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## **ВЫПУСКНАЯ КВАЛИФИКАЦИОННАЯ РАБОТА**

Исследование роли женщин как человеческого ресурса в компаниях Сомали

The study of the role of women as human resource in the Somalia's companies

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**УТВЕРЖДАЮ**

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**ЗАДАНИЕ**

на выполнение выпускной квалификационной работы

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## **Abstract**

The main Purpose of this researches the study using women as human resource in the company Somalia. To establish the woman Equal opportunities and human resources management in Somalia case. The population of this study will be the women Employee companies in Somalia; the research will target 10 to women Employee companies' product. This number of women will be an adequate representative for testing purpose. To determine the woman discrimination and human resources in Somalia case. To identify the role of Women human resources in organization success in Somalia There are many research methodologies to collect data in my research paper; Despite the shortage of concrete research and studies previous done both literature review and primary data through data collection and interview with women it involves in companies will be the methodology of this study to achieve its intended objectives. The primary data collection will assisted in providing facts and figures for comparison and analysis while, the literature review providing an in depth background information on existing records I will use questionnaire and interview to obtain empirical data which explicitly represent my lovely, beloved of women business owners of Somalia in order to attain their views about Somalia women as Human resource company.

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## INTRODUCTION

In many countries, women are participating in areas of public where they were not previously visible. Women are slowly but increasingly occupying senior positions in the public and private sectors, including the judiciary, the Academia and the media. There was less evidence in the discussion of women in leadership roles in trade unions, professional associations and non-traditional areas. Men are still overwhelmingly the decision makers as senior executives and board members of corporations. Public sector officials, judges, lawmakers, media executives, negotiators, in trade unions and leaders in civil society organizations may not have women's issues as their primary concern.(Women Watch, 2007) It is explained that the sustainability of the economy of a country depends on the extent of the integration of women in public decision-making, and the inclusion of their needs and interests in policy which ultimately helps to ensure good governance. In Ethiopia, as women are more than fifty percent of the population, it is very important to utilize this part of population so that the talent of whole population is optimally utilized. Internationally, women's right to participate in decision-making processes at local, national and international levels were recognized by the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women and the issue of gender equality was also focused by the Millennium Development Goals Afoz (2010. 4 More over even though the Ethiopia government's effort in concerning towards gender perspective in to economic empowerment programs show a relative improvement, it is still insignificant. Additionally, in Ethiopia women's participation in labor market increasing as compared to the last decades, but as compared to male counterpart their participation in decision making is low(Chalchissa, 2011; Federal Civil Service Agency, 2006/7). Arba Minch University, one of the first generation

universities in Ethiopia, has a total of 4714 employee including both academic and administrative staffs of 1324 and 3418, respectively. There are also 114 expatriate staffs of different nationalities such as, Indians, Filipinos, German, and British. However, in both administrative and academic management position women's are underrepresented. Currently, there are,1 president,4 vice president,6 college deans, 5 vice deans,16 director,42 department head,19 coordinators position in academic wing and 14 director,19 team leader, 20 compass coordinator in administrative wing in the university. However the representation of women in every position both in academic and administrative wing are as follows: from 5 presidential position 1 women vice president, 1 director, 1 dean, 2 vice dean, 5 department head , 5 women coordinators are in academic wing and 5 team leader , 3 women coordinator are in administrative managerial position. Thus, it requires determining the factor which hindered women from raising their participation to all levels of managerial position. However, the government policy towards leadership participation of women has been given more emphasis, but still the participation of women in managerial positions is insignificant which need to be addressed.

