a cultural and social notion which is distinct from sex or biological classification (Rubin 1975, Moghadam 1991). Gender discrimination as a global notion exists in all societies in a various forms and degrees. Men and women’s distinct responsibilities, physical and spiritual differences get ready the proper context for a kind of gender-based work distribution. Such a distribution sometimes eventuates to unequal divisions and wages. Ensuring the men and women’s equal shares in both capabilities and functionings is the main aspect of the Human development (UNDP 1995). In fact, one of the essential steps to monitor the development and progress path of countries is calculating the gender gap and women’s empowerment in them (Ferretti & Mariani 2017).

Although the gender equality phenomenon has been proposed since 1995 through the Beijing Declaration (United Nations 1996), various forms of gender marginalization are still inevitable fate in many developing countries. Besides, the significant role of the women’s attendance in country’s social, economic and cultural development is an undeniable fact (OECD 2012). It consists of many aspects such as inequality in income, inequality in access to opportunities, educational inequalities, inequality in access to the formal and well-paid vocations such as management, political positions and finally, having a decision-maker status. Attempting to close the gender gap is a

potential concept to remove gradually the discrimination of minorities and other deprived individuals from fundamental human development indicators. (Afshari & Kakavand 2016).

After two decades of collective efforts through multi-national organizations such as UN, World Bank, and so on, the concept of gender inequality has become to some extent measurable and usable in policy-making process (Staveren 2013). The best examples of these efforts are Gender Development Index (GDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) which since 2009 are developed by United Nations Human Development Reports by providing annually published indexes.

2.8 Gender Inequality Measurement

At country level there are various perspectives used, so far, to calculate the gender inequality. The important dimension of them is the involvement of social institutions in gender disparity of societies. The patrimonial system in families, labor markets and the property laws are the clear examples of that involvement. Nowadays, huge amount of the available gender indexes, on one hand, facilitates the comparison of countries during a certain time period, on the other hand, the huge number of indices calls the demand for more curiosity in policy analysts and researchers to make true choices among them (Staveren, 2013).

2.8.1 Gender Development Index (GDI)

Statistical gender studies and social indicators in developing countries and particularly in Middle East region, disclose important facts about women's political, social and economic share within the societies (Moghadam 2004).

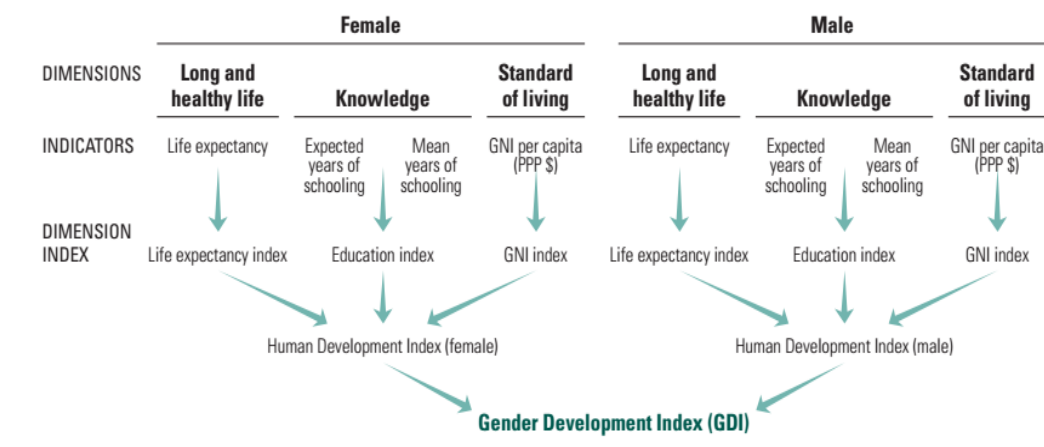


Figure 2.5: Gender Development Index (GDI)

Source: UNDP 2016

As we can see in Figure 2.5, to evaluate women's portion in non-agriculture labor market, income, and their development in literacy, health and urbanization rate, GDI is a new-organized measurement indicator, introduced by Human Development Report Office in 2014. Through the GDI, each country's HDI value is disaggregated based on sex. Having a special ratio to represent women in comparison to the men has various advantages in the international scale. The GDI mainly focuses on gender inequalities in functionings through the same three spheres of HDI: health, education and economic recourses (UNDP 2016).

2.8.2 Gender Equality Index via Gender Inequality Index

The strong correlation between gender disparity and development is one of the hot topics in both gender studies and development. According to the Jayachandran (2015) gender discrimination favoring men, in human development indicators are consistently more prevalent in underdevelopment countries than developed ones. She argues the lesser earning of women than men is not limited to the undeveloped societies and can be observed essentially in all over the world. However, the gender inequality in education, health and bargaining power in marriage seems to be in a greater extent in undeveloped countries.

Gender Equality Index (GEI) including rights, capabilities and resources as input measures and welfare indicators and functionings as the result measures. In addition, it contains attitudinal measurements looking up social norms as gender based

institutions. GEI consists of international and regional sources in both qualitative and quantitative measurements. The main stream in GEI circulates on women’s social rights and their economic rights in European countries (Staveren 2013).



Figure 2.6: Gender Equality Index (GEI)

Source: European Institute for Gender Equality 2017

What makes GII different from GEI refers to first of all, their different domain from each other. GEI evaluates the gender equality notion exclusively across the European Union, however GII introduced by UNDP has a universal domain. In addition, GII unlike GEI focuses on outcome and functionings’ measurement. For instance, with regard to Figure 2.6 compared to Figure 2.7, it concentrates on reproductive health through maternal mortality and adolescent fertility as well as in the case of empowerment. Thus, the main focus of GII is on indicators as educational attainment (secondary and above), parliamentary representation and labor force participation. In fact, the real objective of the GII is to show the losses in national human

development functionings that have been eroded because of gender disparity (Staveren 2013).

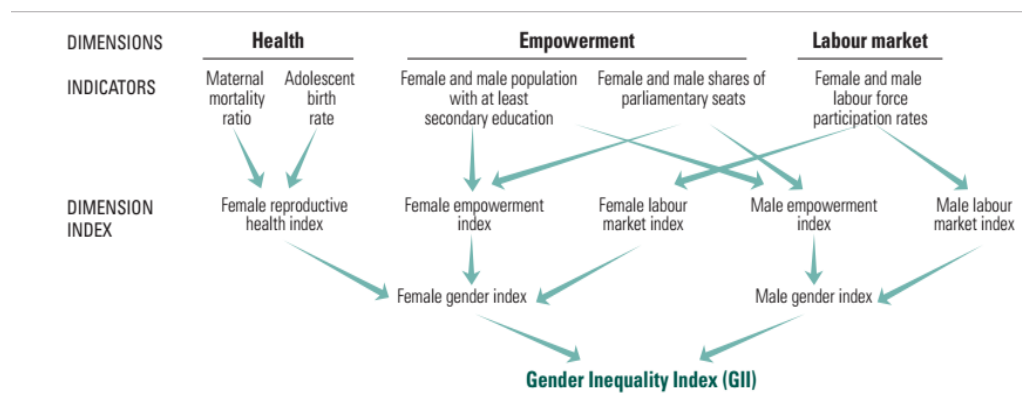


Figure 2.7: Gender Inequality Index (GII)

Source: UNDP 2016

2.8.3 Global Gender Gap Index

Global Gender Gap Index is another index to measure the women's disparity in a universal scale. It evaluates the gaps in human development indicators distributed between men and women. It includes capabilities, resources and functionings. Its value almost is interpreted as percentage which manifests how much of gender inequality gap has been closed in a certain country. Economy, health, education and politics are the fundamental dimensions of Global Gender Gap Index which have 14 indicators listed in Table 2.2. (Staveren 2013).

Table 2.2: Global Gender Gap Index

Economic participation and opportunity	Educational attainment	Health and survival	Political empowerment
Female/male ratio of labor force participation	Female/male ratio of literacy rate	Sex ratio at birth	Female/male ratio of seats in parliament
Female/male ratio of wages for similar work	Female/male ratio of net primary school enrolment	Female/male ratio in healthy life expectancy	Female/male ratio of ministerial level positions
Female/male ratio of earned income	Female/male ratio of net secondary school enrolment		Female/male ratio of years with a female head of state (last 50 years)
Female/male ratio of legislators, senior officials, and managers	Female/male ratio of gross tertiary school enrolment		
Female/male ratio of professional and technical workers			

Source: (Staveren 2013)

The interrelation between gender disparity and human development can be described in the best way by considering gender equality as both prerequisite and result of society's progress and wellbeing. Indeed, removing the hindrances that narrow women's opportunities, capabilities and functionings, has been proved to turn out a positive feedback loop among their circumstances, human development and growth (Kabeer & Natali 2013). Particularly, promoting gender equality leads to a growth in

women's education and health. Consequently, improving these aspects directly impacts women's economic and political status and empowerment.

Looking at the inequality notion from economic growth perspective has a negative perspective on gender inequality as well. The logic behind economic growth view point is that keeping women out of employment, education and economic opportunities, restricts the society's supply of potential asset labors and innovators that leads to a serious loss in country's productivity and political norms.

2.9 Methodology

The methodology used in this thesis is the secondary data analysis of human development through available data and reports represented by the United Nations Development Program, World Bank, UNESCO and UN. Examining the existing literature, research and conducts gives an excellent opportunity to compare and contrast different points of view with each other to approve or criticize them.

In fact, I have reaped benefits from alternative papers, research and reports regarding human development, education, gender disparity, and employment in this thesis to address some of the gaps and strengths of Iran in different aspects of human development and in particular, in the fields of education and gender parity.

Analyzing the human development agenda and its components requires a reliable set of data which first of all, address each country's progress level case by case, and second, arrange them through time series models. This thesis concentrates on Human Development Index of Iran in comparison to two other countries, Turkey and Azerbaijan, between the years 1990-1995 to 2015. United Nations Development Program (UNDP), UN, World Bank and UNESCO are the main data resources that I have used in this thesis. Besides, all the figures and tables are arranged according to represented data in aforementioned resources.

2.10 Conclusion

Human development framework through its conceptualization has had several positive and negative results in contemporary decades. Human development transforms traditional description of development to more human-based approach, through focusing on health, education and income. Furthermore, it adds a democratic

aspect to policymaking processes through providing enough freedom in selecting valued capabilities and achievements compatible with different society's context. Human development as a plural framework consists of capabilities, agency and functionings. Enhancement in knowledge, healthcare, and skills are capabilities, people's ability to convert their obtained capabilities to achievements is functionings. The authority of people in choosing the valuable capabilities and achievements refers to agency. Capability approach by focusing on freedom, equality and opportunities attempts to balance them. Despite the fact that HDI and capability has encountered various criticisms so far, commonly have been adopted and resolved. Gender disparity is one of the strict obstacles to capability approach's goals. GDI, GEI, GII, GGGI by measuring gender inequality among different countries give different perspectives of it. Women are entitled to have access to education, and economic resources as any other individual in societies. The most important result of putting development plans on the individual-based grand is the increase of government's accountability and trust among people.

3. EDUCATION

3.1 Education from different perspectives

3.1.1 Education from HDI Perspective

Human development index is one of the significant pillars in drawing the government's attention to the extensive and equal clause of education in policymaking process. Although in the light of the human development index, concept of education has been highlighted significantly, this doubt still exists that whether the limited factors such as literacy and attainment to school are enough to the education status of a country. Despite different criticisms as I mentioned in Chapter 1 about the absence of a list for valuable achievements in the capability approach of Sen, Human Development Index is the functional side of the capability approach and educational approach. Hence, to make HDI much more functioning, there is this need to do further research and reexamination on it.

There is a tangible interdependence among different indicators of HDI. For instance, in order to measure exactly the life longevity indicator in HDI, there is a need to care about the striking influence of education on life expectancy at birth. It is much more obvious in the impact of maternal education about child survival on declining child mortality rate in developing countries through different methods such as increased socio-economic position, cleanliness, highlighting the importance of child quality by fewer children and superior food and wealth investment.

Furthermore, child health is highly under the influence of women's independence. An open political arrangement which is built on consent and consensus of people without radicalism and rigid classes, right to decide independently on vocation, education and whatever dedicates every individual equally are the basic elements to guarantee women's autonomy. As Nussbaum indicates (1998, 2000) this autonomy is attained through education and helps women to raise their capabilities. Therefore women autonomy and education are elements which lead to the enhancement of children's survival and in a greater picture, life expectancy among other HDI

indicators (Saito 2003). By taking all above mentioned arguments to the account, the claim that HDI directs society's attention to the momentousness of education is correct. However, the factors such as adult literacy and school attainment are not enough to determine the exact functionings that an individual achieve through educational attainment.

3.1.2 Intrinsic Values of Education

The second perspective toward education illustrates its involvement in both instrumental and intrinsic merits. It shows that education is able to play distinctive roles in people's life (Dreze & Sen 2002, pp. 38-40). Sen (1995, p. 294) argues about the dual role of education as collecting human capital as well as expanding human capability. A person attains lots of capabilities through education likewise "discussing, reading, selecting a choice with more awareness, communicating with others which take him in a serious manner and etc." In fact, the value that people spend on education can be motivated by the knowledge itself. The best example to understand the intrinsic value of the education is studying different foreign languages, with various grammars and specific features of each of them. The identical spirit exists in comprehending chemistry, reading literature and poems (Robeyns 2006).

