

**GENDER REPRESENTATION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR
IN MOGADISHU, SOMALIA**

BY

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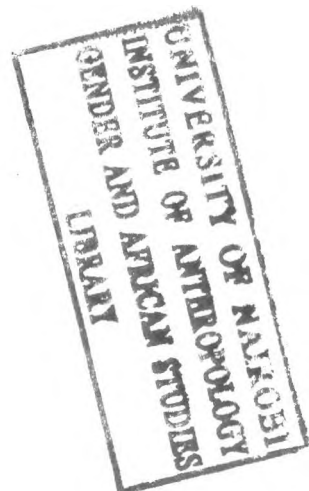
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DECLARATION

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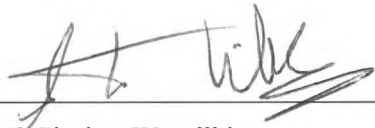
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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to explore and evaluate the gender balance in the public sector in Somalia. The study examined challenges facing gender representation in the public sector. This research was guided by the feminist theory.

A cross-sectional descriptive research design was adopted for the study. Data were collected through a survey, structured qualitative interviews and observation guide were used.

The study established that there is a major gender imbalance in the public sector in Somalia. Women in the country and those in the Diaspora have been found to be disadvantaged. The main causes of gender imbalance were found to be culture, tradition and politics. The other factor is lack of policies to reduce gender imbalance in the public sector.

Following the findings of the study, various recommendations were made for the purpose of improving the status of gender representation in the public sector in Somalia. The recommendations include urging the government to entrench affirmative action for women quota of between 30% and 50%, both in the new constitution and in the formal policies. The new Constitution should contain clauses that are against negative and regressive cultures that undermine women's active participation in the development of the country.

In the Constitution there should be provision for protection of women during the election period in order to prevent the possible obstacles that could hinder women's participation in the process of the election. Of equal importance is further research in other gender issues in Somalia.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANC	African National Congress
CBOs	Community-Based Organizations
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGE	Commission on Gender Equality
FRELIMO	Front for the Liberation of Mozambique
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority for Development
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NEC	National Executive Committee
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SWAPO	South West African People's Organization
TFC	Transitional Federal Charter
TFG	Transitional Federal Government
TNG	Transitional National Government
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Most governments have realized that it might take a long time for the gap between men and women to close, and so they have come up with affirmative action policies to address the problem. Such governments have laws and rules that make it possible for men and women to compete in the public sphere. Some of these rules are strategies for empowering women to work in certain sectors. In many parts of the world, despite gains made by women, the public sector is still dominated by men, the reason being cultural and patriarchal practices which allow all the benefits and awards to men at the expense of women (Bari, 2005: 6).

During the period of the Somali civil war and anarchy, women suffered the worst war effects, heavy human rights abuses, displacement, hunger, and lack of basic services. In 2002-2004, the Somali National Reconciliation Conference was held in Eldoret and Mbagathi, Kenya that culminated in creation of the Transitional Federal Government (TFG). As part of the agreement, 12% of the seats in the Transitional Government were to be reserved for women. According to Article 29 of the Charter, "The Transitional Federal Parliament of the Somali Republic shall consist of two hundred and seventy-five (275) members of whom at least twelve per cent (12%) shall be women" (TFC, 2004). The Charter was prepared by a Committee composed of Somali Participants of the Conference with the support of IGAD Countries and International Donors. However, this was not honoured and women were given only 6% of the seats. All the different Administrations have continued to sideline women in all decision-making positions.

The relationship between gender diversity and the regulations that help us achieve it can be very positive; if focus is on achieving diversity, it could lead any country to enjoy gender equality and equity. Equitable gender representation in the public sector is the basis of human rights and the gear of development.

During the pre-colonial era, Somalia was characterized by a patriarchal structure and this was maintained as traditional law during the colonial period. However, though subordinated, women were service and partly food providers for subsistence.

Traditionally, Somali women have been seen as playing a passive role in decision-making, both in the family and public spheres. However, it is now thought that they are becoming more active on the economic and social fronts after the civil war because the general situation made them the breadwinners of the family. The recent socio-economic survey of Somalia, the first such report in over two decades, was released by the World Bank and UNDP in 2002, (UNDP, 2002). While mapping the participation of Somali women in decision-making processes, the UN agencies found that more than one decade of political chaos had left women with low income positions in the informal sector.

After independence up-to 1991, the patriarchal system continued to function. Nevertheless, gender representation was gradually progressing in the public sector; however, since 1991 Somali people especially women and children have suffered the effects of war. The war has caused perpetuation of gender-based violence, as well as coercion and discrimination in various dimensions of politics, economy and socio-cultural aspects, (US Dept of State. 2007).

Due to the rigid cultural/religious and patriarchal beliefs as well as the effects of war and anarchy, Somalia has been lagging behind all Sub-Sahara countries when it comes to gender equality and gender mainstreaming in the public sphere. For example, Somalia's poverty levels are lower than those in other conflict-affected countries in sub-Saharan Africa (UNDP, 2002). The country's per capita income in 2002 was estimated at \$226 (compared to \$515 in Sub-Saharan Africa). Thus, Somalia is one of the poorest countries in the world. The UNDP's Human Development Index ranked Somalia 123 out of 130 countries in 2000 (Bradbury, et al. 2001: 46).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Equality in gender representation in the political decision-making process and public sector has been commonly accepted as a crucial source of the legitimacy of democratic governance. Yet, over the past decades, although a number of nations have achieved significant increases in the proportion of women in institutions such as the legislature, cabinet, and civil service, women remain largely under-represented in the public sector in most countries.

Fair representation in gender has normative significance in political theory. Although from the traditional point of view, representation, as long as there are representatives to act for women as their trustees and to speak for their benefits, it does not matter whether these

representatives are women or men (Pitkin, 1967). However, from the symbolic perspective, people choose representatives not only as their trustees, but also as their delegates to stand for them in the decision making process “as if” they themselves are present in that process. In other words, “representation” is a kind of “symbol;” and the failure of appropriately incorporating women into politics would be seen as “an evidence” of structural discrimination against women (Pitkin, 1967: 99).

Gender parity representation in decision making positions helps to achieve results-driven objectives. Common knowledge and experience have shown that people with shared descriptive traits and experiences, such as gender, are more likely to understand their needs accurately and present their substantive interests. For example, it would be hard for a male representative to realize the value of a housewife or the need of a pregnant mother, since he has no such experiences. Therefore, gender representation becomes salient because women can predict female representatives due to their similarity, thus trusting them to deal with their common issues. Also, the composition of the representatives should correctly reflect the gender composition of the society as a mirror, so that there are enough female representatives to protect the rights of women proportionally (Mansbridge, 2000).

The improvement of women’s participation in all aspect of public affairs is thus essential to positive self-identity of women as well as the full development of their capacities. The lack of female involvement and participation in the public sector would also have serious administrative consequences. As Hale and Kelly (1989) point out, unelected government officials, “who are largely a technological elite group, are shaping and determining policy as well as implementing it. On the other hand, personal background and experience also affect how the lower-level civil servants serve their citizen clients.

This study, therefore sought to answer the following questions:

- I. To what extent are men and women represented in the public sector in Somalia?
- II. Which factors tend to influence gender representation in the public sector in Somalia?
- III. What strategies may be adopted to reduce gender disparity in the public sector in Somalia?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

To explore gender representation in the public sector of Somalia, using public institutions in Mogadishu as a case study.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- 1) To determine the status of gender representation in the public sector in Somalia.
- 2) To identify the factors that influence gender representation in the public sector in Somalia.
- 3) To suggest appropriate strategies that will help to reduce gender imbalance in the public sector in Somalia.

1.4 Justification of the Study

Sustainable development demands that both genders are involved in decision-making and the management of the public sector. The history of Somalia suggests that women are sidelined from participation in development activities. So far, apart from various reports and suggestions, there is no convincing evidence that gender inequality has been given adequate attention in research. In the Constitution and in the present Charter, there are clauses on equal rights for both women and men, but they have not been respected so far. Over the period no research has been done to determine whether the rights were fairly distributed or not.

Women have always lamented unofficially without putting in official complaints either as individuals or groups. Therefore, a research of this nature will create awareness in regard to gender equality and support previous findings to influence future laws and policies to recognize the importance of gender balance in decision-making in the country. By making a case for a major shift in management and political participation, this research has made a case for reform of other factors that play a part in the marginalization of women. Women inclusion in the public service institutions is paramount since women are the majority and are as productive members of society as men.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study focused on factors that influence gender representation in Government Ministries and other public sector institutions in Somalia. The study targeted Mogadishu, the capital city of Somalia and where all the main offices of government institutions are located.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The quality of the study findings may have been slightly affected by a number of short comings. However, the necessary measure was taken to overcome the impact of the short comings. The following are the main factors which could negatively influence the quality of the research results:

1. Majority of the time, there was slight distraction of attention during the interviews due to lack of office space and furniture. In order to count the effects of the interference, appropriate efforts were made to draw and sustain the interest and attention of the respondents.