Despite the growing feminization of the global labour market, discrimination against women in the workplace remains entrenched. Such discrimination of women is largely attributed to human resource management (HRM) policies and practices, which are inherently masculine, designed by men for men (Ansari et al. 2016; International Labor Organisation (ILO) 2016; Stamarski& Song Hing 2015). Often such masculine HRM policies and practices are a source of great psychological and physical distress, mental and physical ill-health, job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and high turn-over rates amongst female employees (Borrel et al. 2010; Schmader, Johns & Forbes 2008). Although there has been a paradigm shift in societal roles where work is no longer genderised, a significant proportion of women professionals are opting out of their

jobs because of the persistent gender inequality in labour markets (ILO 2016). In this regard, Lagarde and Ostry (2020) observed that despite some progress in the feminisation of the workplace, the participation rates of women remain low. As working women contribute significantly to household, national and global economic development, failure to develop women-friendly work practices such as fair remuneration practices will ultimately reverse all the accumulated gains resulting from increased women participation in the workplace (Stamarski& Song Hing 2015).

Chepkemei et al. (2013) argues that including women in the formal labour market is inevitable in today's world as they are an invaluable organisational resource upon which a firm's competitiveness and sustainable growth can be built. In support, Loichinger and Cheng (2018) opines that women are a necessity in the workplace, especially in countries where there is a persistent problem of labour shrinkage because of the ageing population. To this end, this study contends that it is important to have a nuanced understanding of the drivers of the professional female employees' commitment in the workplace to allow firms to effectively retain their much-needed diverse skills. and job satisfaction. Having investigated the relationship between supervisory support (SS) and career satisfaction in an earlier study, Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) concluded that SS, which entails providing challenging assignments and psychosocial functions such as counselling, friendship and acceptance, is crucial for the individual's career development. Good supervisory feedback and constructive communication between an employee and the supervisor enhance the opportunity to develop employee's capabilities (Van der Heijden et al. 2010).

### ***Purpose of the Study***

The main Purpose of this research is the study using women as human resource in the company Somalia.



### ***Research objective***

1. To establish the woman Equal opportunities and human resources management in Somalia case.
2. To determine the woman discrimination and human resources in Somalia case.
3. To identify the role of Women human resources in organization success in Somalia

### ***Research questions***

1. What is the woman discrimination and human resources in Somalia?
2. Is there any the woman discrimination and human resources Somalia?
3. What is the role of Women human resources in organization success in Somalia?

### ***Goals of research***

The main Goals of the present review study is to systematically and chronologically summarize, analyze and synthesize an extant body of literature pertaining to the discrimination in the following HRM Practices viz compensation, career advancement, performance appraisal, training and task assignment so as to have a clear and deeper understanding of the extent of discrimination experienced by female employees in connection with above mentioned HRM Practices. where they are currently occupying top management HR director positions in several African countries such as Somalia.

### ***Tasks of research***

The overall purpose of human resources (HR) is to ensure that the organization is able to achieve success through people. HR professionals manage the human capital of an organization and focus on implementing policies and processes. They can specialize in finding, recruiting, selecting, training, and developing employees, as well as maintaining employee relations or benefits.

Training and development professionals ensure that employees are trained and have continuous development.

### ***Research methods***

The proposed methodology for this research project is a survey design tool, stated that survey design is helpful in facilitating the study of full-size population and geographically spread samples. In addition, the proposed methodology is an appreciate methodology for this research project so this research is designed critically to describe study role of public workers on community awareness in Mogadishu Somalia. Burns and Grove (2003:195) define a research design as —a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. Parahoo (1997:142) describes a research design as —a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analyzed. The type of research design that employed in this study is co-relational research design. In general, correlation research examines co-variation between two or more variables. It can be accomplished by a variety of data which include the collection of empirical data. Often times, co- relational research is considered type of observational research as nothing is manipulated by the experimenter or the individual conducting research.