In addition to the intrinsic value, education has different dimensions _ individual or collective, and economic or non-economic_ involved in instrumental importance. Education can assist a person in finding a vocation, less suffering through labor market, being informed positively about economic opportunities and benefits (Zahedifar 2012). The economic instrumental perspective to education in a collective approach as well. For instance, the book shops and markets' growth directly relate to the enlargement of the literate population's percentage. The individual and collective instrumental economic attitudes of education are the main concentrations of the human capital approach to education (Robeyns 2006b, Katusiime 2014).

Non-economic instrumental role of the education gives the chance to every individual to access any information through newspapers and articles, have the capability to speak with foreigners in their languages, using computer and internet to communicate with others internationally. Hence, education guarantees somehow an

open-minded generation who are trying to live in a better condition than before (Robeyns 2006b).

In addition, the collective role of education in non-economic dimension consists of creating enhanced tolerant society through training children to respect other citizen's different viewpoints about a good life. On the other hand, if women and men get this knowledge that they are equal in their society in lots of vocational and socioeconomic issues such as child-care, getting paid for working at home or out, traveling to the other countries by their own will and so on, it will expand their capabilities and opportunities to pursue the lives that they have reason to value. In another word, by increasing the freedom of both women and men through education they won't follow blindly and uncritically whatever that tries domain them (Robeyns 2006b).

3.2 The Importance of Equal Education

In long term development programs ensuring a high quality of education with a universal accessibility to it is the fundamental pillar. The reason lays in the fact that generally an effective society and labor market always demands to skillful and educated people. This claim can be proved by looking toward the common development strategies among OECD countries which education places at the core of them (OECD 2012).

On the other hand, Doepke & Tertilt (2009) represent a different perspective regarding the impacts of educational inequality and conclude that if the equality and quality of education in the society comes down, people would tend to prefer the patriarchy regime in which all the rights belong to the men. In fact, educational and technological progress increases the human capital that leads to transform the ultimate rights from man to woman. Thus, whenever the educational efficiency becomes critical, men will be on behalf of the political system that empowers women as much as men and men and women decide equally in it (Afshari & Kakavand 2016).

3.3 Methodologies to Analyze Education

There are three analytical methods that underlie educational policies including capabilities, human rights and human capital. As Robeyns (2006b) argues human capital has a major problem to analyze education, which is its merely instrumentalist and economic point of view towards education. On the other hand, the model of human capital is not applicable in the case of every individual as well. Each person even through the same quality and quantity of educational attainment may not yield the same degree and achievement for an income-generated function. It can originate from the internal and external obstacles, which includes natural and social or both of them. Internal hindrances consist of different kinds of mental and physical disabilities. For instance, in the case of natural external barriers, labor forces potential for technological activities may mishandle just because of the different demands of their region as a rural agricultural zone. On the other hand, there are some external bans which have much more social and cultural contexts (Robeyns 2006). The common example of this phenomenon is the general condemn of women's work out of home or her travel without her husband's permission. Therefore, no matter how much a woman has proceeded in achieving skills and knowledge, her output on education will be manipulatively restricted.

Human rights-based and capability approaches with a general focus on the non-economic and intrinsic roles of education can address different dimensions of educational vulnerabilities. Nonetheless, the capability approach sometimes seems to be very transformative due to being open to different interpretations. That is why there is a need for the human rights-based approach to limit the broad interpretations of the capability framework. In fact, human rights are used wherever they may contribute to the expansion of educational capabilities of people and providing them with other probable instruments. However, the capability model addresses the whole roles of education (Robeyns, 2006b).

Women's discrimination on the capabilities and functionings such as educational attainment and labor markets is one of the crucial debates among social and cultural communities so far (Wenneras and Wold, 1997). Even though that discrimination in education sphere has been declined dramatically in comparison with the earlier

decades, women in both developing and developed countries are subjected to be exposed to unpaid or less-paid activities in child care and the household or working outside of the home (Robeyns, 2006b). Persistence of some formal or informal networks and social provisions appointed by the welfare state can support women's facilities contributing to equal paid activities to the men (Drèze & Sen 2002). Therefore, if the focus on educational development excluded on investing economy in education, it will be identical to the spending more encourage and support for the men/boys rather than women/girls (Robeyns 2006b).

In addition to that, analyzing education through the economic lenses induces the minds to compare the outcomes of investment in education with the returns of the investment in other areas. Nevertheless, as Alkire (2002) determines in the project of the Oxfam Non-Governmental Organization in Pakistan that there are many intangible influences to different aspects of a literate Muslim woman's life which are not able to be accounted through the narrow human capital theory.

3.4 The Contribution between Education and the Capability Approach

Education is one of the fundamental capabilities that gives the essential freedom to individuals by underpinning a convenient environment to flourish their life. Indeed, freedom and capabilities are the inseparable couple. Even, some people such as Saito (2003) claim that the capability approach of Amartya Sen links mainly with education concept, despite this fact, it had been unfortunately forgotten to be applied in the educational arena for several years after the manifestation of human capability. Labeling the valuable capabilities and developing them both not only need the existence of freedom but also produce it mutually (Walker 2005). Meanwhile, addressing capabilities belonging to the routine life of individuals such as education, fades out the abstract side of human development as well. According to the actual achievements' range introduced by Walker (2005) through his educational action research, attaining to a high quality education belongs to the complex functionings in the relationship with the simple functionings such as being well-nourished.

Sen's distinction (1999, p.5) between agency and social arrangements is intelligibly apt for evaluating educational achievements as well as other capabilities. In fact, achieving freedom and functionings lies on the individual, institutional and

socioeconomic status of the society. Hence, human development and in particular, capability approach gives the opportunity to assess the educational and social advantage of the people that requires at the first stage centralizing their freedom and agency (Walker 2005).

Walker (2005), Saito (2003), and Nussbaum (2003) also agree on the disadvantages of emptiness of functionings and valuable capabilities' list in education. Having access to education expands other capabilities and people's autonomy in their choices. It gives enough flexible capacity and information to the individuals to choose freely valuable capabilities. Therefore, the most important task of an educational system is to enhance children's autonomy and agency to be able to distinguish valuable capabilities. Such an emphasis on education should make policy makers curious about educational practice and its equity in the distribution of knowledge, social and cultural understandings, norms and values. Applying capability approach to the education leads to assess practically how it could be able to lead well-being and do equity.

Therefore, as Sen (2002, p.7) articulates, education has a central influence in human development and people's identities (Walker 2005). However, if the educational system fails to distribute knowledge fairly among children, it will damage their fundamental human rights. On the other hand, the youth who has been restricted from schooling may have an undeveloped identity and threatening perspective to the others and it will damage the society's peace unforeseeably (Sen 2002, p. 7, Walker 2005).

Thus, the substantial responsibility of educational policy makers and the teachers who are forming the identities of next generations and capabilities is not ignorable. In fact, educational institutions equip individuals with different skills and capabilities to run after valuable opportunities in their own viewpoints. Looking at the capability approach from educational lenses would have considerable advantages especially in developing countries. The significance of humanity just as applied in economics by Sen should be considered through an educational point of view. Indeed, in the case of education, being well-educated is a functioning and the actual opportunity to access qualified education is the respected capability. An individual who does not educate perhaps or may not be free and able to well-educate; the concept of capability

attempts to capture exactly the reality of whether the individual could educate with high quality if he or she wants (Robeyns 2016).

3.5 Criticism on the Competency of Capability Approach for Measuring Education

When we speak about education, it is basically about the children and youth who cannot make a choice fully independently for their life. Thus, how can talk about valuable capabilities and freedom of choice in the case of education which deals with the immature people? (Saito 2003, Walker 2005)

In fact, the role that education plays in human development is beyond a single practice of the agency for children in the present. Being literate at school is a necessity to understand and to develop intrinsic respect to the human dignity careless of diversities. On the other hand, it is the pre-condition for developing children's affiliation. Education promotes gradually children's capabilities and opportunities to further developments in their life. That is why Saito (2003) through a reciprocal idea with Amartya Sen, argues that education expands children's freedoms like other capabilities; however, they will have this kind of freedom in the future more obviously than the present (Walker 2005). Youth through surpassing higher levels of education, attain more and more abilities whether in mathematical technics or social values, which opens a broader range of vocation chances. There is no doubt that literacy can develop children's capabilities and equal chances as long as the social context of society represents education based on the equal value of each individual. Otherwise, not only schooling will not promote youth's capabilities, but also it will narrow and diminish them due to some of them are not valued as the others are. Hence, education that forms different identities by teaching various values is the best agent of Sen's capability approach (Saito 2003). Through schooling people achieve knowledge, social and cultural perspectives, and they learn explicitly or implicitly to be a good person or bad, kind or selfish and so on.

3.6 Universal Primary Education

Primary education as the most essential level of education, depends highly on social and economic structures of the country. Since 1989, by the World Declaration on Education for All and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, a new context for

equal right to go to school has established through an international cooperation. The progressive attitudes in elimination of illiteracy rate among the children, particularly girls, of deprived regions is one of the leading achievements of the EFA (Education for All) program. This success does attain through policy amendments such as enhancement of accessibility of the elementary schools through construction of new schools, eradication of fees and costs for primary level and inclusion of feeding and health care at primary schools' schedule (UNESCO 2015).

However there are millions of children and youth universally who are deprived of primary and compulsory education because of discriminant elements as poverty, gender, ethnicity, language and disability. Indeed, without getting rid of educational discriminations in different countries, reaching to none of the Millennium Goals and Education for All goals is not possible. Some countries due to their inadequate available recourses are not able to meet the challenges by mere government's involvement. The National Commission for Human Development is one of the internationally effective supporters of the primary education in most of the developing and underdeveloped countries which offers new policy guidance through its Universal Primary Education program (Niazi & Khan 2016).

The main factor to measure the progress of primary education is the enrollment rate of children in suitable and compulsory age at the start of elementary school. How much the students at the beginning of school become older than the average level, the possibility to become dropout will be high due to they will face more pressure in finding a job or earn income. Inequality is another error of the late entrance to school that makes both the older students and students with qualified age more disadvantaged (UNESCO 2015). Altogether, how much time passes, the school enrollment rates universally increases and hopefully, the ratio of children without any school background reduces considerably, except in some countries with very low human development as sub-Saharan Africa, Niger, Sudan, and Nepal and so on. Ascending speed of the children's on-time enrollment in primary education is very slow, hence there are still a considerable percentage of children out of elementary schools (UNESCO 2015).

3.7 Higher Education and Tertiary

The common challenge of all countries in higher education points out the growing need for access to the available resources and infrastructures.

3.7.1 Adult literacy rate

Literacy as a common political, economic and cultural value is more than only an ability to read and write. Not only, it is essential for involvement in the society, literacy empowers people as well as learn them different life lessons and skills to cope with the real challenges lifelong. Having a competent literacy rate means enjoy more social status in country level. Consequently, higher literacy rate in a society usually in modern societies is pursued by adequate paid labor market.

According to the UNESCO's EFA program in 2015, the number of illiterate adults in 2010 has been around 781 million people. Indeed, the elimination of illiteracy level have a slow motion during recent years and it has fallen from 18% in 2000 to 14% in 2015 that means the failure of EFA adult literacy target for 2015 universally. Nevertheless, in a small number of the countries the illiteracy rate has been halved as the EFA's target (UNESCO 2015).

3.8 Gender Discrimination in Education

Gender parity in having access to education is the common and major target of EFA and UNMDG programs of UN. In one hand, achieving equal educational attainment of both boys and girls in all educational levels and on the other hand, guaranteeing educational equality between girls and boys are the two main goals of international organizations and movements. Getting rid of gender inequality in primary and secondary education had been placed in center of UNESCO and UNMDG's policies during 2005-2015 (Subrahmanian 2005).

Gender inequality, as I mentioned in Chapter one, is one of the most fundamental challenges in Human development. Yet, the achieved progresses in gender issues are globally remarkable. So that, at elementary education approximately 69% of countries have succeeded to equalize girl and boy pupils' enrollment rates in school. But, in higher levels of education women's participation is still very lower than the estimated researches for gender parity (UNESCO 2015).

In addition to above-mentioned arguments, we should not neglect the difference between terms of “gender equality” and “gender parity”. According to Subrahmanian (2005) gender parity in education denotes formal equality which measures the number of represented women in education compared to males. However, when we talk about gender equality in education, it not only calculates the number of both genders, but also it implies the progress and effectiveness of gender equality measurements so far. Formal equality includes ‘sameness’ of men and women in participation in and access to education. This approach has been used in evaluating EFA movement that the ratio of female-to-male in educational progresses is the main value in gender parity index.