2. The data collection process was affected by time limitation. This arose particularly because some respondents apparently had busy schedules and could not avail enough time for interviews. In many cases, interview sessions were interrupted unexpectedly.

3. Some of the respondents were reluctant to provide information on gender issues. In their opinion, it was not the right time to exchange ideas regarding gender balance in the public sector. They felt that Somalia as a country was still in the period of the people to look for survival as a matter of priority.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Affirmative Action: It is a policy programme formulated to address existing injustices that are affecting a particular group of people in society. It implies temporary measures for adjusting imbalanced distribution of resources /opportunities in politics and education to the less privileged in the society.

Culture: In this study, culture refers to traditions, customs, beliefs and ways of life of the Somali community.

Diaspora: The movement of people away from their home countries.

Empowerment: The process of gaining or developing power.

Gender: The socially constructed roles, behaviors, and attributes considered appropriate for men and women in a given society at a particular point in time.

Gender Equality: A situation where women have the same opportunities in life as men, including the ability to participate in the public sphere, equivalence in life outcomes for women and men, and equality in distribution of power and resources.

Gender Mainstreaming: An organizational strategy to bring a gender perspective to all aspects of an institution's policy and activities, through building gender capacity and accountability.

Gender Representation: In this study the term refers to fair participation of both men and women in the public sector.

Patriarchy: A social system based on the authority of male heads both at household and at the system of governance.

Political Gender Balance: The degree to which men and women hold equal positions in the public sector.

Policy: A plan, guiding principle and course of action.

Public Sector: In this study public sector refers to government ministries and other public institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the study problem. The review is guided by the following sub-headings: An overview of gender representation in the public sector in Somalia; women's representation in the public sector in Africa; key factors in women's empowerment in development in Africa; gender political participation in Africa; gender relations in patriarchal culture and sustainable development; and policy implications of political gender balance. The section also discusses the theoretical framework which guided the study.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 An Overview of Gender Representation in the Public Sector

Women in Somalia, just like many others in developing countries, have not been empowered enough and allowed to participate in the public sector. This has always been a practice in patriarchal societies which is common in many African countries.

The endorsement of gender equality is at the top of many international institutions' agenda following a decade of democratization in Africa. The Beijing Platform for Action of 1995, later revised at the 23rd Special Session of the United Nations (UN) General Assembly held in June 2000, encouraged governments to set and encourage the use of explicit short and long-term time-bound targets or measurable goals, including, where appropriate, quotas to promote progress towards gender balance. This includes women's equal access and full participation, on the basis of equal opportunities with men in all areas and at all levels of public life, especially in decision-making positions, in political parties and other political activities (Ongunsanya, 2006). International mandates calling for gender political parity include the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), The Millennium Developmental Goals (MDGs) and the UN Security Resolution 1325 of 2000 (UNIFEM, 2007).

Formal gender equality, manifested as female political representation at national and regional levels, and within governmental institutions, is not yet a reality. However, even when equality is reached in numbers, this will not automatically translate into better lives for women citizens. There is need to focus not only on increasing the number of women in government/public sector, but also on women's effectiveness in public sector positions and their impact on decision-making (Ogunsanya, 2006).

2.2.2 Women's Representation in the Public Sector in Africa

Globally, only 39 states have ever elected a woman president or prime minister. The UN report titled "The World's Women 2000: Trends and Statistics" states that women comprise "less than one-tenth of the world's cabinet ministers and one-fifth of all sub-ministerial positions" (Norris, and Inglehart, 2001: 126). The percentage of women in Parliament in sub-Saharan Africa is just below the global average but increases every year. However, regardless of the impressive improvements in formal gender equality over the past two decades, African women should no rest on their laurels. The status of women's political representation in sub-Saharan Africa is a direct result of each country's historical and political paths and should be contextualized as such.

The African continent has frequently found itself at the receiving end of the global reproach vis-à-vis bad governance, ethnic strife, politics of socio-economic aspect (Bayart, 1993), and failure to address escalating destitution, to highlight just a few issues. Due to historical mismanagement and exploitation, Sub-Saharan Africa has succeeded in covering the tail end of many indices and inventories. It is, therefore, quite unexpected to see an African country at the top of the global list of female political/public sector representation. Rwanda (followed by Sweden) has filled 48.8 per cent of its Parliamentary seats with women (Ogunsanya, 2006; Connolly, 2005). During the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Summit held in August 2005, government institutions, as well as regional and national civil society organizations clamoured for 50 per cent representation of women at all levels of decision-making in the sub-continent by 2020. Sub-Saharan countries are, therefore, well aware of the need for women's representation and most are working hard to achieve this goal.

Tanzania was the first African country in 1998, followed by Burundi in 2005, to include 20 per cent women representation in Parliament and 30 per cent in national institutions. Some current ruling parties that mobilized women during the liberation struggle, such as the

African National Congress (ANC), Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO) and South West African People's Organization (SWAPO), employ quotas for women because of the women's active involvement in the struggle and their persistent demands for more equitable representation in postliberation politics (Yoon, 2004). Namibian and Mozambican women occupy more than 20 per cent of Parliamentary seats (Geisler, 2000), but South African women have achieved even more – 30 per cent.

2.2.3 Key Factors in Women's Empowerment in Development in Africa

Theorists have pointed out the social, economic, political and cultural factors that significantly influence female political representation and development. Yoon (2004) proposes four social, economic and cultural aspects that guide women's access to the legislature (Kenworthy and Malami, 1999). The first is access to education. Education instills interest in political and economic matters as educated women would be more adept to seek elective office. The United Nations Development Report for 2000 states that Sub-Saharan Africa's female educational enrolment rates are the lowest globally, situation which hinders women's development participation and in decision making positions (UN, 2000). Norris and Inglehart (2001: 126) reiterate the power of social structure: women find it challenging to enter elective offices because they also have to deal with issues like poor childcare, low literacy levels, inadequate health care and poverty.

The second factor that influences female public sector representation is their (non-) participation in the labour force. Women who find themselves in the formal wage labour force are more likely to enjoy political representation. They have greater financial independence as well as higher levels of self-esteem (Kenworthy and Malami, 1999). Technical presentation and supervisory skills are skills that women in the formal economy bring to the political realm. "Jobs in such fields as law and journalism commonly provide the flexibility, financial resources, experience, and social networks that facilitate running for elected office (Norris and Inglehart, 2001:130).

Women in sub-Saharan Africa are, however, frequently employed in the informal sector or are involved in subsistence agricultural activities. Active women in the formal labour force are therefore in the minority. A focus on socio-economic development does not fully explain the obstacles to female political/public sector representation, as a comparison between countries such as Canada (where 20 per cent of Parliamentarians are women), the United

States (13 per cent) and South Africa (30 per cent) clearly illustrates. In Sub-Saharan Africa, one of the world's poorest regions, parliamentary seats in 13 out of 39 states are filled with at least 15 per cent women (Connolly, 2005). In other words, some 'poor' countries currently have more women representatives in government than some 'rich' countries do.

The economic condition of a country is, however, an important factor in women's access to the public sphere. Due to the fact that women are often solely responsible for the management of households, any adverse economic fluctuations impact on them directly. Preoccupation with fighting for survival negatively reduces women's interest in competing for public office.

A final, yet significant factor to consider when deliberating women's access to public sector representation is culture. Patriarchal thought in particular limits opportunities for women, especially in the political sphere where patriarchy deems women subordinate and unsuitable for positions of leadership. A democratic culture fosters women's involvement in electoral politics, but hierarchical culture impedes it. How favourably or unfavourably the society views women's involvement in politics depends on where its culture lies in the egalitarian-hierarchical cultural spectrum (Yoon, 2004). Women experience greater obstacles towards political office in societies where traditional attitudes reign, but modernization, value changes and the fading of cultural barriers, result in younger generations of women in post-industrial societies experiencing less resistance to entering political offices.

Public or institutional variables are perhaps the most important to consider when exploring female political representation. Yoon (2004:455) argues for the importance of contemplating the role of party system fragmentation, electoral systems and gender quotas. Multi-member, proportional representation electoral systems have proven to be the most encouraging towards allowing women governmental positions. This electoral system has proven to be the most successful in welcoming minority groups into Parliament. "The likelihood of women to be nominated is higher in a party system with a small number of large parliamentary parties because large parties are likely to have safe seats in which they can place female candidates." (Yoon, *Ibid.*). African politics, however, are characterized by fragmented and ineffective opposition parties, which make the likelihood of women begetting official seats even more unlikely.