# **1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH**

## **1.1 Theoretical base of research**

Women are implicated in the last two of the three categories of ‘special need employees’ who stand to gain a lot from continuing training and development, in that they tend to be worse hit than men by technical changes such as advances in computer technology (International Labour Organisation- ILO, 1998b; 1998c); and also because of their simultaneous over-representation in low-skilled jobs and under-representation in management (Berry, 1998). The concept of ‘glass ceiling’ describes women’s inability to progress to management positions because of invisible barriers erected by male-dominated management; while tokenism describes the limited presence of women in a particular job position or work environment (Sharma, 1997; Lindsey et al., 2000). In the Somalia context, women constitute less than 5% of managers (Osundahunsi, 1991). An analysis of 192 companies profiled in ‘The Somalia Stock Exchange (NSE) Fact Book’ (2003), revealed that only 7 or about 5% had a female chief executive officer (The NSE Fact Book, 2003). Besides their low proportion, Somalia female managers are concentrated in small-scale enterprises; no blue-chip company is headed by a female CEO (Forrest, 1994). In the public sector, however, up to 9% of women workers are on Grade levels 15 to 17 (Amali, 1991), suggesting that women are more likely to be in management positions in the public rather than the private sector (Akerele, 1978). Regrettably, women’s token presence in management means their virtual non-involvement in policy formulation, including policies that should have enhanced their participation (Jemerigbe, 1992), a kind of catch-22 situation.

This research makes a number of strategic and theoretical contributions in relation to career management theory and practices that seek to address barriers and enablers for the progression of women in HR middle management into more senior positions. Recent CIPD (2017a) career advice for HR professionals looking to advance their careers into HR leadership roles only makes fleeting reference to gender issues and ignores ethnicity and class, as potentially significant in shaping the experiences and opportunities afforded to women in the profession (see CIPD publication 2017 'How to become a HR leader). This is despite their own research (CIPD, 2013),

this is evident from mainstream career management advice for women in the HR profession that encourages women to adopt gendered masculine norms of organizational behavior such as, 'being less nice and more strategic' and having a male mentor if they want to progress (see Thompson, 2004). A contribution of this research is to highlight professional and career management solutions that are not based on a deficit model of women, whereby they need to act more like men, in order to be promoted into senior positions. It has also been identified how there has been only a limited application of intersectional modes of inquiry to the large body of career literature and theory (Ryan, 2012).

This research supports the development of career management literature that exposes the role that power, knowledge and discourses play, as individuals navigate their career management. Privilege can then be understood from beyond binary categories of advantage and disadvantage. In this respect, through recognizing that privilege and disadvantage can be experienced simultaneously, an intersectional analysis avoids the positioning of marginalized groups as 'other' and needing to be 'fixed', as per much mainstream career and diversity literature and practice (Holvino, 2010)

Discourse analysis has become an established method in management and organization studies but has been less prominent in HRM. Mahaddevan and Kilian-Yasin (2016) in calling for more studies that apply discourse analysis, identify that there is a relatively small number of related studies that examine different dominant discourses within the HR profession and how they structure collective reality amongst HR professionals. These include the commercial HR discourse (Francis and Keegan 2006, 2010), the role of unitarist diversity management discourses (Zanoni and Janssens, 2004, Zanoni et al., 2010)

This research seeks to contribute to these debates by applying an intersectional analysis that seeks to understand how professional discourses create privilege, resistance, salience and inequality in the career management experiences of middle managers in the HR profession. As such this research contributes to this growing body of discourse analysis within the HR profession and given the emphasis of reflexivity in the poststructuralist feminism supports call for more constructive reflexivity to challenge dominant discourses and provide greater space for pluralism in professional discourses (Mahaddevan and Kilian-Yasin, 2016)

The ultimate goal of intersectional research is to challenge inequality and engender change but mainstreaming intersectionality into organisational and occupational policy and practice is not without its challenges (Rodriguez et al, 2016). Despite the growing empirical evidence base from organisational and professional intersectional studies, which highlights the limitations of diversity strategies based on single social categories, the extent to which intersectionality appears in practitioner diversity management literature and practice across the globe is still limited (McBride et al, 2015). Intersectional research also reveals the potential causes of this, as it has shown how diversity policy and HR practice is subject to the power processes and structures it is designed to disrupt (Healy et al, 2011). This research, through exposing the role of hegemonic professional

discourses in influencing career management experiences, presents the opportunity for the HR profession to contribute to a non-essentialist reconceptualization of career management and wider professional discourses that acknowledges power (Zanoni and Janssen, 2007)