To analyze gender discrimination in education we need to first of all define different positions of women and men and their advantages and disadvantages; because formal equality measurement narrows to merely statistical calculation of gender gaps (Subrahmanian 2005). Therefore, as Kabeer defines (1999.p.37), to attain a functional equality, there is a need to a transparent recognition of approaches that shows women are different from men; due to their biological dimensions and socially founded disadvantages, women are more potential to be marginalized within the communities.

3.8.1 Sexual harassment and gender inequality

One of the important reasons for women’s low attainment at higher education is sexual harassment at higher education which exists, in spite of deterrent policies. According to the both Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN 2015) and EFA agenda of UNESCO (2015), attending higher education in colleges and universities, free from sexual harassment is the fundamental right of every youth in contemporary decades. Creating a safe environment and campus for youth to attain tertiary education and guarantee their wellbeing in future, demands effective policies including social, cultural and institutional transformations. Sexual harassment includes the abuse of students mostly girls in different forms of campus-located actions, words or even the direction of eyes on them. There are various research, policies, and new networks across the world to combat the sexual violence at higher education (Bennett 2009).

Although, deterrent policies and rule of laws since 1965 in Wyoming Fair Employment Practices Act -the first law that prohibits gender discrimination and sexual harassment at formal and employment places- illegalize any types of the sexual violence against students or employees_ particularly women_ outside of home, there are still lodged complaints based on students' sexual harassment mostly at higher education stage (Dworkin, Ginger & Makkor 1988, Bennett 2009, Marshall, Dalyot & Galloway 2014). Nevertheless, because of taboo nature of sexual violence, a considerable degree of harassment in educational sphere remains hidden. That is one of the consequents of dominant culture in developing and underdeveloped countries, students who are assaulted are not allowed to continue their education in higher levels and they have to marry to someone, preferably, to the one who has committed to the sinister action of sexual violence in the cases that the he/she is none of the family members (Heikkinen & Sunnari 2013).

Indeed, sometimes, even a professor's joking of a sexual status in classroom, is accounted as sexual harassment. Such a wide range of harassment's samples make the concept of sexual violence more problematic. In fact, sexual harassment is still one of the most highlighted reason of gender inequality and women's marginalization in many societies since 1970. Besides, this serious phenomenon by threatening students' mental, physical and social health, leads to the victims' more marginalization in colleges and universities (Phipps & Smith 2012). Furthermore, policies regarding sexual harassment in educational institutions should include particular training and practice programs with the aim of diminishing sexual violence on students. Indeed, to improve the general safety of students, they must be able to defend themselves at the dangerous situations. If the defense programs become one of the permanent courses trained sexual harassment at higher education, the level of in-campus harassment events would reduce dramatically (Tennessee 2005).

3.9 Conclusion

The positive correlation between education and other HDI indicators _health and economic resources_ declares the significant role of the education in human development. Besides, the deprived strata of society can empower through education and as a result they would be able to be independent. Women as the largest minority

groups in the societies are the most vivid example. Calculating education through human capital not only means a denial to intrinsic value of education, but also, rejects entitlement of education as a human right. In addition, the enhanced rates of primary education and adult literacy universally, imply the effectiveness of collective actions such as EFA in promoting education and capability approach. Nonetheless, the unfavorable level of human development, literacy rate and out of school children in deprived regions such as Sub-Saharan Africa is not ignorable.



4. EDUCATION IN IRAN

Exercising the agenda of human development in Iran in an effective way necessitates analyzing its social changes through a certain historical path. Due to a country's high human development indicators imply its important growth in past two decades (Sen 1988). Since 1989 and in particular after ending the war with the invasion of Iraq, Iran has achieved a considerable progress in HDI indicators, such as education and health and almost a constant growth in per capita income. Hence, such a positive process propagates the idea that reforms in the both political and social state areas can speed up this proceeding development chains (UN 1999).

Indeed, according to the Table 4.1, Iran's value in human development Index from 0.572 in 1990 has soared to 0.774 in 2015 which means its ranking improved from 94 in 1990 to 68 in 2015 (UNDP 2016). However, Iran still is a country with middle income level and around 80 million population densities and has a long way ahead to achieve the preferable well-being (UNDP 2011).

Table 4.1: Iran's HDI Trends Based on Consistent Time Series Data

Year	Life expectancy at birth	Expected years of schooling	Mean years of schooling	GNI per capita (2011 PPP\$)	HDI value
1990	63.8	9.2	4.2	10,206	0.572
1995	68.3	11.1	5.3	11,044	0.634
2000	70.1	11.6	6.2	11,894	0.666
2005	71.9	11.4	7.0	14,584	0.692
2010	74.0	13.1	8.2	17,520	0.745

2011	74.4	13.6	8.3	17,952	0.755
2012	74.8	15.0	8.5	16,596	0.769
2013	75.1	14.9	8.6	16,063	0.770
2014	75.4	14.8	8.8	16,543	0.774
2015	75.6	14.8	8.8	16,395	0.774

Source: (UNDP 2016)

Looking at the HDI assessment of Iran, through the years 1990 to 2015 facilitates pursuing its progress path in each indicator. Table 4.1 reviews Iran's growth between years of 1990 to 2015 in three dimensions of health (life expectancy), education (expected years of schooling and mean years of schooling), economic resources (GNI per capita) and in general, the Human Development Index value. Through that Iran in past 25 years has improved the average life expectancy of every individual at birth by 11.8 years, expected years of education has developed by 5.6 years a long with 4 years extension in mean years of schooling and an increment in average gross national income per capita by almost 60.6 %.

The Figure 4.1 will better illuminate the separate role that each element plays in the HDI of Iran between years 1990 to 2015.

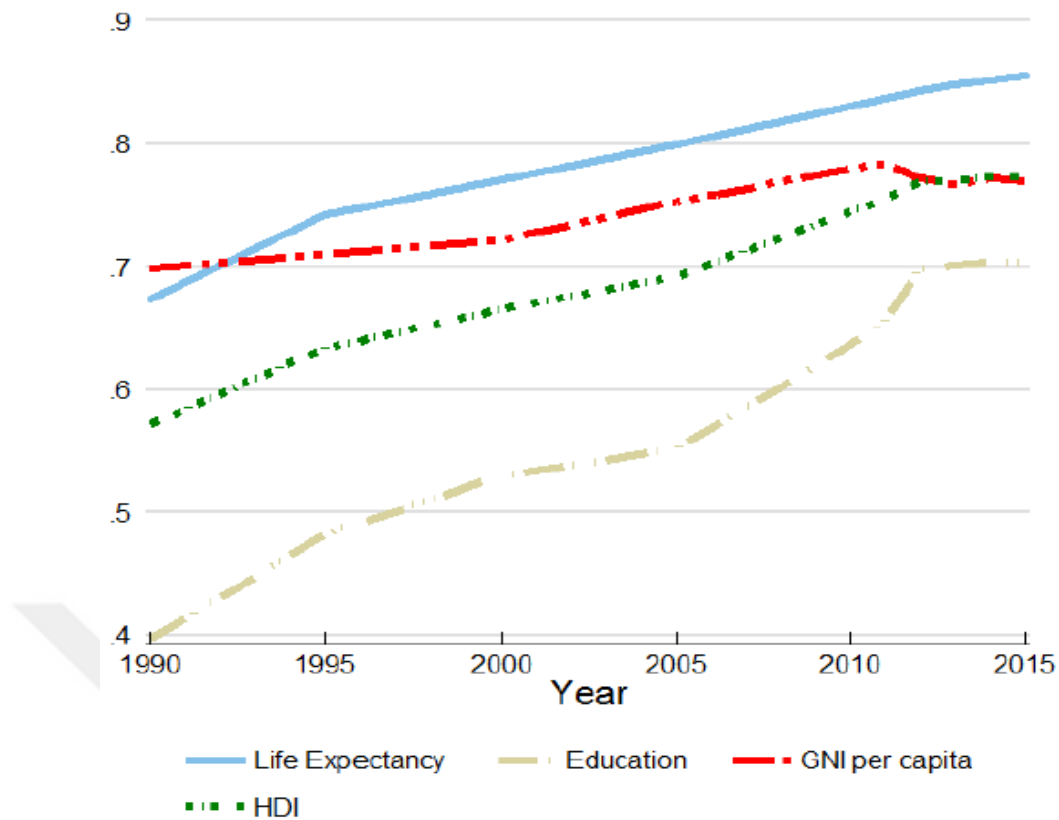


Figure 4.1: Human Development Indicator's Path in Iran between Years 1990-2015

Source: (UNDP 2016)

4.1 The Educational Indicators of Iran

According to the available data in World Bank and UNDP the expected years of schooling in Iran is higher than the real mean years of schooling. It is one of the prominent features of the human development indicators in most of the developing countries due to the prerequisite essence of the schooling for youth and children to achieve more education, employment chances and training. It can be observed clearly by comparing the expected years of schooling via the mean years of the school education of the youth at Figure 4.2.

There is an expectation to every Iranian pupil to spend 15 years of education. However, the average years of schooling fall into 9 years. The remarkable difference between adult's mean years of schooling and young children's expected length of schooling is a positive signal for future of Iran's human development particularly in education and employment. Thus, youth and children are hopefully looked for having

a much longer education duration than their fathers and mothers. There is no doubt that the obstacles such as poverty, cultural bans in some regions, health problems and several other issues may hinder the fulfillment of expected years of schooling for some poor children who are living in deprived and far-reaching areas. However, in general progressive approach of the both indicators described in Figure 4.2 illustrates the ascending human development process in Iran.

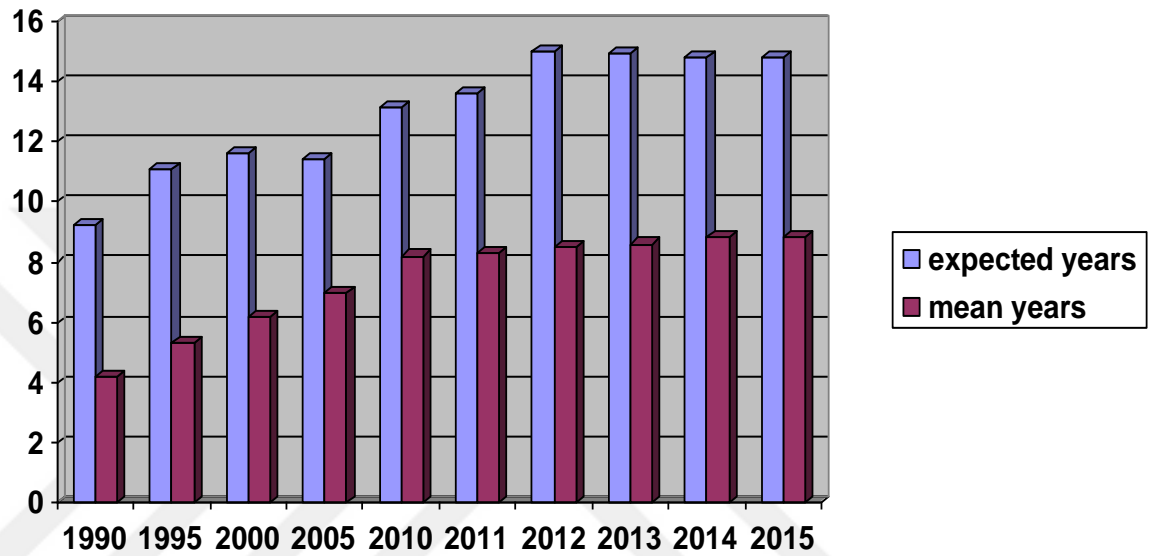


Figure 4.2: Expected Years of Schooling and Mean Years of Schooling in Iran between Years 1990-2015

Source: (UNDP 2016)

Despite Iran’s progressive attitude in educational growth, the literacy rate has been unequally distributed among different provinces of Iran. Based on the results of recent National Population and Housing Census in 2017 almost 88% of Iranian people are literate.

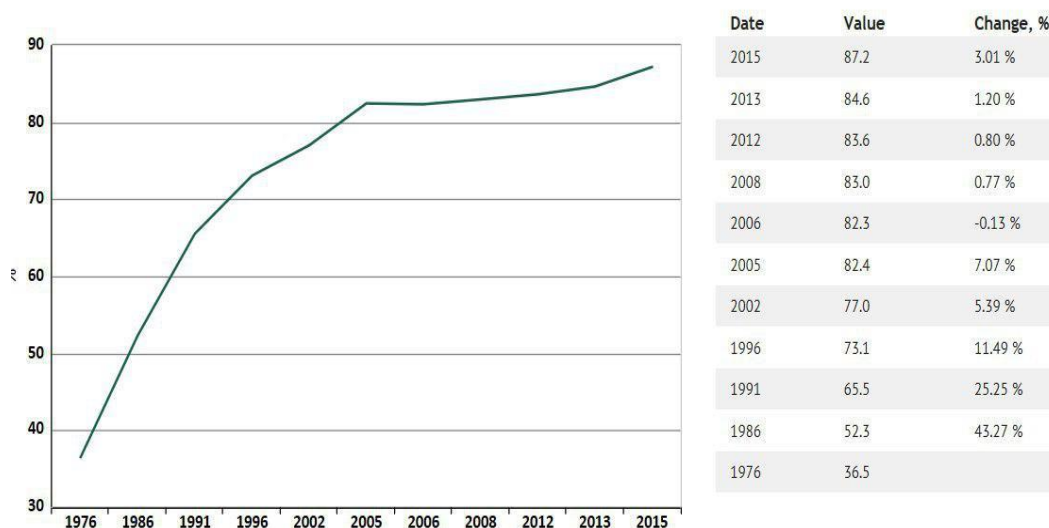


Figure 4.3: Total Adult (15+) Literacy Rate of Iran between Years 1976-2015

Source: (World Bank 2017a)

Table 4.2 represents that among Iran’s provinces Tehran with the rate of 92.9% in 2016 locates at the top of this list. Provinces of Alborz, Semnan and Yazd with respectively 92.2%, 91.5%, and 90.9% follow Tehran as the highest total literacy rates. However, Sistan-Baluchistan Province as one of the lesser-developed areas of Iran has the lowest literacy rate across the country with 76% in 2016 (Statistical Center of Iran 2016). In a total descriptive analysis of Iran’s adult literacy rate in the Figure 4.3, Iranian people’s literacy level has improved dramatically from 65% in 1991 to 87% in 2015. Regarding Table 4.2, the gap approximately 16.9% between Tehran and Sistan & Baluchestan provinces represents the high levels of inequality in Education.