Norris and Inglehart (2001) add that a country's level of democratization is one of the most important institutional factors to consider when explaining female, political representation. This is because, "In general, the transition and consolidation of democratic societies can be expected to promote widespread political and civil liberties, including the right of women to vote and to stand for elected office" (p.129).

Finally, analysts view gender quotas as the most certain way to further female political representation (Norris, and Inglehart, (2001). Sub-Saharan Africa uses two different types of quotas: the system of reserved seats established by national legislation (as used in Sudan, Uganda, and Tanzania) and quotas voluntarily established by political parties (as seen in Botswana, Cote d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Senegal, and South Africa. Some consider gender quotas as 'discrimination and a violation of the principle of fairness' but others view them as "compensation for structural barriers that prevent fair competition" (Norris and Inglehart, 2001: 133). Despite the efficiency of gender quotas in ensuring political equality, quota systems are said to violate principles of fairness, competence and individualism (Dahlerup, 2003).

2.2.4 Gender Political Participation in Africa

The appointment of Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka as Deputy President of South Africa in June 2005, signaled a great advancement in the political representation of women. This was the highest political position ever held by a female in that country (Ogunsanya, 2006). However, South African women's political accomplishments have been remarkable compared to their counterparts in other African countries (Geisler, 2000). Their active participation as a united women's movement in the liberation struggle against the apartheid regime serves as the foundation for fighting for gender equality in an undemocratic government. However, in 1990, the ANC's National Executive Committee (NEC) conceded that the emancipation of women was not a by-product of national liberation or socialism. It needs to be addressed in its own right within an organization, the mass democratic movement and in society as a whole. This statement became part of a discourse on gender equality that entered the public sphere and governmental dialogue soon after 1990.

The first democratic election in 1994 saw 111 (27 per cent) women voted into the National Parliament. This made South Africa one of the top ten countries worldwide with regard to female political representation (Myakayaka-Mansini, 2003) and was the result of the ANC's

internal quota system. The efforts of South African women during the political liberation struggle bore fruit when in 1994; the newly drafted and adopted South African Constitution was hailed as one of the most gender-sensitive in the world.

South Africa has introduced Commission of Gender Equality (CGE) in its Constitution. The CGE is independent of the government, yet it is funded by the government. The South African Constitution and the high political representation of women in Parliament have been adopted by the government for formal gender equality (Constitution-SA Chapter 9, 1997).

Unlike previous regimes, in Uganda, Museveni government experienced immense pressure from women's organizations to address women's issues at the national level. Uganda's system of reserved seats for women, established in 1986, has been interpreted as President Yoweri Museveni's acknowledgment of women's contributions to the victory of his National Resistance Movement in the Ugandan civil war. Women harboured and fed soldiers, hid weapons in their homes, and fought alongside the men against Milton Obote's forces (Yoon, 2004). The Ugandan Ministry of Women in Development was established in 1988 to seek equal rights for women through institutional and legislative changes. The attempts of women's call were for the integration of women's concerns in the national and district development programmes. They also demanded full participation of women in decision-making in the political and developmental processes (Tripp, 1994).

Yoon (2004) argues, skeptically, that the system of reserved seats for women can be seen as a political calculation by the National Resistance Movement to win women's votes and to ensure the support of female legislators. Ottemoeller(1999) reiterates the argument that women's influence on formal electoral politics in Uganda is expanding at least partly because gender has become a political tool for power-seeking politicians. As a consequence of the pressure asserted by women's groups, Ugandan women's political representation is on the increase. In 1980 there was only one woman in Parliament out of a total of 142 parliamentarians (Tripp, 1994). In 1992, there were four women cabinet ministers, and by 1994, two of 21 representatives who served on Uganda's constitutional commission were women. Women's governmental representation has increased to nearly 25 per cent after the June 2001 elections (Goetz, 2002), yet millions of Ugandan women still suffer from unemployment and have little or no access to healthcare.

2.2.5 Gender Relations in Patriarchal Culture and Sustainable Development

There are a number of barriers which women encounter when they try to get into the public sector. Historically, it is men that have held power in society and stereotypes about women's leadership and capabilities often prevent women from assuming a larger governance role. Attitudes and perceptions by society prevent women from enjoying leadership both at household level and in business management. Women tend to lack the experience and self-confidence of men who feel more at home in the political realm. They may have limited understanding of political processes. Due to their double productive and family roles, women often do not have the time to participate in political debates and decision-making processes (OECD: 59, 2008).

However, when women do participate in the public sphere, there is a greater chance that policies will reflect more closely the needs of all citizens. Women and men bring different perspectives to decision-making, and a lack of women in government limits the effectiveness of the state and its policies and diminishes its representational quality, and this may **not** lead to achieving sustainable development. Studies show that when women are well-represented in decision-making bodies, the overall quality of governance tends to rise and levels of corruption decrease (UNDP, 2007). Due to somewhat different priorities, women in government are more likely to work towards passing laws that benefit families, women, children, and traditionally marginalized groups – the whole population. Surveys of women holding political office find that female respondents have a different view of politics and of society than their male counterparts. Women give greater emphasis to social welfare, legal protection and transparency in government and business. They tend to introduce more legislation reinforcing labour rights, social security, education, land redistribution, and electoral initiatives (IPU, 2008). This all-round management definitely leads to achieving sustainable development.

2.2.6 Policy Implications of Political Gender Balance

The political gender balance, in most African countries shows that good governance and sustainable development is not yet a reality. The challenge for all societies is to create a system of government that is participatory and accountable and ensures that political, social, and economic priorities are based on a broad consensus in society. This is difficult to achieve without greater representation of women in parliamentary and public sector roles. Greater transparency and more open participation in political processes is an important part of

women's empowerment in government. Administrations and political institutions at all levels must become more open to public scrutiny and made accessible to a wider portion of the public. Facilitating female participation in governance may depend on special training and information programmes to explain complex legal processes. Schemes to assist working parents with time constraints as well as mentoring and networks also help to give women new roles in political life (OECD: 60, 2008).

According to Goetz and Hassim (2003: 6), the success of the gender equity interest in policy making will depend upon three major factors and their interactions:

1. The nature of civil society and the place and power of the gender equity lobby in the civil society—its power to mobilize resources and public concern to support its demands, its power to challenge gender-bias conceptions of women's needs, roles and rights;
2. The nature of the political system (the depth of procedural and substantive democracy) and the organization of political competition (the number and nature of parties, their ideologies and memberships, the relative importance of high finance or crime in political contests); and
3. The nature and power of the state (whether it is a developmental state); the extent of decentralization; the configuration of executive/legislative/military/judicial /administrative power and the degree to which these enable horizontal accountability institutions function effectively; whether the top executive has the will and capacity to enforce change in the culture and practices of public bureaucracies; whether there is a professional civil service; whether the public service has internalized a commitment to poverty reduction, gender equity, etc.

In most societies, gender equity concerns are counter-cultural: they challenge the interests of individual men, and of groups constituted on the basis of patriarchal privileges. For instance, clan-or tribe-based power structures do not welcome the disruption of traditional property ownership patterns which women's claims, such as to land rights represent. The demands of feminists can provoke social conflict, and a powerful and committed state is needed to see that constitutional or policy commitments on gender equity are actually implemented in policies on social services, land ownership or employment. It must, for instance, have a disciplined bureaucracy able to implement gender-sensitive policy in spite of social (and internal) resistance (Goetz and Hassim, 2003).

The main point of contention is how far new measures to bring women into public office allow for greater influence of women's movement in politics for the entry of feminists into politics, for the forging of connections between feminists in politics and the constituency of women, and for the production of new legislation which advances gender equity. Goetz and Hassim (2003) concludes that women should be actively involved in policy making in order to achieve political gender balance.

It is evident that some studies have been carried out on gender balance in politics in the world. However, there is very scanty literature on political gender balance in Somalia. This forms the basis of carrying out this study.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Feminist Theory

This research was guided by the feminist theory and development frameworks. A framework consists of basic assumptions about the nature of the social world and how it works and about the nature of people and how they act. For example, some people assume that society is basically harmonious and that harmony results from a set of shared values. Others assume that society is in conflict and that conflict is rooted in class, race, and gender struggles over power and access to and control over resources. Most feminist and development theories have their roots in the West and need to be tested and redefined in other contexts, (Saunders, 2002).

Feminist theory is the extension of feminism into theoretical discourse. It aims at understanding the nature of gender inequality. It examines women's social roles and lived experiences, and feminist politics in a variety of fields, such as economics, education, and sociology. The issue of gender inequality goes back to the ancient times where women were only meant to cook, bring up children and serve their husband's commands. The history of the struggle for the women's right has been divided into three parts (Lear, 1968): First Wave (In 19th and early 20th centuries), Second Wave (1960s to late 1970s) and Third Wave (Late 1980s to 2010). The term 'Second Wave' was coined by Marsha Lear, and refers to the increased feminist activity which occurred in America, Britain and Europe, from the late sixties onwards. In America, second wave feminism rose out of the Civil Rights and anti-war movements in which women, disillusioned with their second-class status, even in the activist

environment of student politics, began to band together to contend against discrimination (Lear, 1968).