Women entered the HR profession in large numbers again in the 2009s when the emergence of a complex web of federal employment legislation dramatically increased the demand for HR staff (Simpson & Lenoir, 2003). This rapid increase in demand apparently outstripped the supply of available men and opened up new opportunities for women (Reskin & Roos, 2019; Simpson & Lenoir, 2003). The increase in clerical work associated with legal compliance also may have contributed to the increase in women incumbents during this time, since men may have been perceived as a misfit for this type of work.<sup>1</sup> certainly the contemporary feminization trend within personnel work (Legge, 1987; Simpson & Lenoir, 2003)

Women's participation in the paid workforce is one of the most significant social changes of the last century. Women have made noteworthy advances in management, which used to be a largely male preserve (Powell, 1999, Helfat et al, 2006). Even so, women have not made inroads into the higher levels of corporate power (Davidson & Burke, 2000; McGregor, 2002; Vinnicombe, 2000). Studies in various countries such as Norway (Hoel, 2002), the US (Catalyst 2000, 2003, 2004), Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Burke & Mattis, 2000) and the UK (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2003) monitor the presence of women in executive positions and reveal that the lack of women at the top of large companies is a global phenomenon. Surveys indicate that gender is still a common barrier to women's career advancement in many international contexts. It seems that their progression to the senior executive level is blocked by an invisible barrier - the so-called "glass ceiling" (Powell & Butterfield, 2019)

In global scenario, the employment of women in organized sectors of economy, as one of the main factors of women's empowerment, was crystallized in the world conferences of the 1990s, especially in the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action. Globally, 7 to 23 percent of women are employed in industry compared to 12 to 34 percent of men in employment in all regions (Desai, 2010/14). Gender equity in employment is maintained by a very few companies in the world (WEF, 2010). In Fortune 500 companies, women comprise only about 10 percent of senior management positions (Chadha, 2002). They are mostly employed at lower and middle level (UNIFEM, 2010). However, the services industry of the developed world employs over 80 per cent of women and 60 percent of men. In Latin America, about 80 percent of women are in the services industry compared to 45 percent of men in similar industry. About 60 percent of both men and women are employed in the service industry in North Africa and the Middle East (UNDP, 2010).

In the past decades many countries have faced challenges of globalization, development of information technology and dynamic business environment. These changes together with the global financial and social crisis have brought about a change of demographical structure in the work force, raising the issue of engaging the human capital, especially women, in the social and economical development. The strength of successful and sustainable organisations is based on human capital and participation of all, women and men. Diversity management concept was the main topic of a publication titled "Work Force 2000: Work and Workers for the Twenty-First Century", indicating that organisations willing to maintain their competitiveness should change their policies and procedures in human resources management (HRM) in relation to demographically diverse work force (Johnston 2008).

Training and human resources development are important segments of HRM as they can include historically excluded social groups and especially women in different training and development programs. One of the programs is leaderships skills training as an important step in career development of employees with leadership potential, leading further to development of top management based on diversity principles (Fine, 1995; Konrad and Linnehan, 1995). In addition, leadership skills training program developed specifically for women can help them develop their leadership abilities and skills, leading to leadership positions in organisations (Vinnicombe and Singh, 2013).

Southern African economies are highly dependent on agriculture. The agriculture sector is a major contributor to GDP. In Malawi and Mozambique, agriculture accounts for approximately 35 per cent of GDP, but less than 10 per cent in mineral-rich countries, such as Botswana and South Africa (see annex 1). Women play a crucial role in agriculture, providing 80 to 90 percent of the labour in subsistence production and over 70 percent in cash crop production. In this scenario therefore, discrimination related to women land ownership must be addressed because it has great bearing on food security and the contribution of agriculture to the economy. Equal rights to land for women and men are an essential and inherent component of progress on overall human rights and democratic development.