Table 4.2: Literacy Rate of Population Aged 6 and Over by Province in the Years 2006, 2011 and 2016

Province	2006	2011	2016
Total country	84.6	84.8	87.6
East Azarbayejan	81.6	82.1	84.7
West Azarbayejan	77.8	78.8	82.0
Ardebil	80.0	80.8	83.1

Esfahan	87.5	87.8	89.9
Alborz		90.2	92.2
Ilam	81.9	82.3	84.9
Bushehr	86.4	83.6	89.2
Tehran	91.3	90.5	92.9
Chaharmahal& Bakhtiyari	82.5	82.5	84.7
South Khorasan	81.1	82.5	86.8
Khorasan-e-Razavi	86.2	86.3	89.1
North Khorasan	79.1	80.3	83.3
Khuzestan	83.6	83.5	86.3
Zanjan	81.7	82.4	84.8
Semnan	88.6	88.4	91.5
Sistan & Baluchestan	68.0	71.6	76.0
Fars	86.6	86.3	88.8
Qazvin	85.7	84.1	88.6
Qom	86.1	86.6	88.7
Kordestan	82.1	81.7	84.5
Kerman	77.5	78.0	81.5
Kermanshah	82.8	82.2	85.4
Kohgiluyeh& Boyerahmad	81.6	81.9	84.4
Golestan	82.1	83.0	86.1
Gilan	83.1	84.3	87.3

Lorestan	81.1	80.4	83.0
Mazandaran	85.0	85.7	88.7
Markazi	83.9	83.8	87.0
Hormozgan	82.4	83.7	87.8
hamedan	82.6	82.6	85.0
Yazd	88.1	87.8	90.9

Source: Statistical Center of Iran 2016

4.2 The Impacts of Educational Policies on Supporting and Facilitating Human Empowerment

The development plans of Iran since the first to the fifth Economic, Social and Cultural Development Plan (2011-2016) have a critical role in the progress of educational indicators and its quality (Management and Planning Organization of Iran 2010). In the light of each development plan, one of the leading results is that the Iranian government's major concern in educational arena has shifted from the primary and the secondary education to the tertiary and higher levels of education. Significant parts of the primary education policies conducted under the First Development Plan of Iran include the following aspects:

- Ensuring aggregated access to the primary education and elimination of the illiteracy globally.
- A cohesion between the adult literacy and children's primary education that will make the primary schooling more efficient; due to literate parents will act as a means to guarantee the universally primary education for children in proper age (UN 1999).
- Amending schools' evaluation methods and in particular teaching techniques, such as recognizing the causes of students' educational non-fulfillment, consulting and introducing proper solutions for failed students to decrease repetition and drop-out rate in primary schools.
- Using the probable instruments likewise publications and social media to encourage children who are out of school – exclusively rural and tribal youth

- to start primary education in cope with their regional and cultural differences (Management and Planning Organization of Iran 1993).
- Appointing the kindest teachers and in priority, women instructors with high spiritual and technical abilities to attract students in early levels and the primary education.
- Backup and reinforcement of involvement of the private section in primary education through enhancement of bank facilities.
- Necessitating the primary education for children between ages 6 till 10 years old.
- Usage of the primary schools only in one or two full shifts in one day (UN 1999).

In a higher level, First and Second Development Plans indicate significant policies to backup of public secondary education which are listed as follows:

- Providing a comfortable and reform-based environment in educational system of the country for students to cope their capabilities and interests with their study fields.
- Guaranteeing the highest level of the flexibility, human resources regarding to individual and by sex interests in teaching technics.
- Removing the limits of the access to education in both remote and poor regions.
- Diminishing the amount and content of the general subjects in curriculum of secondary education.
- Harmonizing between the curriculum and social, economic and cultural demands of Iranian society (UN 1999).

Some of the supportive policies to develop the rate of tertiary and higher education during the Development Plans are:

- Enhancing the capacity of the universities to admit more graduate and post-graduate students a long with adding more courses at the higher education level in deprived regions.
- Increasing the share of the private sector in tertiary education and centralizing of the public resources in promoting higher education at deprived areas.

- Matching the tertiary education quantitatively and qualitatively, with the available labor markets of Iran.
- Attracting competent faculty members from both inside of Iran and the abroad to develop the institutions and universities.
- Making the higher education institutions much more independent.
- Provoking the idea of reforms in managerial and organizational sectors.
- Creating a cooperative space at both local and international scales.
- Making the universities and institutions of the higher education much more research-based (Management and Planning Organization of Iran 2004).
- Equal expansion of the facilities to have access to higher education in different regions (UN 1999).
- Insurance of gender equality in education and labor market which is relative to the educational background, by public sector and government (Nussbaum 2000).

4.3 Development Goals of Women's Education

Ensuring a literate population plays a key role in increasing people's welfare as well as the social and economic status of the societies. There is no doubt that empowering women through education will influence different aspects of the society as health, life expectancy, politics, economy, labor markets and even scholars of a country; since they form almost a half of the society. Meanwhile, over the last decades the schooling trends of girls and women have been encouraged relatively in most of the developing countries particularly in the Middle East (Roudi-Fahimi & Moghadam 2003).

Steadily in Iran, the gap between men and women in educational indicators, particularly in secondary and higher education to some extent has wiped out, and women are much more eager to attend the universities than men. Achieving to this point in the developing countries has various alternative advantages in any scale such as economics, social and families (Roudi-Fahimi & Moghadam 2003). Through empowering women in a society, the level of productivity and quality of the next generation will be raised consequently. Besides, women's education rights has been declared in United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (2015) as a crucial

pillar to decline child and infant mortality rates, empowering women, reduction of different diseases and removal of the illiteracy.

Human development is always curious about comparing and contrasting men and women's separately in schooling trends and educational rates. The literacy rate indicates women and men's enrolment in different levels of education.

4.3.1 Women and men's attainment in the universities in Iran

In Iran primary school as the first and compulsory educational level lasts 6 years and is followed by middle school and high school that each of them have 3 years duration. After receiving the high school diploma, there is a comprehensive entrance examination to universities both private and public, which names Konkur in Iran. Regarding to ascending number of universities in Iran the chance of people to be accepted from tertiary education is to some extent high. However, the real challenge is to get accepted by a public university due to the expansive tuition fees of private universities (WES 2001).

Iranian women after the Islamic Revolution have an increasing participation in tertiary education, since 1990 (Zahedifar 2012). Regarding Figure 4.4, at the level of Tertiary degree attainment, Iran experiences often equal male and female students between years 2002 till 2012. However the gender gap in the linear scatter plot has been closed obviously by time passing in 2015. Despite the Figure 4.4 that illustrates the slight higher chance of the men to be literate than the women in years of 2014 and 2015, women's growing interest to be literate has nearly closed the gender gap in Iran. Therefore, this can be understood that in higher educational levels, women's educational attainment become highlighted and no one can deny that currently Iran has achieved 65% women's attainment in the universities which means more literate and skillful women and girls, mothers and generation ready to transforming their capabilities in terms of a compatible paid employment and achieve their desired well-being.

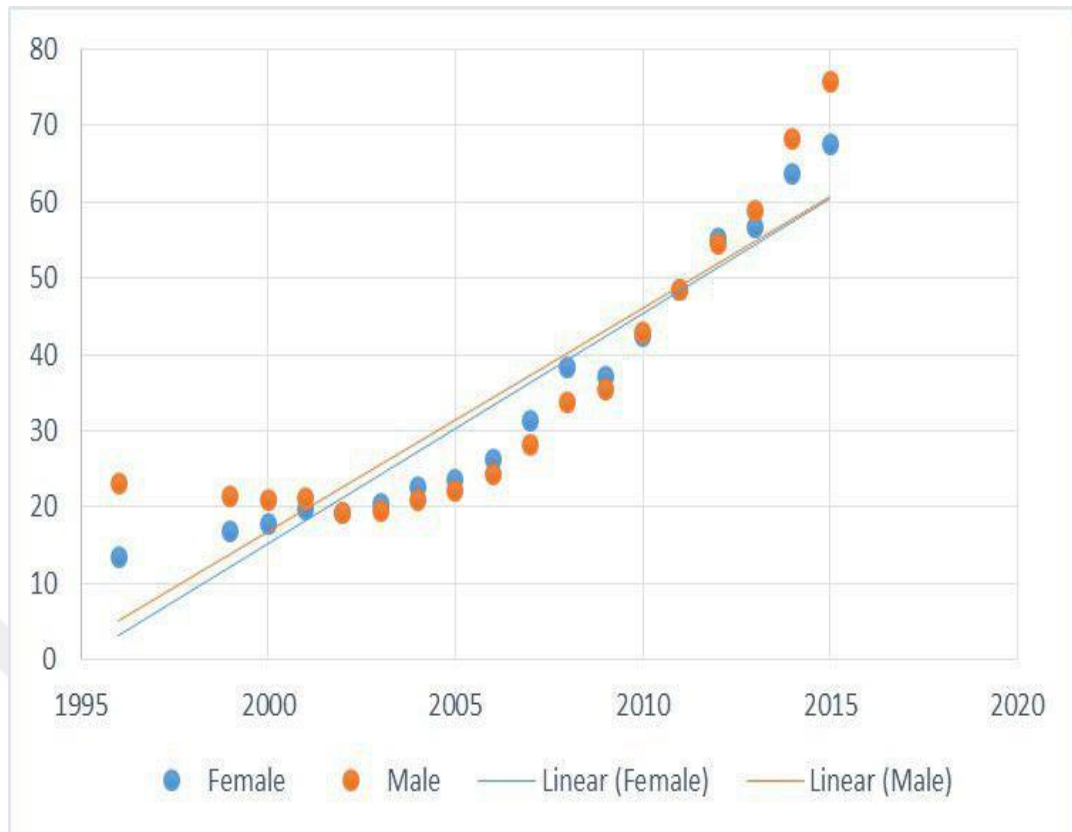


Figure 4.4: Women and Men Educational Attainment at Tertiary Level in Iran

Source: (World Bank 2017d)

Although the literacy level of the women has increased dramatically through the statistics, it never refers to their equal benefits and results of being a literate individual. This claim reflects more tangibly in women’s unequal wages in comparison with men’s salary and exclusion from practical vocations and professional jobs as the qualified and skilled individuals by the labor markets. Thus, in order to foster a society’s culture based on equal values for women and men, in one hand, and remove the gender inequality from functionings and capabilities, on the other hand, there is a need to fulfill it through certain policies. These policies can consist of an increment in women’s proportion at the parliament and the decision making institutions including both public and private sectors (UNMDG 2015).

In fact, as we can see in Figure 4.4, after closing the gender gap between women and men’s attainment in the universities in 2010, the gap started to enlarge again in 2013 till 2015 through dropping women’s attainment in tertiary education. This can be interpreted as a signal of women’s less motivation to continue their education in

higher levels and even their disappointment due to the lack of preferable vocational opportunities for women in Iran.

According to a Research conducted by Zahedifar in 2012 over the obtained data of Tabriz University's female students in Medical Science, they mostly have come from the families with well-educated parents and their main reason to attend specific field of study in both genders was their personal interests. Underestimating the role of educated families' inspiration in directing students' interest in higher and advanced education is not logical. As I will explain in next Chapter, students' consciousness about the situation of labor market, in general and overcoming gender inequality in it is another important reason behind the outstanding attendance of youth and particularly girls in tertiary education.

4.4.2 Cultural elements to close the gender gap

In most of the countries in the Middle East region, due to their traditions or other factors, men are supposed to be the leader of the family. In that case, they are called as the responsible person to access the significant vocation and wage to control over the family's resources. Hence, women are almost dependent upon the family's male members in terms of the right to education, economic situation, vocation, traveling overseas and so on (Moghadam 1998, 2004). Thus, the subordinate position of women in third world countries initiates directly from their people's beliefs and culture.