The theory of feminism was introduced to oppose the 'patriarchy structure'. Feminism is protagonism of women's rights on the grounds of political, social and economic equality. It is important to understand the feminists' use of patriarchy as a strategic and political redefinition "a struggle concept," as Maria Mies explains, "because the movement needed a term by which the totality of oppressive and exploitative relations which affect women could be expressed as well as their systemic character" (Maria Mies, 1986:37).

2.3.2 Relevance of the Theory to the Study

Feminist theory of the second wave was a women's liberation movement, campaigning for legal and social equality for women. It referred to the idea and actions associated with the focus on fighting social and cultural inequalities, political inequalities, as well as any other gender discriminations.

Our societies are shaped by a gender-based power structure, which divides the population into men and women, and values their contributions unequally. The movement fought against the subordination of women.

Feminists have always fought against the rigid culture and long standing patriarchy. Feminist theorists and activists bring different understandings and emphases to the analysis of patriarchal institutions and the strategies for its transformation. The political system in line with feminist theory works to change laws, policies, and practices that allow the exploitation of women's unpaid household labour and underpaid wage work. This works to explain strategies for enhancing more gender sensitive representation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research site, research design, study population, sample population, data collection methods, and data analysis. Ethical considerations are also discussed.

3.2 Research Site

This research was carried out in Mogadishu, the capital city of Somalia. Mogadishu is the largest city in Somalia and the nation's capital. It is located in the coastal Benadir region on the Indian Ocean (Fig. 3.1). Mogadishu is also the head-quarters of all government ministries and institutions. These are situated in the districts of Wadajir, Howlwadaag, War-dhiigley, Waberi, Xamar–Weyne, and Hodan.

Mogadishu is inhabited by people of different ethnic backgrounds since it is the capital of Somalia. However, it is dominated by Somali people of different clans. The population of Mogadishu as of 24th February 2011 is approximately 1,673,913. This is extrapolated from a population of 2,000,000 in 2006 and a population of 1,700,000 on 9th October, 2010. (Wikipedia, 2011).

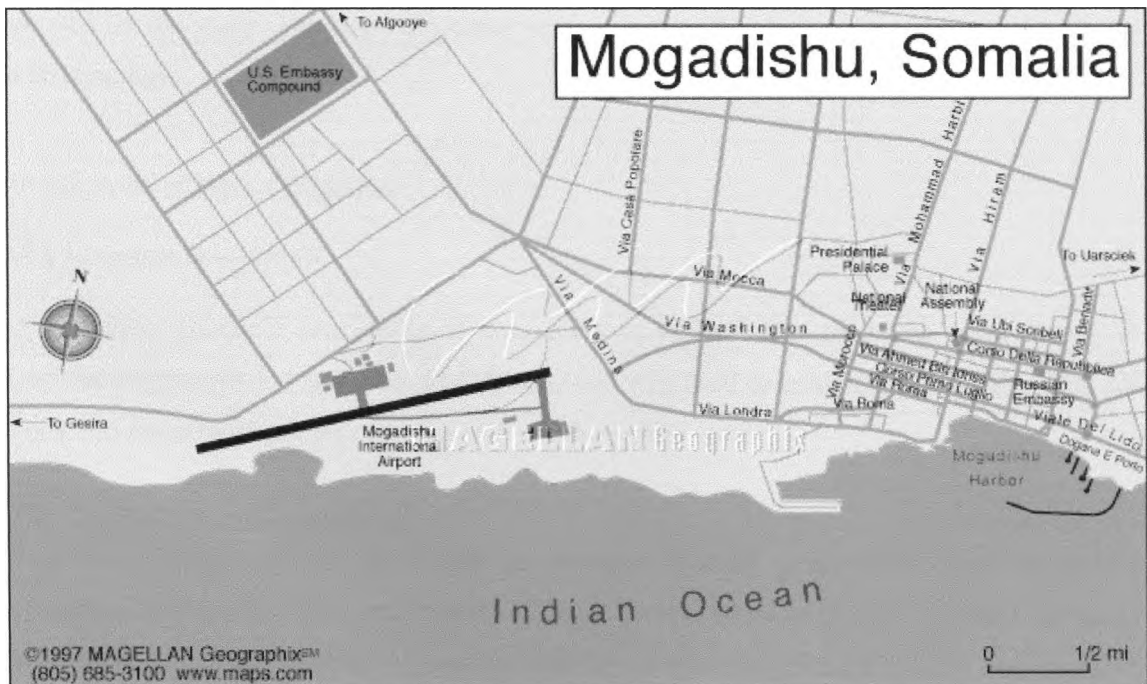


Figure 3.1: Map of Mogadishu, Somalia

3.3 Research Design

This study was cross-sectional and descriptive in nature. Both primary and secondary methods of data collection were used. The purpose of descriptive research is usually to give an accurate account of the characteristics of a particular phenomenon, situation, community or person (Nyandemo, 2007). The findings were presented using tables and graphs as well as direct quotations.

3.4 Study Population

The target population of the study consisted of 18 government ministries and 9 public institutions.

3.5 Sample Population

The sample population consisted of 10 government ministries and five public institutions.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling was used to select the five government institutions, while the simple random sampling technique (lottery method) was used to select the ten government ministries. Purposive sampling was thought to be appropriate because it is a sampling technique that allows a researcher to use cases that have the required information in respect of the objectives of the study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The simple random sampling technique was used because it gave all the government ministries an equal chance of being selected for the study. The key informants were purposively selected from the senior officials in government.

3.7 Methods of Data Collection

3.7.1 In-depth Interviews

An interview schedule (Appendix I) was used to collect data from the respondents. It consisted of open-ended and closed-questions, and was used to generate quantifiable data on trends and patterns of gender representation in the public sector.

3.7.2 Key Informant Interviews

These were conducted with ten senior government officials purposively drawn from the ministries. They yielded data on the state of gender representation in each ministry and each public institution, the visibility of women, policies in place to enhance gender equality and representation as well as the hindrances to achieving the required representations of gender

across the ministries and particularly in the public sector. A key informant interview guide (Appendix II) was used to collect the data.

3.7.3 Observation

This is a data collection method that involves observing the current status of a phenomenon. It entails observing the proceedings or events and not asking questions. In this study, observation was used to examine gender participation in public service delivery. An observation schedule (Appendix III) was used to collect the information.

3.7.4 Secondary Sources

Use of secondary sources of data entailed the analysis and review of published books, journals, papers, periodicals, reports, and unpublished works, Government documents, including policy documents, the charter/constitution, sectional papers, media sources and the internet. Secondary data saves time and cost. For instance, longitudinal studies have already been completed and documented, but findings needed a lot of fine-tuning and adjusting for them to fit the objectives of the study.

3.8 Data Processing and Analysis

Quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software. On the other hand, qualitative data were analyzed according to emerging themes.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The study ensured that there was informed consent from the respondents. The researcher also obtained an introductory letter from the University of Nairobi and written consent from authorities of the Somali Government before embarking on the research. Anonymity and right to privacy of the research subjects were guaranteed because data were coded to protect their identity.

CHAPTER FOUR

GENDER REPRESENTATION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN MOGADISHU

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the presentation and interpretation of the findings in relation to the objectives of the research project. The chapter begins with a discussion of the socio-demographics of the respondents, and then moves on to present findings on gender representation in the public sector.

4.2 Socio-demographics of Respondents

There was 100% response rate when the questionnaire was administered. The respondents provided personal information about their educational levels and work experience. Gender of respondents was also considered during the research.

4.2.1 Gender of Respondents

Table 4.1 below shows that there is incredible gender imbalance in gender representation in the public sector. There is a dominance of male employees as compared to female employees in the public sector in Somalia. The table indicates that 93% are males, while 7% are females as the respondents who were accessible in the public sector in Somalia.

Table 4.1: Respondents' Gender

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	14	93
Female	1	7
Total	15	100

4.2.2 Educational Levels of Respondents

The respondents' educational levels ranged from Secondary school education to University level. All of the respondents had attended school. This is illustrated in table 4.1 below.

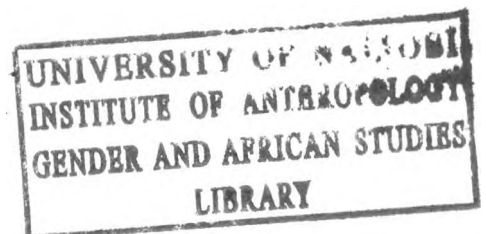


Table 4.2: Respondents' Education Level

Level of Education	Number	Percentage
Secondary	2	13
College	6	40
University	7	47
Others		
Total	15	100

The findings indicate clearly that all the respondents had higher education. In fact, only two (13%) out of 15 had secondary level of education, which was the lowest for the respondents. The implication of this is that the respondents are expected to be well equipped with knowledge and skills appropriate for their positions in employment. Given their level of literacy, they were also in a better position to provide valid and reliable data for the study.