Rights to use and control land is central to the lives of rural women in countries where the main sources of income and livelihood are derived from these natural resources. The lack of land rights by women and girls indicates that they are victims of discrimination since land is considered the most fundamental resource to women's living conditions, economic empowerment and, to some extent, their struggle for equity and equality within a patriarchal society. Without rights to land, women's economic and physical security is compromised. They are



deprived with a reliable source of food and are further curtailed access to other inputs, especially credit, necessary for carrying out productive activities. In Southern Africa, women make up more than 60% of small farmers, and provide more than 70% of the workforce in agricultural production. Women's access to land therefore determines not only women's and households' level of living and livelihood, but also food security (ILO, 1996). The problem of lack of access to land is particularly critical for the increasing number of female heads of rural households, which is now evident in Southern Africa (Drimie, 2002).

In the process of career development organisations should ensure that all employees, from all social groups, are included in the career development process (Fine, 2014; Ko). In addition, managers in the organisation can organise individual meetings with employees to develop individual career development plans (Davidson Perlmutter et al., 2015).

Proper training and career development have a very positive effect on women career development, as confirmed by numerous researches. Research in a large multinational company specialized in financial services point that personal growth possibilities represent an important condition in career development of women and men (Lyness and Judiesch, 1999). Training and personal growth possibilities are directly related to advancement of women to management positions (Metz and Tharenou, 2012)

Based on numerous research we can safely say that 2/3 of women in the world, and possibly more, take care of family members and perform household jobs (Geist, 2005; Lee and Waite, 2005; Li, 2005) making work – private life balance very important to professional development of women. Forming a family has a strong influence on women career development, with varying effect in different societies. In USA marriage does not influence the number of women employed but the arrival of children does influence the number of hours women

are paid for (Cohen and Bianchi, 1999), while in China, marriage and children have little influence on the composition of woman in the work force (Yi and Chien, 2002)

The fact, that the proportion of women decreases at progressively higher levels of managerial hierarchies (Parker & Fagenson, 1994), suggested that the discussion regarding social roles and gender equality is still far from settled, which seems to be supported by the considerable amount of attention the matter is given by parties of the trades and industries. Therefore, trying to rectify this gender based imbalance between genders, governments and companies as well as NGOs have been trying to equalize the opportunities for men and women through a number of different initiatives. According to WB (1998), although women constitutes two third of the world's working hours, produce half of the world's food and above all, bear and rear children, women continue to suffer from all forms of discrimination and from the absence of adequate protection against violence. A large number of females have entered the labor market in the last few decades and this means that females have been and are entering traditionally male dominated domains. One might think there would be a proportionate increase of females in most occupations, but research shows that this is not the case, by contrast it shows that the increase in the overall labor force participation rate for females is not reflected in the proportionate increase of women in managerial positions (Karen Korabik, 1999). This suggests some adjustment problems for both organizations and society.

. Ethiopia is party to all major human right treaties including the most important women's conventions, such as CEDAW which calls for equal participation of women in public decision making, Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action (BDPA), which requires governments to attain a 30% benchmark for women's representation in all public decision making positions (Meaza, 2009). However, women's participation in Ethiopian higher institutions is at infant stage. However,