In Iran men get their right to exclusively control over the family directly from the civil law through article 1105_ in relations between husband and wife; the position of the head of the family is the exclusive right of the husband (Civil Law 1991). Undoubtedly, family as the smallest account of each society has the major influence on other sections of it. Nonetheless, the conjunction between economic arrangement and the conservative culture of Middle Eastern countries in a context of binding gender perspectives play the main role in the formation of their rule of law and culture.

On the other hand, most of the countries in the Middle East such as Iran have oil-based economic resources that cause to flood a large amount of the wealth toward them. In most of the cases, that situation exacerbates the gender inequalities (Roudi-

Fahimi & Moghadam 2003, Moghadam 2004). That is the why women in these regions cannot easily earn the self- subordination that they need. In these countries most of the high wage-jobs are precluded women's involvement. Therefore, Women's employment choices are narrowed to small amount of the socially and traditionally acceptable careers likewise medicine and teaching.

4.4 The Influence of Women's Educational Achievements on Improvement of Health and Poverty Removal

By considering the significant developments in women's capabilities, increasing the women's literacy rate after Islamic revolution is one of the key achievements of Islamic Iran. Increasing the literacy rate and educational attainment of women particularly in rural areas, directly contributes to the health improvements as well.

As Nussbaum & Glover (1995) declare, one of the important causes of why development plans almost fail in the developing and less-developed countries relies on the lack or neglect of the empowerment plans for women. Enhancing the women's agency in a society struggling with the poverty will be beneficial for both women and society. The gradual elimination of the cultural and economic poverty is achievable under changing women's dependent role to the independent individuals which are coping with their intrinsic values and human rights (Nussbaum & Glover 1995).

4.5 Education as A Human and Social Right

The significance of education has been highlighted several times in many international conventions. Women as one of the marginalized portion in developing societies, refugees and the children who have not acceptable identity documents, in most of the times are deprived from the primary education. The same situation has been existed in Iran for several years ago. Indeed, more than hundreds Afghan refugees' children were out of schools in Iran. Accordingly, in recent days, primary education's assistant of Ministry of Education in Iran declared that every children and youth without identity documents, can register to the schools with receiving an education supportive kart from the closest gubernatorial in their living region. In addition, the children who are born from the marriage of Afghanistanian man and Iranian woman are not recognized legitimate to have an identity, health insurance,

employment and right to education. Therefore, free education includes every individual between ages 6 to 18. Through this policy the twelfth administration of Iran under presidential of Hassan Rouhani has provide the equal opportunity to all children and this is a crucial step to create further equal opportunities for enhancing youth and children's access to education and other capabilities. Such an optimistic activity of state reinforcements the talents, hope and capabilities of society to achieve the functionings. It particularly is much more observable among youth people who seek for the equal chances to flourish and develop their potential gifts (Deputy Education Minister Education and Training 2017)

Iran by taking attention to this challenge and providing equal access to education for students by unrecognized identities and migrants in early years, goes through the obstacles in front of social and economic development of society. On the other hand, no one can neglect the negative impacts that unfair educational policies and activities have on individuals' capabilities and motivation (OECD 2012).

4.6 Improving Education System of Iran through Human Development

The main operation of the human development in educational systems is to re-interpret the view of the university and educational institutions, beyond the traditional objective to equip people as a portion of manpower. In spite the fact that education can amplify human capital, education should lead to functional profits for people in various ways which overstep its productivity role in human capital (Boni & Walker 2013).

In Iran, as Boni & Walker argue (2013: 24), the first step to make human development more flourishing and functioning is to apply human capability approach in education. There are lots of different unsolved challenges ahead of Iranian youth at school ages that causes to waste their abilities, talents and motivation. As Iran's president Dr. Hassan Rouhani, on 23 September 2017 declared, the Ministry of Education is responsible to provide the opportunity to every youth in school ages to earn at least one vocational skill along with basic education. He poses the curriculum and teaching methods in educational institutions must be adequate for students in 21st century to become applicable with today's knowledge and life. Therefore, as many scholars mention (Sen 1999, Boni & Walker 2013) Dr. Rouhani argues that the

society needs a transformation in educational system, teaching methods and curriculums to deliver creative, professional, responsible youth and students who are interested in hard working.

Although, all of the kinds of freedoms and capabilities in the human development framework are extremely abstract and general, each nation will do it somewhat differently to keep their own preceding customs and cultures. Thus, they will take it as qualified education system and then try to adopt it to the applicable version of what they want to endorse. This is why different nations around the world have very different doctrine in various concepts which is based on their different histories and traditions. For example, the supreme leader of Iran recently condemned the UNESCO's action plan regarding the educational transformation through 2030 agenda in 2016 that provokes a life-long, qualified and equal education opportunity to every individual of all countries. His extreme impediment has initiated from the immense generality of this agenda which may make it incompatible with customs, background and cultures of other nation states (Ghadimi 2017). Human development with a wide range of manifestation attempts to display all dimensions and concerns of human life that people are involved through various cultural, economic, social and political circumstances worldwide and has much flexibility to be fixed on them.

4.7 Conclusion

The increase in HDI value of Iran from 1990 to 2015 implies the improvement of Iran in three main dimensions as health, education and economic resources. In case of education, the high level of expected years of schooling along with the enhanced mean years of schooling and gender equality in education are the positive notions of Iran's educational development. However, unequal distribution of educational facilities among different regions of Iran, has created a broad gap among provinces such as Tehran and Sistan & Baluchestan. Nonetheless, development plans of Iran have had a crucial role in putting an end to illiteracy among women and particularly in underdeveloped areas in both primary and secondary education. Empowering women as a half of the country's population has this potential to evolve the HDI value, labor markets, health and the other components of Iran in a large scale. In fact, gender inequality is not a rare phenomenon in our world. By looking at the Middle

Eastern countries the subordinated role of women is a common issue among them and Iran is not an exception. Analyzing Iran's female-to-male educational trends after Islamic Revolution illustrates that Iran has almost achieved gender parity in education which is more obvious at the tertiary education. Spontaneously, increasing educated women in higher education, should lead to more advantageous women in terms of well-being and economic independence. However, the formal equality in educational attainment of women doesn't refer to equal opportunities, advantages and wages for women as men. As UNMDG's declaration, enhancing women's number in educational institutions and labor force, consequently can omit gender inequality in achievements. Indeed, new policies and efforts of Iranian Reformists seems to develop the capabilities, empowerment and equality in functionings.



5. GENDER INEQUALITY IN HDI AMONG AZERBAIJAN, IRAN & TURKEY

States' progress or failure in their development plans is revealed through comparing their indicators in different aspects by other countries who are in a similar status internationally. Gender inequality and women's empowerment measurement is one of the fundamental actions to figure out the gender gaps, assess the policies, and determine countries' prosperity. Although the released data from World Bank and UNDP shows that the phenomenon of gender disparity exists relatively all around the world, rankings of the countries and their differences from each other in IHDI is remarkably high and analyzable (Afshari & Kakavand 2016). For instance, in 2015, the least gender inequality level belongs to Switzerland (0.040) and the greatest gender gap is Yemen's (0.767). Iran with 0.509 rate locates in 145th ranking of GII among 188 countries. In comparison with Turkey (0.328) and Azerbaijan (0.326) with rankings 110 and 109 respectively, Iran has a long way ahead to develop in case of the gender gap. However, its rate is a little bit better than some other countries in the region such as Afghanistan (0.667) and Arab countries (0.537) (UNDP 2016). Despite, nowadays national governments and international organizations pay an expanded attention on gender policies to adopt it in a more equal way (Payne 2012). Selection of these three countries as Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey to compare in the case of inequality rate has some critical points to consider. First of all, they belong to the high human development ranking which makes the research about them more disaggregated than diverse countries. Besides, nevertheless their harmony in their close HDI ranks, they have critical differences which reflects dramatically significance of the gender equality concept. With regard to Gender Development Index, Azerbaijan by the value of 0.940 and Turkey with 0.908 have a more GDI score than Iran which has a value equal to 0.862. Furthermore, in Gender Inequality Index these three countries have the same situation in conjunction with each other. Azerbaijan with the lowest GII value (0.326) followed by Turkey with 0.328 value

are one step ahead of Iran (0.496). Iran's larger value of GII represents its more potential to gender discrimination.

Generally, as we discussed in Chapter One, development and gender disparity have a reverse impact on each other (Jayachandran 2015). The theoretical aspects of gender studies are considering the development and gender discrimination interrelation from two perspectives. On one hand, development influence the gender inequality. On the other hand, the gender gap affects development negatively.

5.1 Inequality-adjusted HDI

Inequality-adjusted HDI is a list that interprets country ranks in human development in terms of accounting for the inequality rate in them. If the difference between IHDI and HDI value of a country is great, the inequality in that society is going to be huge. For example, Iran's rank in IHDI is 88, while its rank in HDI is 68 in 2016.

The concept of inequality leads the minds to challenge and compare different countries' inequality losses with each other in an international scale. Comparing Iran with two neighbor countries Azerbaijan and Turkey, with similar cultures and human development rankings, demonstrates their high differences in distribution of various functionings and capabilities. The inequality rates of every HDI variable have a different path in each country. The inequality in health indicator refers to the discriminations in distribution of expected life longevity which is available on estimated Atkinson inequality index (Alkire & Foster 2010, UNDP 2017). With regard to Table 5.1, in health indicator Azerbaijan has the highest inequality rate (21.7%) and is followed by Turkey (11.5%) which has a trivial difference with Iran (10.6%). On the contrary, in the case of educational disparity, Iran with 37.3% has more educational inequality than Turkey (14.3%) and Azerbaijan (8.3%). In the other indicator inequality in income, Iran's higher discrimination rate (46.6%) than Turkey (21.8%) and Azerbaijan (8.9%) has evidenced in Table 5.1 as well. As I will discuss in the following, Iran's highest IHDI value which is in distribution of income and resources is originated from gender discrimination in women's active political participation and labor market.

Indeed, Iran's overall loss rate in inequality-adjusted HDI (33.1%) is twice as much as Turkey's entire loss (15.9%). This relationship even applies identically in the case

of the inequality-adjusted loss of Azerbaijan. This rate refers to the percentage differences between HDI value and IHDI value. Through a glance at Table 5.1, we can realize that Azerbaijan from 0.759, Iran from 0.774 and Turkey from 0.767 has fallen respectively, in 0.659, 0.518 and 0.645 HDI values. However, in case of the Turkey and Azerbaijan, IHDI leads to surpass their ranks to 55 and 53 respectively; because, most of the countries' ranks because of their high levels of inequality have retreated in the Inequality-adjusted HDI.

Table 5.1: IHDI of Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey in 2015

	IHDI value	Overall loss (%)	Inequality in life expectancy at birth (%)	Inequality in education (%)	Inequality in income (%)
Azerbaijan	0.659	13.2	21.7	8.3	8.9
Iran	0.518	33.1	10.6	37.3	46.6
Turkey	0.645	15.9	11.5	14.2	21.8

Source: (UNDP 2016)

The estimated inequality rates in IHDI includes a combination of Gender, provincial, class, religion and other individual discriminations which is very broad; thus in the rest of this chapter, I will concentrate on gender-based inequality in human development indicators through Iran and comparing to Azerbaijan and Turkey (UNDP 2017).

5.2 Impacts of the Gender Inequality in HDI

Gender inequality is one of the common features in the developing countries and has extremely negative impacts on women's potential capabilities in the society and labor markets. On the other hand, gender disparity in education leads to decrease the rate of creativity, employment and even, diminishes the quality of child care in the country level, thus, has disadvantages to the health indicate as well as economics. On the other hand, the costs of gender discrimination is really high; because, not only, it reduces women's welfare, but also, as a result, it affects men and children's welfare. Hence, gender inequality decreases totally the wellbeing of the family. Therefore,

from a general perspective, gender marginalization in labor markets and access to the resources leads to inefficient allocation of resources and wellbeing losses in the society and finally, it narrows down economic growth and human development of the country (Afshari & Kakavand 2016).

According to the Table 5.2, HDI value for women's HDI in Iran equals to 0.700 which in comparison with the men's HDI value as 0.812 is lesser developed. The gap between HDI values of man and woman in Azerbaijan and Turkey are closer to each other and more improved than Iran. One of the interesting facts that Table 5.2 reveals is that however, Iran's values in life expectancy at birth, expected and mean years of schooling –health and education- in both men and women are almost equally distributed and well-developed compared to Azerbaijan and Turkey, its GNI per capita value or distribution of economic resources between men and women seems strikingly unequal. Gross National Income refers to any type of income _foreign or domestic_ that is earned by local people of the country.

What makes most researches concerned about gender inequality in Iran, lays in the fact that Iranian male's portion in GNI per capita is even larger than Turkish and Azerbaijani men's share and that shows the magnitude of gender gap in income indicator in Iran. The ratio of Iranian men's GNI per capita value to Iranian women is 5.356 per capita. This ratio in the case of Turkey decreases to 2.53 and in Azerbaijan declines to 1.97. Hence, in Iran women deprived from economic resources two times more than Turkey and Azerbaijan. In order to have a more transparent perspective to infer, analyzing the indicators of Table 5.2 in a time-series tables and figures is essential.