4.2.3 Work Experience of Respondents

The respondents' experiences are of a wide array, starting from one year to over 10 years. As indicated in the table below, a majority of the respondents have a working experience of between 3 and 5 years.

Table 4.3: Respondents' Work Experience

Number of years	Number	Percentage
1-2years	3	20
3-5 years	7	47
6-10 years	2	13
Over 10 years	3	20
Total	15	100

From the above findings, it is clear that 80% of respondents had served in the public sector for at least three years. This suggests that most of the respondents have had the experience of working in almost all the changing governments of Somalia. Such experience places the respondents in a good position to offer information required for the study,

4.3 Status of Gender Representation in the Public Sector

From the findings of the study, it emerged that there is no equal gender representation in the public sector in Somalia. This was observed in the political circles of the country. The main organs of the government which revealed the imbalance in gender representation in the public sector are Parliament, President's office, Cabinet body, Local Administrations, and other Civil Service Institutions.

There are extreme gender disparities in all sectors of the government. From cabinet positions to head of section, there is either only one woman or none at all. The reasons given were: there are no qualified women; there is insecurity; women already have their own jobs in their prescribed positions which is at home or in the informal sectors; and women in the Diaspora cannot come to Somalia to work because no salary is paid to government employees. There is general belief that men need job security more than women. When women want to participate, men immediately say "women already have a lot of work at home; who will take care of the children, if women also go to work in the offices"?

Ironically, when women go to the market to do petty trading, men do not complain about the care of the children. Apparently, this is because in the informal business in the market, women do not interfere with the men's domain.

Unlike Somalia, many countries of South-Sub-Saharan Africa have made some substantial progress towards gender balance both in the public and private sectors.

4.3.1 Gender Representation in Parliament

Figure 4.1 below shows that in the Central Administration of the Transitional Federal Government of Somalia, gender representation in parliament is 93% men and a mere 7% left for female representation.

The findings inform us that women's political participation has been declining over time.

The Charter of the Transitional Federal Government which was signed in Nairobi in 2004, gave women 12% as their quota for parliamentary seats. When the first Government Administration of the TFG was formed in 2004, women were given 8% of the seats in parliament instead of the entitled 12%.

But in January 2009 when the present Administration replaced the former Administration of 2004, the membership of the parliament was revised by increasing the numbers from 275 to 550. The women's quota was then reduced to 7% from the 8% which had been approved by the previous Government Administration. At the present, there are 37 female members of parliament out of the total of 550 members.

The findings further reveal that the declining trend is caused by conservative cultural practice of patriarchal origin. There is also the clan based sharing formula which is the outcome of the system agreed in the Somali Peace Conference in Nairobi in 2004. Another fact is also woman's laxity and women's deficiency of capacity to champion for their rights.

The experience of Somalia is contrary to what happens in other African countries, especially regarding the political representation of women in parliament. The related literature that has been reviewed indicates that countries, such as South Africa, Kenya, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania and Sudan, have demonstrated a great advancement in women's participation in politics and other spheres of the public sector. Therefore, Somalia as a country has been left behind in this direction.

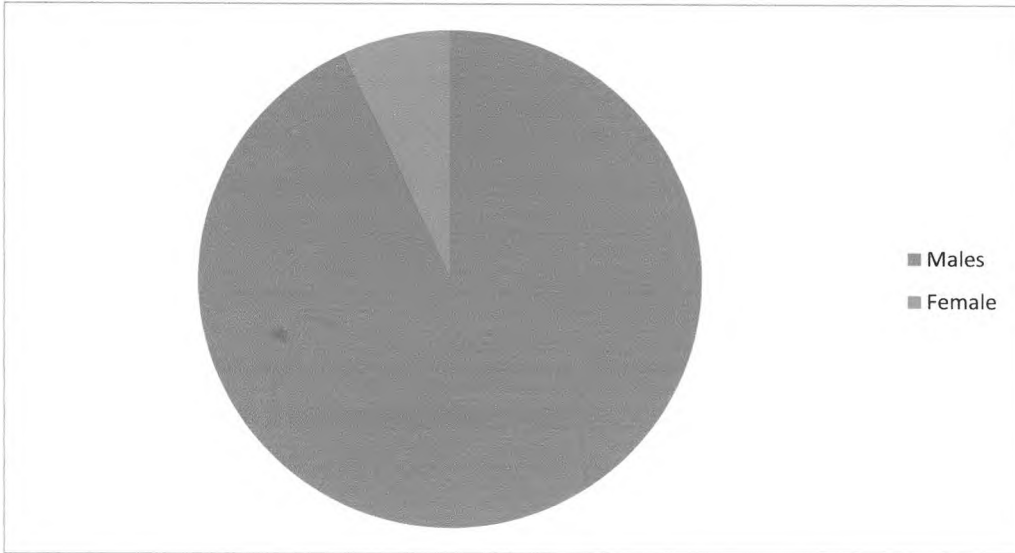


Figure 4.1: Gender Representation in TFG Parliament

4.3.2 Gender Representation in the Cabinet

As shown in figure 4.2 below, the full Cabinet of Ministers of the Central administration of the Transitional Federal Government of Somalia at present, has male representation of 94%, thus leaving only 6% of the positions for females. The number of Ministers who are male is 17, while only one is a female, making a total of 18 full cabinets Minister. The single Government Ministry given to women is seen as a mere gesture of rubber-stamping a promise, without giving due consideration to the Ministry of Women's Development and Family Care that carries much greater weight than any other ministry. The Ministry's role involves looking after the development of mothers who are the educators of the people of the nation. The Ministry is also responsible for taking care of the welfare of families, which are the roots of the nation. Taking this role lightly means neglecting the whole nation.

Even though, the Cabinet Minister has been changed seven times, just like other Cabinet Ministers, what is lacking is achieving progress of its established objectives. The findings indicate that there is no strategy to guide the programme of any development of the Ministry. Formulation of policy and implementation of programmes are usually done by technical managerial staff.. Therefore change of cabinet ministers should not have had an impact on the progress of development activities. The cabinet ministers have been changed seven times

within the duration of six years, which means no minister has completed one year in the cabinet. This has had a negative effect on the performances of the Ministries in general.

The findings show that throughout the period of the existence of the Ministry of women development and family care, no strategy to develop women and families have been put in place. For example, this is mainly because it is another weakness which was realized during the study. It is apparent that the Ministry was formed purely for women only. In the Ministry, both Minister and Assistant Minister who are appointed have to be women according to the current practice. The majority of the employed staff is also women.

To overcome this present gender discrimination, it is needed that both men and women work together, in order to achieve gender mainstreaming. For instance, when a woman is appointed to the position of a Minister, it is preferable that the Assistant Minister becomes a man who is open-minded about the importance of gender issues in sustainable development of the country. It has also been noticed that there was an inconsistency of the name of the Ministry, because at times, it is called the Minister of gender development and Family Affairs, while the same Ministry other times is called the Ministry of Women Development and Family care. This inconsistency has created confusion for policy formulation in the Ministry, yet gender sensitive policies are required for rapid development which is lacking at the present time. In many other countries, women's governmental representation has increased significantly.

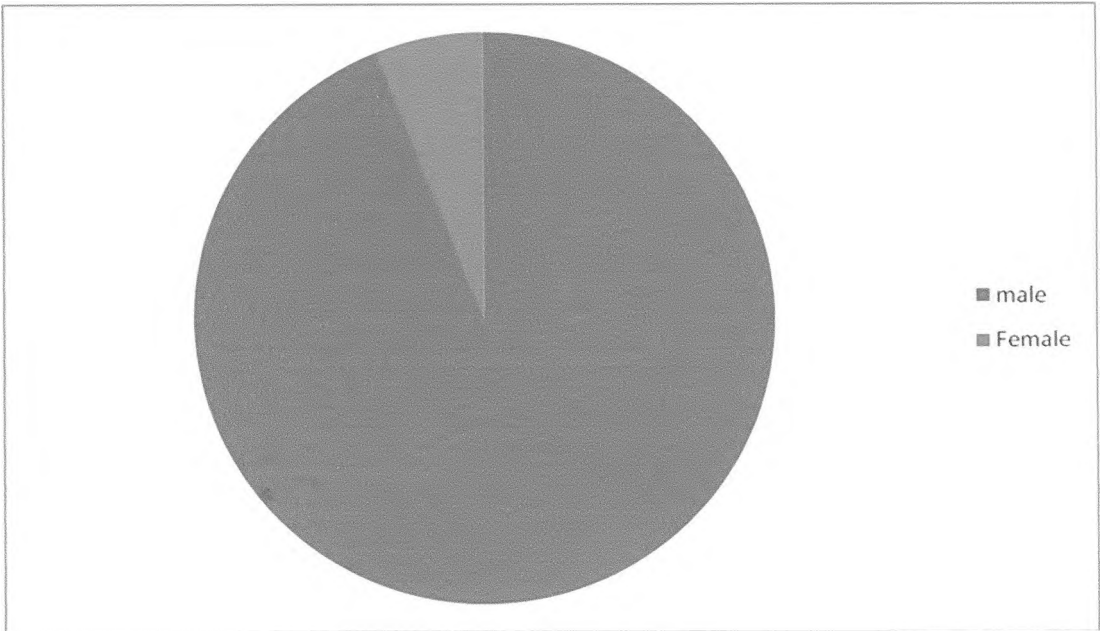


Figure 4.2: Gender Representation in the Cabinet

4.3.3 Ministers of State without Portfolio

Gender representation among the Ministers of State without portfolio in the Central Administration of the TFG shows male representation as 100% while female representation is 0%. There are 9 state ministers in total, and all of them are men.