women have minimally participated in managerial position. The reasons for low representation of women in managerial roles as compared to males are the traditional patriarchy of Ethiopia which remains supported by religion, culture as well as gender differentials in access, participation and service provision across the educational, legal, health and economic sectors. Thus, the recent changes to the constitution and legal code were the means to resolve and do away with patriarchal attitudes plus practices and engendered some changes; there is still need for further transforming discriminatory attitude towards the female gender at work place, in the public sphere and at homes (Haregewoin and Emebet,2003). Therefore, recently in Ethiopia various policies and strategies adopted by the government to promote gender equality and protect women's rights, including the National Plan for Gender Equality (2005-2010), the Plan for Accelerated and Sustainable Development to Eradicate Poverty (2005-2010), which included "unleashing the potential of Ethiopian women" 3 among its eight strategic elements, the Development and Change Package for Ethiopian women, seeking to promote the economic and political participation of women and to eradicate harmful traditional practices, and the joint United Nations/Government of Ethiopia flagship programs on gender equality and maternal health. Moreover, the 2nd growth and transformation plan (GTP-2) of the country has also given due attention for women participation in all sectors. Arbaminch University is one of the first generation universities which have six colleges and one institute of technology. Thus, the university has total of 4714 employees both in academic and administrative wing. However, women participation in lower to higher managerial position has been insignificant. (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003).

## **1.2 Literature review**

**Methodology** The literature review method has been used for the current study in order to summarize, analyses and synthesize an extant body of literature pertaining to using women as human resource company. Further, the relevant literature available has been reviewed and expressed clearly and systematically which helps in clear understanding of the said relationship and on the basis of which various research gaps have been identified which provides the scope for future research

## **1.3 Women**

Women around the world are increasingly participating in the labour force and becoming competitive, and businesses are recognizing that gender diversity in their workforce is necessary for competitive business performance. At the national level and at the regional level in Latin America and the Caribbean, women are driving economic growth, yet very few women attain top management positions or serve as members or chairs of company boards despite evidence from a growing number of studies that gender diversity enhances the bottom line.( ILO,2018)

The ILO company survey was conducted in 2013 by the Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP). Approximately 1,300 private sector companies were surveyed in 39 developing countries across five regions in order to capture the extent to which companies have policies and practices in place to promote women in management. In Latin America and the Caribbean, employers' organizations distributed the ILO company survey to their members and facilitated 63 company responses from national and multinational companies of various sizes in Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Jamaica, Paraguay and Uruguay.4

Much of the research literature on women in business and management focuses on large and multinational companies in developed economies, while the ILO company survey included all sizes of companies, including those in developing economies. Companies responded to questions about barriers to women's advancement and practical measures they would consider implementing. The survey asked companies how employers' organizations and chambers of commerce could best support them in implementing initiatives to ensure women and men have equal opportunities in their career paths.

The development of the global report included consultation workshops in five regions, including one in Lima in November 2012. The workshop brought together representatives of national employers' organizations, business and gender experts across the region. During the workshop, representatives of employers' organizations from the Latin American and Caribbean region provided quantitative and qualitative data and information on women in business and management as inputs to the global report. (Zehnder., 2016)

The main motivation to write this paper was to explore some particularities of women's contribution to family businesses through the paradigm of possible different approaches between the two genders regarding managerial styles and ownership issues, including transition questions. The theory on women's involvement and roles in family businesses is built on a literature review. Five propositions emerge based on the theoretical background and extensive anecdotal experience of the researchers. The methodological approach is based on the focused surveying of a sample of family businesses with a certain degree of female involvement. The results are discussed through several blocks covering the managerial role of women, ownership dilemmas and different gender-based roles in family firms. The paper then offers some conclusions and implications (Prensa., 2016)

Women's lack of access to higher education had effectively excluded them from the practice of well-paid and high status occupations. Entry of women into the higher professions, like law and medicine, was delayed in most countries due to women being denied entry to universities and qualification for degrees. For example, Cambridge University only fully validated degrees for women late in 1947, and even then only after much opposition and acrimonious debate. Women were largely limited to low-paid and poor status occupations for most of the 19th and 20th centuries, or earned less pay than men for doing the same work. However, through the 20th century, the labor market shifted. Office work that does not require heavy labor expanded and women increasingly acquired the higher education that led to better-compensated, longer-term careers rather than lower-skilled, shorter-term jobs. Mothers are less likely to be employed unlike men and women without children. ("Statistical Overview of Women in Global Workplaces: Catalyst Quick Take". Catalyst. Retrieved, 2021)