Table 5.2: GDI of Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey in 2015 (Female/Male)

	Life Expectancy at Birth		Expected Years of Schooling		Mean Years of Schooling		GNI per Capita		HDI Values	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Azerbaijan	74.2	67.4	11.3	10.3	4.9	12.0	11,033	21,841	0.732	0.779
Iran	76.7	74.5	14.6	15.0	8.5	9.1	5,132	27,499	0.700	0.812
Turkey	78.7	65.4	7.4	8.8	7.0	8.8	10,649	27,034	0.724	0.797

Source: (UNDP 2016)

5.2.1 Gender Inequality and Health

As I discussed in the First Chapter about the components of human development, if the population society live healthy and for a long age, that society will have a privilege to be achieve high human development. Table 5.3 and Figure 5.1 analyze the average of expected life ages at birth in a time-series from 1990 to 2015 for men and women separately in Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey. Through these data, we can understand that the development process of the mentioned countries has a sustainable growth in increasing the life expectancy of both genders during past 25 years. Accordingly, among women the average life expectancy has been improved in Iran from 66.3 years old in 1990 to 76.7 years in 2015. That growth for women in Azerbaijan and Turkey consists of an increase from age 69.1 and 68 years old respectively in 1990 to 74.1 and 78.7 years old in 2015.

Table 5.3: Life Expectancy at Birth (Years), Female and Male (Health Indicator)

Years	Azerbaijan		Iran		Turkey	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1990	69.1	60.6	66.3	61.6	68.0	60.7
1995	68.0	60.5	68.7	67.9	71.0	63.2
2000	69.9	63.8	71.1	69.2	73.8	66.4
2005	71.8	66.2	73.5	70.4	76.0	69.1
2010	73.6	67.4	75.5	72.5	77.6	70.8
2011	73.7	67.5	75.8	73.1	77.8	71.1
2012	73.8	67.6	76.1	73.6	78.0	71.4
2013	73.9	67.6	76.3	74.0	78.3	71.7
2014	74.0	67.7	76.5	74.3	78.5	72.0
2015	74.1	67.8	76.7	74.5	78.7	72.3

Source: UNDP 2015a

This is virtually the same pattern in every country that men have a poorer longevity than women. It can be rooted in both biology and gender or health policies and

systems of a country (Payne 2012). In average, men in 2015 live 12 years more than 1990 in Iran and Turkey. The health indicator, despite the other components of HDI in Azerbaijan, has a slow motion and men have an average of 6 years less life expectancy than women in 2015.

In fact, Turkish women have the best life expectancy compared to both men and women in Iran and Azerbaijan. However men in Turkey on average have 6.5 years less life expectancy than women. Iranian women have two years less and Iranian men more life expectancy compared to Turkish women and men, respectively. Azerbaijan has the lowest life expectancy at birth for both men and women compared to Turkey and Iran. It may be possible to suggest that the lower ranking of Azerbaijan compared to Iran and Turkey in terms of life expectancy at birth is due to its weaker healthcare system, unlike its educational system and the availability of economic resources.

The other fact that can be understood from Figure 5.1 is that although development in the health sphere during the years 1990 until 2015 is positive. This is a general perspective on gender-based health indicators and no one can claim reliably that for instance, in Iran, there is no gender inequality in health. To reach an accurate vision on every context, there is a need to disaggregate the data. Indeed, reducing the health indicator to mere life expectancy, seems not to be so reliable.

Nonetheless, based on the findings of some researchers (Backhans, Lundberg & Ma^onsdotter 2007), progressive outcomes in health and life expectancy of men and women have a weak correlation with gender equality.

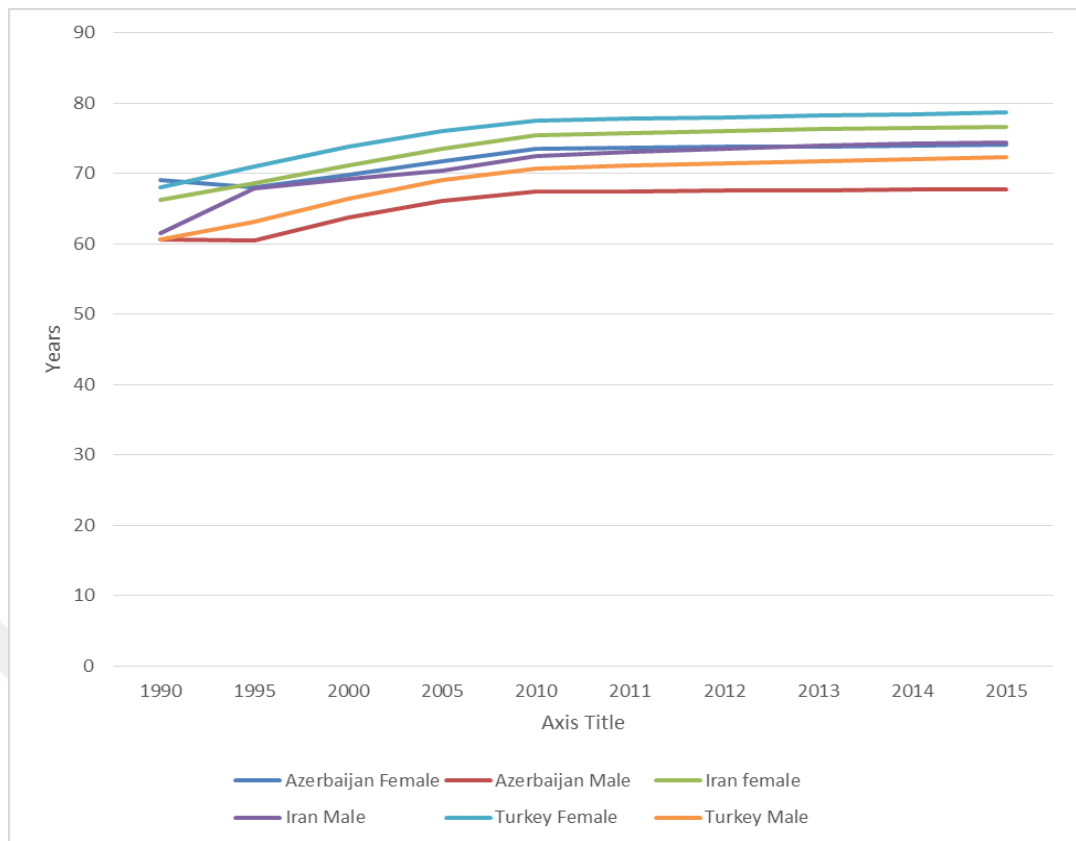


Figure 5.1: Life Expectancy at Birth (Years), Female and Male (Health Indicator)

Source: UNDP 2015a

There are different disaggregated studies in health component of the human development such as infant mortality, maternal rate, fertility rate and suicide mortality (Kiadaliri et al. 2014). One of the good examples to imply the above-mentioned claim is Ferretti and Mariani’s recent research about “gender inequality in obesity and human development” (2017). This research demonstrates that exogenous shifts such as biometric factors and men and women’s body volumes negatively reflect the ratio of human development index, women’s empowerment and gender inequality rates in the country scale. By considering to these kinds of surveys, relying on only life expectancy as the ultimate proxy for health indicator and gender equality is not enough and underestimating the other indicators which are extremely effective on gender discrimination rates in health is not logical.

5.2.1 Gender inequality, education and employment

Education and employment beyond home are two major areas which have a high tendency towards emerging gender disparity within the modern societies. Traditionally, Middle Eastern countries especially Iran, Turkey and Azerbaijan had a disadvantageous situation in women's education and employment. Whereas, before the 1990s almost universally women were under-represented in many aspects of the active life instead of household, motherhood and wifehood tasks. Hence, Iran or any other country are not exceptions to the global trend of gender discrimination. In previous decades, Islamic countries were considered amongst the world regions that have the lowest women's literacy rate, the minimum participation in school for girls and the least number of women involved in paid employment.

However, in recent decades the gap between men and women's education index in some of Islamic countries as Iran, Turkey and Azerbaijan approximately has closed. (Iravani 2010).

Turkey as a developing country, is spending lots of effort to improve its HDI ranking. These efforts establish the appropriate ground for comparing Turkey with high rank European countries such as Norway which has the highest HDI rank worldwide. In fact, most of the responsibility in eliminating gender disparity is on the shoulders of government that in recent years, Justice and Development Party (AKP) has done a large scale of activities in this regard. For instance, Turkey in 2014, have expand a devoted resources to education which was around 2 per cent more than the allocated budget to education in year of 2000. Nevertheless, Turkey has diminished the gender discrimination in higher education considerably in recent years and this is a great achievement (Findik 2016).

One of the major criticism for Turkey's educational system points out that the expenditure on tertiary education has unequally devoted more than resources invested in primary education (CAN 2015). With regard to EFA (2010) (Education for All) report, in 2007 Turkey has experienced deprivation of above 360,000 girls aged 4 -14, from enrollment in primary schools. Even in 21st century, attainment the school and education for girls is a problematic issue in some deprived provinces in Turkey (Güçlü, Gumus & Gumus 2010).

However, by mutual efforts of UNICEF campaigns and Ministry of National Education in Turkey, since 2003 in the regions with highest level of gender inequality in education, they achieve an efficient improvement in wiping out the gender discrimination. Hence, during four years of campaign's activity, 350,000 children have attained to the school and primary education (UNESCO 2015, World Bank 2017b).

Back to Iran, there are different factors that make the comparison of these countries a bit more arduous. For instance, Iran has not such a persuasive encouragement to achieve the highest HDI values in short-term. Azerbaijan and Turkey, due to reaching the essential criteria to EU's membership and other international organizations, have always attempt to cooperate with international organizations and that is one of the reasons behind their more development. Such an international coordination contributes to use other countries' experiences and development keys.

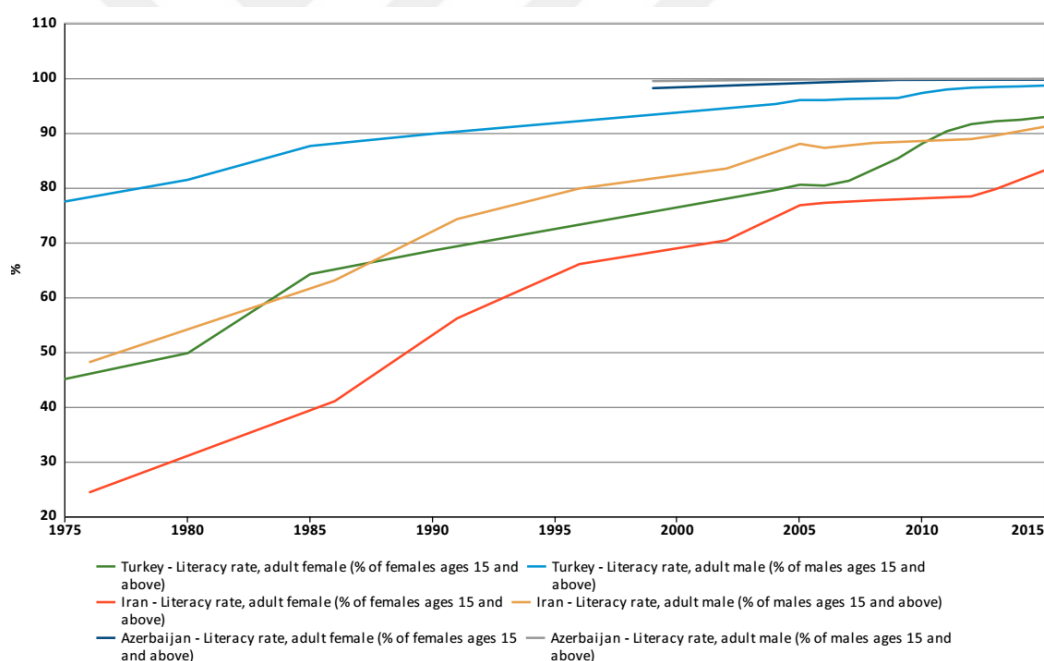


Figure 5.2: Literacy Rate of Adult Female and Male (% of Ages 15 and above)

Source: (World Bank 2017b)

According to Figure 5.2, Azerbaijan has the highest adult literacy rate among both women and men and has the most gender equality in education. Both Iran and Turkey have made great progress in the past three decades in achieving high rates of

literacy for both men and women. Although Iran is still lagging behind the other two countries, in fact, it has made the fastest progress. On the other hand, the gap between adult literacy rate of Iranian men and women is larger than other two countries. However, due to the small gender gap in Iran's mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling in Figure 5.3, there is this hope to improve equally men and women's adult literacy rates in future years.