4.3.4 Assistant Ministers

The Assistant Ministers are 18 in numbers, 17 are male and 1 is a female. Therefore as illustrated in figure 4.3 below, Gender representation among Assistant Ministers of the Central Administration of the TFG is 80% male 20% female.

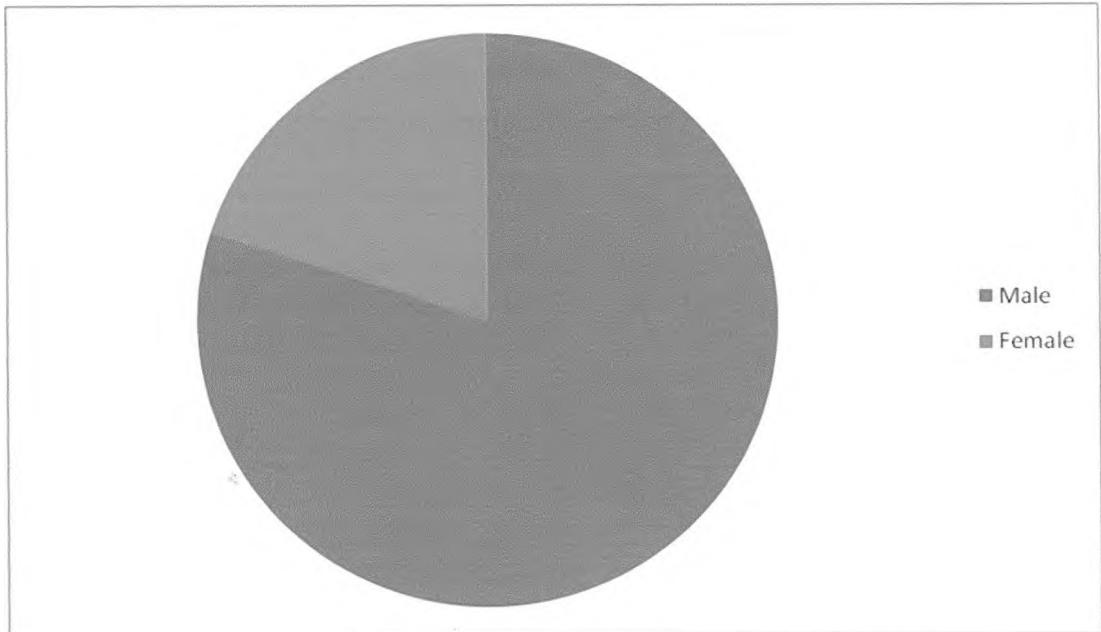


Figure 4.3: Assistant Ministers of the Central Administration

4.3.5 Gender Representation in the Civil Service

Generally, in all public offices, males are dominating compared to females whose share is very small. At almost all levels of employment there are significant gender differentials in favour of men. However, for positions held by subordinate staff, women are a bit highly considered since they involve providing basic services which are regarded as the role of women. This is depicted in table 4.4 below

Table 4. 4 : Gender Representation in the Civil Service

Position	Male	Female	Total
Senior Management	49	3	52
Middle level Management	98	10	108
Junior Management	149	15	164
Support Staff	15	166	181
Total	311	194	505

The data displayed in Table 4.4 are further illustrated in Figure 4.4 below, which points to extreme gender imbalance in the public sector. The gap between men and women in the senior and the middle managements levels is enormously large, which put women at a disadvantage.

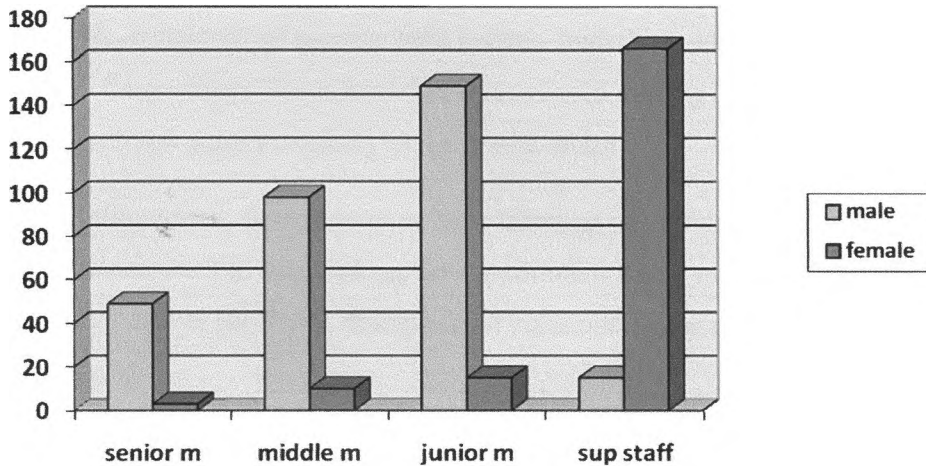


Figure 4.4: Gender Representation at different levels in the Public Sector

4.3.6 Trends and Causes of Gender Imbalance in Public Sector

Findings of the study indicated that due to the patriarchal system and the strong cultural practices, as well as war protracted militarism, women in Somalia have been marginalized and discriminated against. Most of them did not have access to basic social services such as education, health, employment, livelihoods, security and state safeguarding. Women in Somalia live in abject poverty. Women themselves in Somalia are diverse in terms of education, socio-economic class, age, clan and geographical location.

According to the observation findings, women are hardly seen in the public sector because they were not given chance for equal opportunity to men in the formal employment sector. The major barrier of women’s participation in the public sector is mostly cultural and patriarchal factors.

In general, the situation of women in Somalia has deteriorated in the recent years; in particular, it has worsened with respect to the conditions of unemployment and economic status, in both rural and purported marginal urban sectors. In the country, the actual number of female illiterates is increasing. Furthermore, the finding disclosed that women issues have

not integrated into national development plans and programmes. War, conflict and the political strife have made Somali women the most vulnerable categories and have led to all forms of violence on them. In a society like Somalia, where women are not permitted by men to take part in socio-economic and political deliberations at national and community levels, it can be difficult to gain access to the voice of the silent half of the community. During the war and political strife, a majority of women were patient, something which barred their ambitions to ask for positions. Their intention was to avoid making it difficult for the peace process. This promoted gender disparity in the public sector.

Nevertheless, at the present, Somali women have taken up traditionally male dominated roles by being breadwinners while undertaking their traditional roles, nurse the injured, the aged ones, and provided care to survivors, making them vulnerable to post war trauma.

According to the research findings, whenever the political institutions and other government branches were allocating positions, women were not considered for their tireless efforts of keeping families alive during the war period. During this period, men failed to provide their supposedly requirements for the families. The political system of clan sharing is in accordance with the customary law of Somalia, where men have supremacy over women and women are marginalized. Since the country was in anarchy for a long time, the government and the people belief that women's position cannot be given consideration at this time. The men have destabilized the country and in order to get peace and stability, they must be given positions to be onboard to cooperate with the government.

In the first TFG Administration of 2004, even though positions were distributed on clan basis, priority for rewards was given to those men who took an active role in the conflict of power strife in the country during the civil war. In the second government administration of 2009 established in Djibouti, positions were given with preference for Islamic leadership. The majority of the people joining the government were called from the Diaspora. The new group has different doctrines of reservations for women's participation in the public sector because of their beliefs and practices of syncretism of religion, traditions and politics, which is an extension of patriarchal norms.

All different administrations of the central government, right from the one formed in Djibouti in 2000 as Transitional National Government (TNG), the one established in 2004 in Kenya,

known as Transitional Federal Government (TFG), and the most recent TFG which was re-established in Djibouti with a new leadership, have never had any employment policies in the public institutions, and in particular regarding strategy on gender equity. In the present government administration, the study has confirmed that there isn't any plan to consider the review of structures and policies for gender balance.