As the Civil War raged in the U.S., Virginia Penny of Louisville, Kentucky, finished her research project and published the ground-breaking 1862 book, *How women can make money married or single, in all branches of the arts and sciences, professions, trades, agricultural and mechanical pursuits*. Hoping to offer hard facts about what women in the workforce would encounter, Penny had interviewed thousands of employers, using both a survey via the postal mail and in person – when she would also interview workers. Many of her site visits were in Philadelphia, New York and Boston. She distilled her research to list over 500 jobs that were open to women as well as the information about the jobs and potential availability for women. She also indicated when employers offered their reasons for wage differentials based on gender. (Gensemer, 2010)

In the twentieth century, division of labor by gender has been studied most systematically in women's studies (especially women's history, which has

frequently examined the history and biography of women's participation in particular fields) and gender studies more broadly. Occupational studies, such as the history of medicine or studies of professionalization, also examine questions of gender, and the roles of women in the history of particular fields. Women dominate as accountants, auditors, and psychologists. In addition, modern civil rights law has frequently examined gender restrictions of access to a field of occupation; gender discrimination within a field; and gender harassment in particular workplaces. This body of law is called employment discrimination law, and gender and race discrimination are the largest sub-sections within the area. Laws specifically aimed at preventing discrimination against women have been passed in many countries; see, e.g., the Pregnancy Discrimination Act in the United States. (Penny, 2016.)

Society's intrinsic value is often associated with contribution and production as a whole, thus women's inability to participate in economy further solidifies a subordinate role in society. "The fact that women have fewer opportunities in labor market may contribute to their unequal treatment in the household...Increased opportunities for women in the labor market do indeed translate into better outcomes for women...For the same increase in total household income, an increase in female income of 7 U.S. dollars per month translates into a 1 percentage point increase in the survival rate for girls. Women are treated as less than men because their role in the home does not perpetuate survival of the family directly in terms of income. A stark realization of women's economic value in the eyes of under-developed countries is sex selective abortion rights and the alarming phenomenon of "missing women. "What many societies fail to realize is that the trade-off to helping a woman instead of a man does not exist. When a woman is empowered with education and involvement in the economy everyone is better off.

Women's economic involvement will drive up Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is a foundational standard for higher living. James Wolfensohn of the

World Bank states, "Education for girls has a catalytic effect on every dimension of development: lower child and maternal mortality rates; increased educational attainment by daughters and sons; higher productivity; and improved environmental management. Together, these can mean faster economic growth and, equally important, wider distribution of the fruits of growth... More education for girls will also enable more and more women to attain leadership positions at all levels of society: from health clinics in the villages to parliaments in the capitals. This, in turn, will change the way societies will deal with problems and raise the quality of global decision-making (Duflo, 2012).

Choice of occupation is considered to be one of the key factors contributing to the male-female wage differential. In other words, careers with a majority of female employees tend to pay less than careers that employ a majority of males. This is different from direct wage discrimination within occupations, as males in the female-dominated professions will also make lower than average wages and the women in the for the wage differential to disappear. In 1960, the similarity index for the United State Women's Trade Union League (WTUL) is established to advocate for improved wages and working conditions for women. In 1920 The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor was formed to create equal rights and a safe workplace for women. In 1956 a group called Financial Women's Association (FWA), was formed. It is an organisation with special emphasis on the role and development of women, to attain greater recognition for women's achievements in business, and to encourage women to seek career opportunities in finance and business. (MacLean, 2000:)

In 1966 the National Organization for Women (NOW) was founded by a group of feminists including Betty Friedan. The largest women's rights group in the U.S., NOW seeks to end sexual discrimination, especially in the workplace, by means of legislative lobbying, litigation, and public demonstrations. NOW has