Table 5.4: Mean Years of Schooling, Female and Male in Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey (Years)

Years	Azerbaijan		Iran		Turkey	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1990	–	–	3.1	5.4	3.3	5.8
1995	9.7	10.8	4.1	6.4	3.9	6.3
2000	10.0	11.2	5.3	7.1	4.6	6.5
2005	10.1	11.3	6.2	7.9	4.9	7.1
2010	10.5	11.2	7.7	8.6	6.2	8.1
2011	10.4	11,1	7.9	8.7	6.5	8.4
2012	10.4	11.0	8.1	8.8	6.7	8.5
2013	10.3	10.9	8.3	8.9	6.8	8.6
2014	10.3	10.9	8.5	9.0	7.0	8.8
2015	10.3	11.0	8.5	9.1	7.0	8.8

Source: UNDP 2015b

When Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3 are analyzed, mean years of schooling in each of country has an ascending growth path during the past 25 years. Azerbaijan has the highest years of schooling for both men and women. Azerbaijan, by getting rid of gender inequality in all indicators, has had a dramatic progress in HDI. Figure 5.2 demonstrates the same result about the adult literacy rate as well. In addition, the gender gap is closed partially in Azerbaijan, so that women in average spend only 0.7 years less than men in educational institutions.

In Iran that gap decreases to 6 months and this is very great achievement to close the gender gap from 2 years and 2 months in average less school attainment for women in 1990 to only 6 months in 2015.

Turkey's gender parity in mean years of schooling has the largest gap among the mentioned countries. Hence, women in Turkey on average, have experienced 1 year and 8 months less education than men in schools. Although women in Turkey have entitlement to have equal education rights as men by the "Law of Unification of Education" passed in 1924, practically, women's deprivation of education is still negotiable. Correlated to the previous subject, the positive and long-term correlation between education and health in Turkey has been proved through a case study in 2006, on Turkey. Indeed, gender discrimination in education reflects strongly the HDI's health rates particularly, in child mortality rates have declined (Erdoğan, Yildirim & Tosuner 2012).

To figure out the interdependence between women's education and development of health indicator, particularly child and infant mortality, I would like to refer to the results of a research on Malawi's Demographic and Health Surveys conducted on 2010. According to the achieved results, there is a positive correlation between mother's education and child and infant mortality rate. Therefore, one year increase in mean years of schooling leads directly, diminishes infant and child mortality 3.22 per cent. Furthermore, by spending one more year at school, in case of the young mothers under the 19 years old, the infant and child –under age 5 years old- mortality will decrease 5.95% which demonstrates the how women's education can play a vital role in family's health and survival (Makate & Makate 2016).

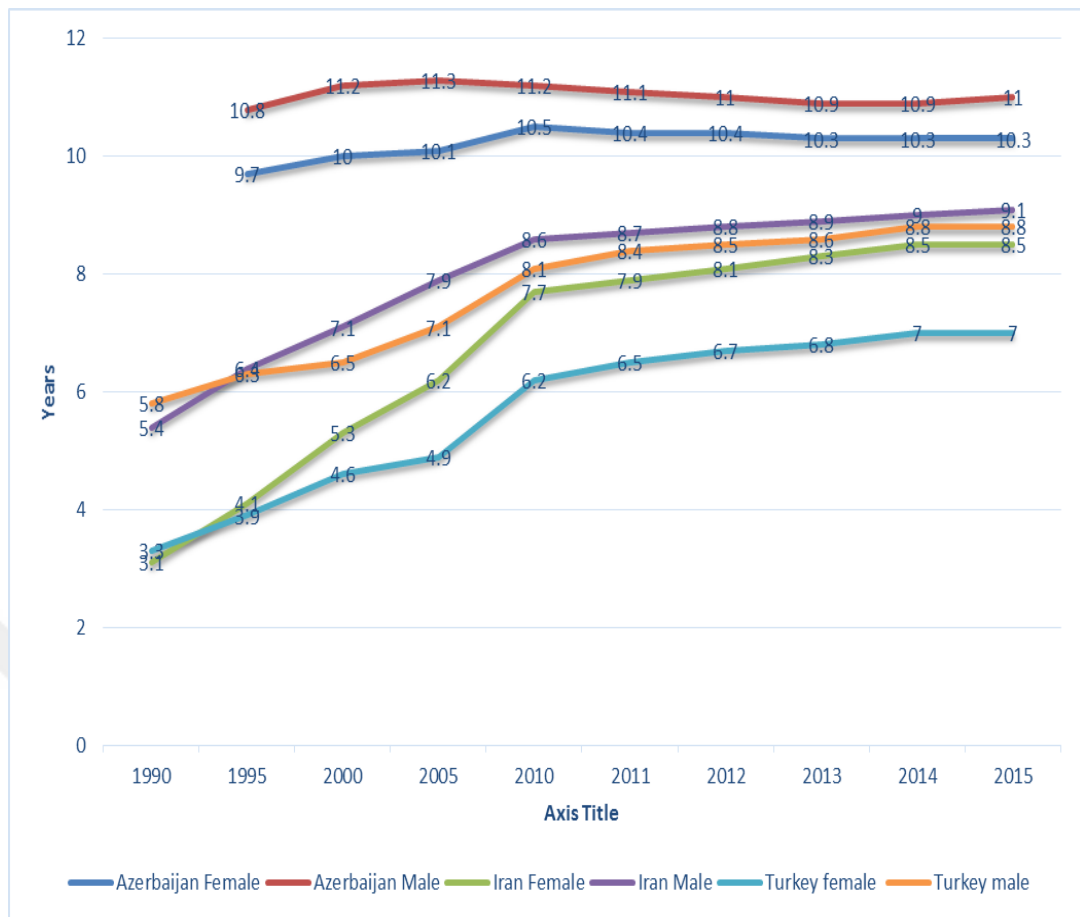


Figure 5.3: Mean Years of Schooling, Female and Male in Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey

Source: UNDP 2015b

Through comparing the men and women’s employment rates we can achieve a more clear perspective to the gender inequality in three developing countries. Azerbaijan again, with more gender equal and high mean years of schooling has a leading status in Figure 5.3. Iran in terms of men and women’s mean years of schooling has the same gender gap with Azerbaijan, however its mean years of schooling is 3 years less than Azerbaijan. Turkey by having less years of schooling in average for both men and women in addition to more gender gap (1.8 year) has less progress in this indicator of education.

Unemployment rate defined by International Labor Organization releases the percentage of labor force to represent unemployed people through countries. Accordingly, unemployed proportions are those who, unlike their capabilities and

willing to work for payment, they do not have a job yet and are trying to find available working positions (Teorell et al. 2017).

Table 5.5: Labor Force Participation Rate (%), Female and Male Aged 15 and above, in Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey (Modeled ILO Estimate)

Year	Azerbaijan		Iran		Turkey	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1990	52.934	69.552	9.658	80.56	34.077	80.779
1991	53.172	69.82	9.845	80.347	33.98	80.131
1992	54.26	71.102	9.968	79.395	32.561	79.573
1993	55.338	71.973	10.107	78.373	26.656	77.858
1994	56.246	72.326	10.264	77.257	31.118	78.259
1995	56.827	72.354	10.436	76.036	30.804	77.434
1996	56.896	72.338	10.629	74.683	30.431	76.879
1997	56.829	72.257	11.365	74.295	28.649	76.107
1998	56.656	72.086	12.147	73.962	29.082	75.96
1999	56.578	71.867	12.984	73.73	29.82	74.964
2000	57.455	70.916	13.883	73.617	26.33	72.659
2001	58.159	69.937	14.829	73.607	26.882	71.705
2002	58.795	68.976	15.846	73.657	27.606	70.287
2003	59.379	68.045	16.942	73.771	26.264	68.999
2004	59.942	67.162	18.127	73.962	23.441	70.015
2005	60.528	66.337	19.407	74.239	23.371	70.271
2006	60.098	65.491	18.49	73.212	23.639	69.569

2007	61.724	64.7	17.669	72.273	23.64	69.514
2008	60.869	67.616	15.487	70.321	24.519	69.99
2009	61.505	68.153	16.253	70.594	26.068	70.467
2010	61.789	67.388	15.95	69.947	27.617	70.72
2011	61.183	67.251	16.028	70.449	28.805	71.474
2012	61.201	67.562	16.067	70.913	29.428	70.765
2013	61.424	67.892	16.084	71.953	30.201	70.624
2014	61.615	67.971	16.043	72.366	30.348	71.477
2015	61.857	68.321	16.173	72.733	30.353	71.441
2016	61.981	68.592	16.243	72.995	30.364	71.398

Source: World Bank 2016

Regarding the 1990's gender data of Iran, women have had a very trivial portion in country's labor market (Moghadam 1991). Nonetheless, today's after 26 years women still are accounted as minorities in most of the managerial, administrative and paid vocations. While, according to the ascending liner regression of women's enrollment in tertiary education in above-mentioned Figure 5.3, Table 5.4 as well as Figure 4.4 in Chapter 3, the number of educated women entered to universities have increased dramatically and they are almost parity to men's number (Rahbari 2016). The critical situation of women's employment in Iran would be much clear-cut with looking at Figure 5.4 that demonstrates only 16.24 per cent of women in Iran are involved as labor force, whereas the labor rate of men in Iran is 72.99%. Despite the fact Figure 5.4 illustrates more than 65% of women in Iran have attained tertiary education, their low participation rate in the labor force and low employment rate might be interpreted in terms of a disappointment to continue education in universities. Thus, there is need for some transformations in social and educational

aspects of society to wipe out the gender discrimination in women's functionings in employment sphere (Sen 2003).

Azerbaijan again has the better situation in employment rate of men and women and with 61.98% women's participation in labor force and 68.59% male labor rate has succeeded to close the gender gap considerably. Such a gender disparity in bit smaller scale exists in Turkey. The women's participation to employment is 30.36% versus male's share of labor force is 71.39%.

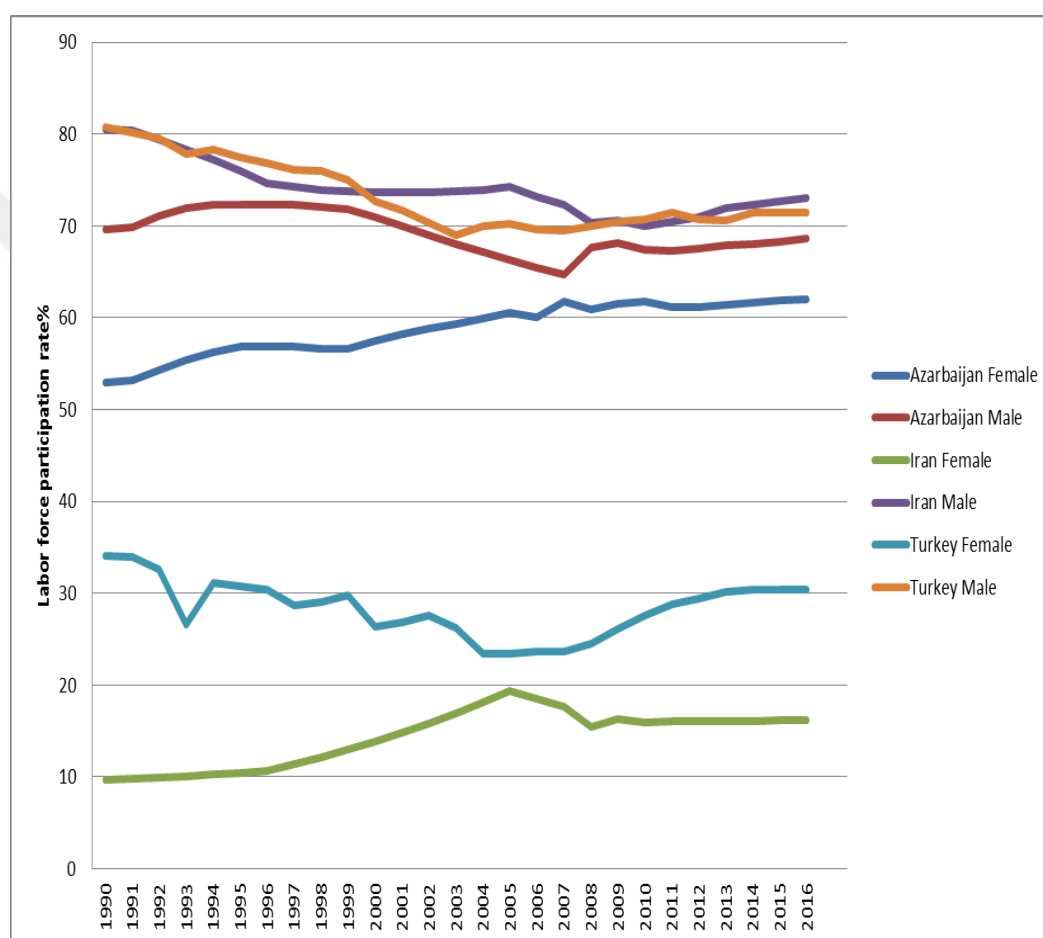


Figure 5.4: Female and Male Labor Force Participation Rate (% Ages 15+) in Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey (Modeled ILO Estimate)

Source: World Bank 2016

In fact, women in Iran and Turkey are still the most underemployed and unemployed segment of the societies. It can refer to the women's low level of education to unfit with the most of formal vocations' requirement and also, allocation of low wages for women's activities. According to Figure 4.4 in Third Chapter and the semi-equal

men and women's attendance in higher education do not apply for Iran's high employment rate, however in case of Turkey this hypothesis can be true.