It was found that in some cases women were not in the forefront recently in the public sector service because of brain –drain. Some educated women migrated to other countries, while others who remained behind had to choose between family obligations and government employment since their families, especially children, were relocated in the capital's peripheries for safety reasons.

4.4 Factors Influencing Gender Representation in the Public Sector

Research findings show that gender representation in the public sector was influenced by various factors. Key among them is access to education, cultural and patriarchy factors, syncretism of religion and traditions, and government policy combined.

Educational levels tend to influence gender representation in public sector in Somalia.

Education empowers people for political and economic opportunities. The research findings have revealed that women in Somalia are less educated than men. Thus, the population of illiterate women is much greater than that of men. This leaves women disadvantaged when it comes to employment, especially in the public sector. In Somalia, a boy child is given priority over girl-child when it comes to schooling, particularly due to economic hardships. Some of the Somali women are also lacking the recognition for the value of education.

Presumption and discrimination are significant cultural factors which affect people's access to the public sector positions in favour of men. In Somalia, patriarchy limits opportunities for women, especially in the political domain. This system does not encourage women to exceed the socially established norms of gender roles. It results in keeping women subordinate to men. Beliefs in Patriarchal system are a major obstacle for women towards political offices and other public sector positions.

Socialization and stereotypes are also barriers to gender balance in the public sector.

Syncretism of religion, politics and traditions are the retrogressive events which surfaced recently in Somalia. In the past, there was separation of religion, traditions and politics. But today, religion and traditions are synchronized in politics and this puts women at a

disadvantaged position. Putting together traditions and religious beliefs gives strong support for subordination of women to men. This leaves women disempowered to participate in the much needed sustainable development of the country.

4.5 Challenges Facing Gender Balance in the Public Sector

Gender balance in the public sector is faced with various challenges. In Table 4.5 below statements are outlined to indicate the possible challenges and causes of gender imbalance in the public sector in Somalia.

Table 4. 5: Challenges faced by Gender Representation in the Public Sector

Statement	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
The government supports equal gender representation in the public sector	2	13	12	80	0	0	1	7
Policies or Affirmative Action are applied to adjust gender disparities in the public sector	2	13	0	0	0	0	13	87
All government officials are committed to supporting planning and strategies of both men and women equal participation in development processes	2	13	13	87	0	0	0	0
To attain sustainable development goals, gender equal participation is required in the Public Sector	2	13	13	87	0	0	0	0
More government policies are needed to support gender equitable representation in public sector	2	13	12	80	0	0	1	7
To overcome gender disparity, it is necessary to empower women both socially and economically	15	100	0	0	0	0	0	0

There are positions of authority for women which included no specific mandate to address issues. Important to women; in this sense they are no different from their male peers when it comes to women's cause.

Women to be considered in high positions have to have the willingness and right capacity for the nature of jobs appointed for. But unfortunately the government does not use appropriate criteria for the allocation of positions to women.

According to personal opinions of the respondents, there is government support for equal gender representation in public sector. As high as 93% of total number of respondents suggested that there is government support in principle for gender balance in public sector employment. The argument is that female employees are more trustworthy, accountable and more reliable at work than their male counterparts. However, the reality is that men are given priority with the belief that public sector positions are created for men only, even though it is not officially documented, but it exists in silence.

The respondents were alarmed of the affirmative action and quota system that could be used to correct the gender imbalance in the public sector positions. In Somalia, a gender policy has never been formulated, except for the parliament. The respondents insisted that there was no need for policies to adjust gender imbalance in the public sector, since it was believed that women have enough responsibilities at home, by sticking to their cultural and social roles. Therefore, it is argued that it is not necessary to involve women in office work.

Respondents contend that there were no rights denied, since both the constitution and the TFG Charter state equal rights for both men and women. Although in reality, some of them admitted the existence of gender imbalance, it is not seen as injustice for women. To put in practice gender equality in the public sector, some of the respondents see it as a foreign idea which is imported to corrupt the Somali society. Some of them consider that if gender equality is put in practice, it will signify the coming of the end of the world as the culture radically changes. Other respondents, who are realistic, find it a threat to give equal opportunities to both women and men. The phobia of men is based on the number of women and the capacity of them to "win the race" if they are given the opportunities. Men are convinced back in their mind that women have determination to do well in their work because they are trained from early childhood. Women have more patience and resistance to bear difficulties than men.

There is no follow up for the implementation of the affirmative action or women representation in the public affairs as indicated in the Charter of the TFG of 2004. There is no parameter to measure the violation of the Charter. For instance whereas the Charter stipulates 12% for women representation as quota in the parliament, it has allocated to women almost half (7%) of their entitlements. This has happened for three reasons: One is that women in the parliament have no voice to advocate for their violated rights because their main ambition is merely being in the parliament technically. The second is that there are no women organizations or associations advocating for the interest of women in the public affairs. Lastly, there is no established institutional mechanism to advance women's general interest or empowerment in order to reach gender balance in all aspects of development in the country. Thus there is lack of a clear gender policy framework which could outline the country's vision for gender mainstreaming.

In order to obtain sustainable development goals in the country, the respondents are convinced that it is paramount for both genders to support each other. However, the participation of women in the public sector is not deemed necessary in the formal perspective. Whenever and wherever, it is necessary, women should be participating informally without any statutes. This means status quo of retrogressive culture and women's underdevelopment to keep them subordinate to men.

There are cultural barriers and societal perceptions regarding the traditional division of labour, including issues like restrictions on women's empowerment that affect their access to information and resources. There exists entrenched patriarchal mindset that defines women's rightful place only in the home and not in politics and decision-making positions. Politics is considered as a male domain in the public view. There is a lack of a societal acceptance of women's political role. Women lack awareness of political issues since they are not socialized with political ambitious environment as men due to their social roles as mothers and care takers of the family.

One of the barriers is the existence of inadequate empowerment for women, both in terms of knowledge and skills, as well as resources. Many women in Somalia have never had enough access to education, which is required for equal opportunities in the political sphere.

Many Somali women inside Somalia have lost opportunities for education because they became bread winners of the families during the last 20 years. It became impossible for them to double as breadwinners in the informal employment and school goes at the same time.

Almost all of Somali women in the Diaspora have dedicated their time and resource mobilization to sponsor families in Somalia and in refugee camps located in different countries. Few of them have been dedicated to education, and have secured jobs. However, they are not free to look for political positions since they also assume the responsibility of remitting a portion of their monthly earnings to the families left behind and of their own. In the same circumstances; some men have not taken the responsibility of regular remittance of financial support back home. Therefore, the men have free hands for political positions and public services. It is becoming difficult to improve women's status socially due to the extremely conservative cultural beliefs and practices, which is proof of backward steps and deterioration of development in the country.

4.6 Proposed Strategies and Approaches to Improve Gender Balance

In order to improve gender balance in the public sector, it is essential to formulate equitable gender policy and strategy to correct the historical gender injustice. Table 4.6 below shows the outcome of the respondents' opinions.

Table 4.6: Strategies to Improve Gender Balance

Strategy	Agree		Disagree	
	No.	%	No.	%
Formulation of policies to guide gender representation in the public sector or an employment policy with a quota system of 30% of women inclusion.	2	13	13	87
Civic Education for good governance and democracy	13	87	2	13
Women Empowerment at all levels	13	87	2	13
Capacity Building for human resource effectiveness	15	100	0	0
Gender Mainstreaming in development activities	13	87	2	13
To implement the quota of the affirmative action for the adjustment of gender imbalance	2	13	13	87
Increase the quota in legislation and inclusion of policies in the parties system when election time comes.	2	13	13	87

The majority of the respondents were satisfied with the existing gender imbalance in the public sector. They do not think that it was an act of discrimination against women, since their perception was that women's place is not after all in the public sector for employment. The respondents agreed that women need to participate in economic development by way of earning income for the family through the informal work force. The provision of quota percentage for women was seen as threat to men's chances in the public sector. Most respondents presume that the formal work was not enough for both men and women.

Considering the perception of the majority of respondents and the presented gender imbalance in the public sector, government is required to formulate policies strategizing guarantee of equal access to opportunities for both women and men. It is also essential that the government creates Equal Opportunity Units in all Ministries to monitor the gender dimension in the national machineries. This will be implemented by all Ministries. Nevertheless monitoring and evaluation should be provided by the Ministry of Women Development and Family Care.

The respondents supported civic education and good governance for the purpose of achieving democracy in the society. For that reason, Government strategies should include civic education for the people; sensitization of local political leadership; mobilization and support for women. In many cases, there was contradiction of some supporting women and other times opposing them.

Since empowerment of both men and women is essential for progress of the country, the answers of the respondents supported gender empowerment through education, resource mobilization and full participation of the country's development.

In order to prepare women for the election process, line agencies and political parties need capacity building. Women also need training on the importance of political participation. It may involve obtaining support of the local leadership for enhancing women's political participation. NGOs should also create awareness for women advancement in all spheres of life. There is need for Capacity building for local NGOs, CBOs, including faith organizations to support women's cause.

The findings of the study indicate that there are mixed opinions about the women quota percentage. Some of them propose 50%, while others prefer 30% for women quota in the public sector positions.

As a strategy, the government could support inclusion of affirmative action in the constitution, as women quota between 30% and 50% for both three branches of government, namely: legislation, Judiciary and Executive. This will adjust the existing gender imbalance in the public sector.

Clauses that are against negative and regressive cultures and patriarchal severity that undermine women's active participation in the development of the country should be entrenched in the constitution of the country. In the Constitution there should be provision for

protection of women during the election period in order to prevent the possible obstacles that could hinder women's participation in the process.

Other possible strategies for reducing gender imbalance in the public sector include ensuring that the government signs and implements the international conventions and the regional protocol related to human rights in general. Particular attention should be given to those conventions that relate to human rights of women. The government needs to have a clear cut policy on gender balance in public sector positions. This will promote by achieving a fair share of both gender in decision-making positions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter a summary of the main findings of the study are provided. Conclusions are then drawn from the results of the study with the reflections from the research objectives. Some recommendations are also made on the basis conclusions arrived at.

5.2 Summary

The study set out to investigate gender representation in the public sector in Somalia at the Ministries and Institutions of the Central Government. It has been revealed that there is gender imbalance as well as lack of policy formulation in regard to gender mainstreaming in the public sector.

The main objective of the study was to find out the position of gender representation in the public sector in Somalia. Specifically it was to determine the status of gender representation in the public sector in Somalia. Another objective of the study was to identify the factors that influence gender representation in the public sector in Somalia. The research also intended to find suggestions for strategies which could help to reduce gender imbalance in the public sector in Somalia.

5.2.1 Gender Representation in the Public Sector

From the findings, it emerged that there is an acute gender imbalance in the public sector in Somalia. Women are underrepresented to a large extent in the Government Ministries and public institutions in general. The government has not introduced gender -sensitive policy since its formation. The few women who are present in the Legislative and in the Executive branches have failed to advocate effectively and pressurize the government to lift the unjust gender imbalance in the public sector.

5.2.2 Factors Influencing Gender Representation in the Public Sector

The findings showed that the main causes of gender imbalance are syncretism of religion, traditions and politics, among others. All these causes are rooted in the patriarchal system, which demeans women's status in social, economic and political spheres in the society.

5.2.3 Strategies to Reduce Gender disparity in the Public Sector

Strategies proposed to reduce gender imbalance include change in government policy to recognize the role of women in development, civic education, promotion of women's education, and integrating of affirmative action in the new constitution of the country. In order to empower and enable women to participate in politics, it is necessary to extend the scope of women's involvement at the grass-roots level.

The Government and the International Community are expected to take measures to promote women's education and the required skills for the reconstruction of the country. In order to achieve gender mainstreaming in development activities, it is important to develop the capacity of local groups including men for advocating women rights.

5.3 Conclusion

The study concludes that women are left non-productive in the formal sector, thereby contributing very little to the re-construction and post-war recovery of the country of Somalia. In the country, women are not actively involved in decision-making both at community, regional and National levels. From the findings of the study, it emerges that the government of Somalia has never put in place a gender -sensitive policy since the time of its establishment. There are few women in both the Legislative and Executive branches but they have not been effective in advocating and putting pressure on the government to introduce fair policy or bill for affirmative action. Most probably, this is due to both political instability in the country and lack of professionalism on the part of women representatives.

Most women are voiceless because they do not have the capacity to make decisions or engage in policy making. The reason behind this is that women are dependent on their male counterparts who keep them on subordinate position as well as feminized poverty.

By ensuring women's equal access to resource mobilization and full participation in power structures and decision-making at all levels, this will enhance the stability of new Somalia.

The empowerment and autonomy of women and the improvement of women's social, economic and political status is essential for the achievement of both transparent and accountable governance. Women's presence is needed in public administration in order to achieve sustainable development in all areas of life. In this respect, women's advancement, and equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role for economic and sustainable development of the country.

5.4 Recommendations

Following the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- The government should support inclusion of affirmative action in the constitution, for women quota of minimum 30% both in the three branches of government, namely, Legislation, Judiciary and Executive.
- The new Constitution should contain clauses that are against negative and regressive cultures that undermine women's active participation in the development of the country.
- In the Constitution there should be provision for protection of women during the election period in order to prevent the possible obstacles that could hinder women's participation in the process of the election.
- There is a need for further research to be carried out to cover other gender issues in Somalia. A study of this nature could be replicated such that gender representation in private sector may be examined in detail.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HUMAN RESOURCE PERSONS

PART A: GENERAL INFORMATION

- 1. Name of the Ministry/Institution?.....
- 2. What is your designation?
- 3. What is your age? 20-30 (), 31-40(), 41-50 (), 51-60 (), 61-70(), above 70().
- 4. What is your academic background?
Secondary (), College (), University ()
- 5. What is your work experience? 1-2yrs(), 3-5yrs(), 6-10yrs(), over 10yrs ().

PART B: GENDER REPRESENTATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR

- 1. How many employees do you have in the Ministries/Institutions? ()
How many are: Male () Female ()

2. What criteria do you use to select people for employment?,

- 3. Do you have any Human Resource policy in place? Yes () No ()

If yes: Please explain
.....
..... If no: What do you have to guide the Ministry/Institution for recruitment and selection procedure?-----

.....4.5 system as indicated in the TFG Charter of 2004, established in Kenya.....
.....

4. Which factors are considered when identifying people to fill important positions in your Ministry/Institution? gender, professionalism and clan balance.....

- 5. What is the total number of members of parliament? ()
How many are? Male () Female ()

6. What is the total number of full Cabinet Ministers? ()
 How many are? Male () Female (1)
7. What is the total number of Ministers without Portfolio? ()
 How many are? Male () Female ()
8. What is the total number of Assistant Ministers? ()
 How many are Male () Female ()
9. What is the total number of Senior Managerial levels? ()
 How many are? Male () Female ()
10. What is the total number in Middle Managerial level? ()
 How many are? Male () Female ()
11. What is the total number in Junior Managerial level? ()
 How many are Male () Female ()
12. What is the total number of Support Staff? ()
 How many are? Male () Female ()

PART C: CHALLENGES FACED BY GENDER REPRESENTATION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

How much do you agree with the following statement?

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The government supports equal gender representation in the public sector				
Policies or Affirmative Action are applied to adjust gender disparities in public sector				

All government officials are committed to supporting planning and strategies of both men and women equal participation in development processes				
To attain sustainable development goals, gender equal participation is required in Public Sector				
More government policies are needed to support gender equitable representation in public sector				
To overcome gender disparity, it is necessary to empower women both socially and economically				

PART D: HOW TO BALANCE GENDER DISPARITIES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR REPRESENTATION

What kind of support policies and strategies are required to adjust the gender disparities in the public sector? (Use the table below to answer this question, and tick where appropriate)

	Agree	Disagree
Formulation of policies to guide gender representation in public sector or other employment policy with quota system of 30% of women inclusion.		
Civic Education for good governance and democracy		
Women Empowerment at all levels		
Capacity Building for human resource effectiveness		

Gender Mainstreaming in development activities		
To implement the quota of the affirmative action for the adjustment of gender imbalance		
Increase the quota in legislation and inclusion of policies in the parties system when election time comes.		

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SENIOR GOVERNMENT
AUTHORITIES

1. What are your positions in the Ministries/Institutions?-----
2. What is your work experience in the present position?-----
3. What is the position about gender representation in your Ministry/Institution?-----

4. What has influenced the current situation in gender representation? -----
5. In this the Ministry/Institution what do you feel about gender representation in
employment? -----
6. Is there any employment policy in this Institution/Ministry regarding gender
representation? -----
7. What plans are there to review the current structures and policies for gender balance
purposes? -----
8. What is the government policy on equal opportunities for employment in the public
service? -----
9. How is gender representation catered for in the current employment policy of the country?-----

10. What are the criteria used to select people to be employed in the Ministry/Institution?
11. What plans and policies have been formulated for the recruitment of public service
employees other than the clan sharing formula for the political selection in the Charter?-----

12. What do you consider to be the implication of the clan sharing formula on gender
representation in the public sector in Somalia?-----

APPENDIX III: OBSERVATION CHECK LIST

- 1. Number of female staff in the offices -----

- 2. The positions held by women in the public sector: -----

- 3. Behaviour and perceptions of women at work places -----

- 4. Office Allocation for female employees in the public sector -----

- 5. Relations between male and female employees at the work places in the public sector -----