Considering the smaller disparity between men and women's employment rates in Azerbaijan indicates that it might have better policies for labor force participation. In fact, the close employment rates of Azerbaijani women and men might originate from the Soviet period. It might be argued that the full employment policies for both men and women during the Soviet era has had a significant impact on Azerbaijan's current labor force participation rates.

5.3 Women's political participation and gender crises

Women's participation in political arena in most of the developing societies is limited to the formal participation in elections. Though women's involvement in political procedure as half of the countries' population is essential to reinforce democracy, they have an insufficient role in political life and activities. This is a common phenomenon that in every socio-political context of the world, women are placed as the highly under-represented strata at political decision-making process (Joyce. J 2015).

Table 5.6: Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament (%)

Year	Azerbaijan	Iran	Turkey
2000	11.5	3.4	4.2
2001	10.5	3.4	4.2
2002	10.5	4.1	4
2003	10.5	4.1	4.4
2004	10.5	4.1	4.4
2005	13	4.1	4.4
2006	11.3	4.1	4.4
2007	11.4	4.1	9.1
2008	11.4	2.8	9.1
2009	11.4	2.8	9.1

2010	16	2.8	9.1
2011	16	2.8	14.2
2012	16	3.1	14.2
2013	16	3.1	14.4
2014	15.6	3.1	14.4
2015	16.9	3.1	14.9
2016	16.8	5.9	14.9

Source: World Bank 2016



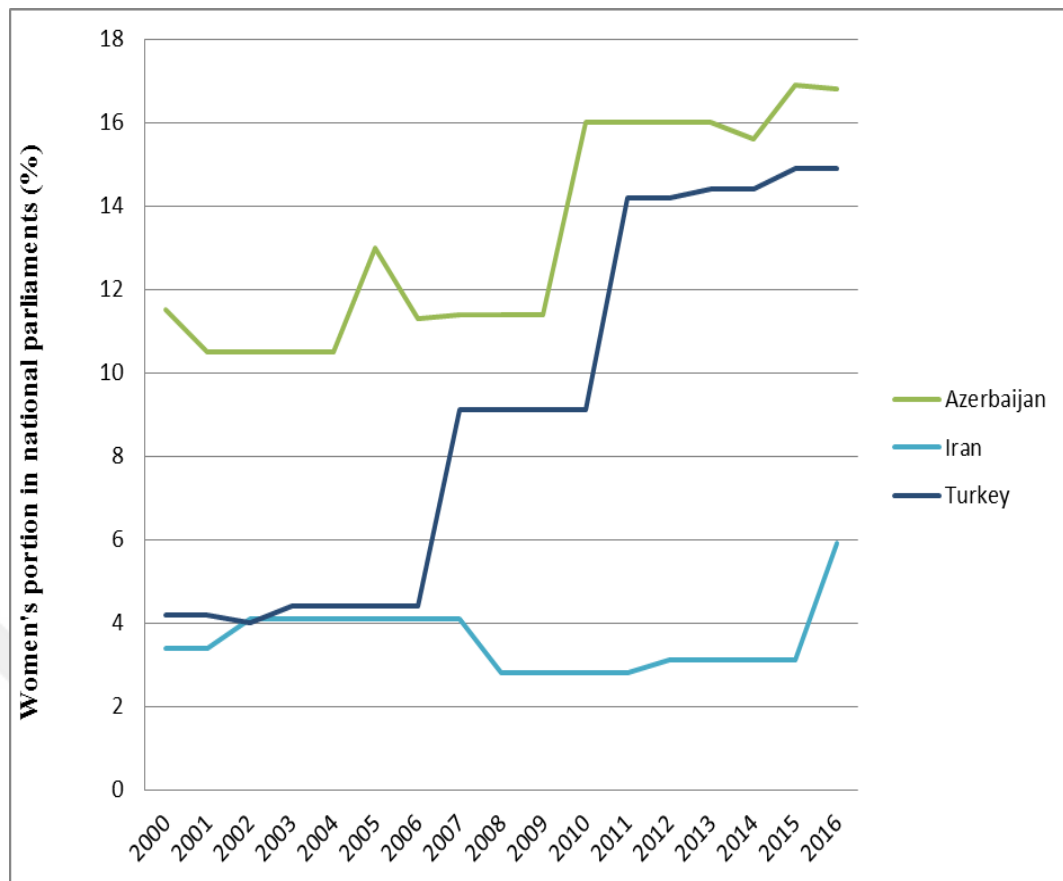


Figure 5.5: Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments of Azerbaijan, Iran and Turkey (%)

Source: World Bank 2016

Although there is no deterrent law to restrict women’s active political involvement in Iran, it is still unaccustomed culture and vision among the majority of people to accept a women as their representative in the national parliament or as a mayor in the municipality. Political participation of women in Iran during time-series have had a less-progressive path than Turkey and Azerbaijan. However, the new positive trend of Iran in Figure 5.5 started from 2015 motivates the hope to more women participation in both national parliamentary and other active political bodies.

In Azerbaijan women’s representation in political spheres has progressed over recent years. From 2005 to 2016 in the Figure 5.5, in Azerbaijan national parliaments’ women members have grown from 11 per cent to 17 per cent. Besides, such an improvement is remarkable in woman municipal councilors of Azerbaijan between years 2004 to 2009, though an increase from 4 % to 26 %. One of the most controversial debates in Azerbaijan today is enhancement of women’s

representation in political parties. To advance democracy in a country, women's presence as the representor of a half of people in elections as voters and candidates is an essential principle (OSCE 2012).

The fast growth of Turkey in women's political participation is considerable. By looking toward Turkey's recent elections the number of women's involved in national parliaments has enhanced almost from 4.5% in 2005 to 15% in 2016. Indeed, in every four years period, Turkey has surpassed a giant step towards more gender equality in politics than Iran.

One of the important reasons of gender development in countries such as Azerbaijan and Turkey is the efforts of European Union Commissioner to encourage governments to enlarge women's political participation. On the other hand, some soaring and moderate goals for women's political involvement by governments can be observed in municipal elections that the proper ground becomes provided for eligible and interested women candidates (CNA 2013).

By considering to above-mentioned arguments, the claim that the gender-based gap in the achievements between men and women is more striking than the gender inequality in capabilities such as attainment to education and health in Iran is true. In fact, no matter how many literate women exist in the society; men's share in labor markets, economic resources and political active positions is remarkably more than women. From a positive perspective, removal of the gender inequality in capabilities such as educational indicators along with some of the health achievements such as life expectancy represents partially the progressive attitude of the Iran in Human Development context.

6. CONCLUSION

This thesis discusses human development interdependence with capability approach and human rights. The main approach of human development is to address people's well-being, freedom, opportunities and aspirations which are limited by different hindrances such as; economic resources, unrelated education, disabilities and diseases, geographic location of living region and even gender. Hence, through a realistic viewpoint, sometimes opportunities that people achieve can be out of their aspiration. Individuals may have various and valuable capabilities, however, due to their habitat, discriminations, cultural and economic resources, they become unsuccessful to accomplish the certain capabilities and achieve to their functionings.

Nevertheless, the great wealth of a country, in terms of economic resources, cannot necessarily insure people's well-being and human development. That is why human development and capability approach refuse the notion of human capital and distribute identical values to health and education as economic resources. In fact, immense amounts of disparity in a society can conceal behind high GDP or GNI values. The multi-dimensional characteristic of human development reduces the possibility of generalization in development that neglects discriminations and people's real needs and disappointments. Therefore, people's long and healthy life, favorable education and decent income are three indispensable components of a country's development. The new version of HDI as Inequality-adjusted HDI by considering a certain loss for inequality levels in health, education and standard of living represents more accurate values of countries' development.

Despite the various controversies in counter to the effectiveness of capability approach and HDI that have problematized the failure of capability approach in educational systems for children, absence of a specific list for achievements and capabilities, the efficiency of CA and human development is an undeniable fact.

This thesis argues about gender inequality as one of the crucial obstacles to achieve the human development in a universal scale. Evaluating gender gap and women's

empowerment in the societies is an essential action toward estimating the real progress and development of them. In that case, different statistical measurements such as GDI, GEI, GII and GGGI along with the solid data and analyses help to expedite this process. Indeed, this thesis by using the secondary data analysis takes advantages of data and information presented by other scholars and statistical databases.

Second Chapter discusses about the significant role of education which plays in a long term human development plan. HDI directs policymakers' attention to ensure equal education for all as a capability and human right. Enhancing the level of education in countries leads to a total improvement in health and economic resources consequently. Intrinsic and instrumental values of education in both individual and collective spheres enhances the importance of education within the human development framework.

Despite the several attempts to universalize the primary education in compulsory ages, there are many deprived children in underdeveloped regions of world who have no access to be literate. In 2010, 781 million adult people totally were illiterate that shows the slow trend of UNESCO's progress. By looking through gender-based lenses to the education distribution, at the elementary stage, almost 69% of countries worldwide, have guaranteed equal educational enrollment in boys and girls. But, this amount falls to very small level of women's involvement in higher education level, which can initiate from different reasons such as patrimonial culture, sexual harassment in higher education and so on.

According to the tangible difference between gender parity and gender equality talked over, this thesis uses gender parity to compare the gender discrimination in HDI components. Analyzing gender equality demands a team of experts to evaluate effectiveness or ineffectiveness of each measurement in women and men's development.

Human development in Iran from a general perspective has have a progressive way since 1990 and passing 25 steps upward in HDI ranks within 25 years declares a valuable achievement. There is a great demand to reform educational policies in developing countries and Iran through the capability approach needs to more practice in freedom and parity. Iran, in case of the gender parity, have done many efforts so

far; for instance, attaining formal equality of girls and boys in education is a great achievement in terms of women's empowerment and consciousness.

Female-to-male analysis of health, education, employment and political participation of Iran in compare to Turkey and Azerbaijan unfolds some essential defects in their structures. Although, in terms of life expectancy at birth Iran's gender inequality level is too smaller than Turkey and Azerbaijan, skimming health indicator in mere life expectancy factor seems to not be so reliable due to the generalization error. In case of the education, the gender gap in mean years of schooling of Iran has been closed approximately however it remains a bit in case of the adult literacy. In fact the greatest gender gap in Iran belongs to women and men's participation in labor force, politics and achieved economic resources. However gender gap in participation to labor force and politics in Azerbaijan and Turkey has been declined dramatically. In fact, the difference between women and men's economic resources and income in Azerbaijan and Turkey is not that much striking which exists in Iran.

According to this thesis, although Iran has done a lot of to eliminate gender inequality so far and has succeeded to close the gender gap in capabilities, there are still huge levels of gender disparity in functionings that negatively affect the achieved gender equality in attainment to higher education. According to the aforementioned arguments, women from 2013 until now have had a drop in attending tertiary education in Iran compared to men's attainment. The reproduction of this gender gap after it was removed represents a kind of disappointment toward extending women's attainment in tertiary education. The apparent reduction in women's motivation to go to universities is probably a direct outcome of the low employment opportunities in professional and well-paid vocations in the country. Indeed, women in other countries such as Turkey, by experiencing lower mean years of schooling, achieve more economic resources, well-being and functionings than Iranian women.

Thus, why women are rare in Iran's labor force and parliament? There are several reasons behind that and to answer such a question should conduct a separate research in an analytical approach. Nevertheless, in this conclusion can mention some of the causes that aggravate the gender inequality in achievements. Patrimonial system in which father of family is considered as the head of family could play a role in less

participation of women in labor force. Indeed, in Civil Law of Iran it has been declared clearly that the husband, father, grandfather and so on have the fundamental authority in family's decision-making process and family's income is under their responsibilities.

On the other hand, sexual violence in vocational environments or higher educational institutions can be the other important reason behind the less contribution of women in labor force. Therefore, plenty of educated women become marginalized from achieving well-paid vocations and professions that they have trained them during several years. There is no doubt that such a discrimination or avoidance results irrecoverable damages to the human development value and economic measures of the country simultaneously. In addition, as Braunstein (2011) declares, there is an indirect correlation between gender inequality and decline of investments in children and youth and political corruption. According to the behavioral studies women have an intention to be more dependable and public-spirited than men. Hence, allocating a high percentage of governmental positions or labor markets to women would correlate reversely with corruption.

5.1 Future Research

Sexual violence against students as a common phenomenon in different areas deprives girls and women from higher education and working out of home. The huge number of court cases regarding sexual violence in both developing and developed countries highlights the increasing demand for effective policies to avoid the frequency of sexual harassment events at higher education and work places. As any field of study in social sciences, the aim of my future research is to investigate different ways which can improve the human development in different aspects as education, gender equality and security. One of the main dimensions that I want to emphasize in the future researches is analysis of the awareness levels of higher educational institutions' staff and employees about sexual harassment policies and procedures. Besides, one of the problematic issues in the case of policies and laws is the positive or negative reflection of severe punishments for sexual harassment. To what extent, the intensity of punishments can diminish the sexual harassment at higher education?

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