500,000 contributing members and 550 chapters in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Founded in 1972, the National Association of Female Executives (NAFE) provides education, networking and public advocacy to empower its members to achieve career success and financial security. Members are women executives, business owners, entrepreneurs and others who are committed to NAFE's mission: the advancement of women in the workplace. Many of these organizations led to legal action and protecting women's rights as workers and empowered women in the workplace. (MacLean, 2000:)

Currently, there are numerous definitions of the term organisational commitment in management literature. According to Khaliq, Naeem and Khalid (2016), organisational commitment refers to employees' loyalty to the organisation, their readiness to put exertion on the organisation's behalf, the level of coincidence of personal goals with the organisation and an aspiration to continue employment with the organisation. In another perspective, Khuong and Chi (2017) describes the organisational commitment as the employees' identification, emotional attachment and their strong desire to maintain membership towards the organisation. In contrast, Porter, Crampton and Smit (1976) defines organisational commitment as the beliefs and feelings formed internally or as a set of intentions that enrich an employee's desire to remain with an organisation and to accept its major goals and values. Porter et al. (1976) identified three overarching features of organisational commitment: (1) belief in and acceptance of organisational goals, (2) willingness to put effort and (3) desire to continue to be the member of the organisation. The given definitions all point to an exchange of services between an organisation and its employees. In today's highly competitive environment, organisations worldwide are seeking to outperform their rivals by leveraging on their employees as a critical source of

competitive advantage. However, to achieve this objective, an organisation requires highly committed employees (Lyndon & Rawat 2015; Messner 2017).

Highly committed employees strongly identify with the organisational goals and values, have an intense desire to belong to the organisation and are prepared to show greater affinity in organisational citizenship behaviour (Aksoy, Sengül& Yilmaz 2018; Majid & Ibrahim 2017). The studies also posit that organisational commitment motivates employees to go beyond their mandatory job descriptions. Committed employees deliver immense value to the organisation through their determination, pro-activeness, comparatively high productivity and an elevated awareness of quality (Khuong& Chi 2017; Messner 2017). Furthermore, highly committed employees display beneficial behaviours within an organisation whilst those with low commitment are detrimental to its survival and competitiveness (Saha 2016). Studies (Qureshi et al. 2019; Shah, Ali, Dahri, Brohi& Maher 2018) consider organisational commitment to be essential in predicting employees' attitude towards the organisation, aiding in understanding and forecasting employees' withdrawal tendencies such as lateness, absenteeism and turnover. In this regard, Lyndon and Rawat (2015) observed that organisational commitment assists management in harnessing voluntary cooperation within an organisation – it shows the strength of an individual's identification with the involvement in an organisation and also the willingness to remain in the organisation. Organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional concept with the widely accepted metric being Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model consisting of AC, CC and NC. These three categories of organisational commitment have been adopted in this study. Meyer and Allen (1991) described AC as a measure of the extent to which an individual feels emotionally attached to or identifies with an organisation. Normative commitment is a sense of obligation to the organisation depicting an employee's feeling of loyalty and duty (Messner 2013)

The most elaborated constructs for empirical testing is the construct by Thompson et al. (1999). According to Thompson et al. (1999), a work-family culture is defined as the “the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organisation supports and values the integration of employees work and family lives” (Thompson et al. 1999, p.394). A work-family culture consists of three components: managerial support, time demands, and career consequences. Time demands refer to employees’ perceptions of the underlying norms dictating the organisation's expectations to work long hours and put job priorities before personal lives, in order to be viewed favourably by management. Career consequences represent the extent to which employees believe that using work-family practices are associated with negative career consequences. Managerial support refers to the extent to which management in the organisation is perceived to be sensitive to employees' work-family demands.

Human resource management in Australia and the Asia Pacific region has progressed along similar lines to its United States and United Kingdom counterparts, but with differences in the stages of development, and in the relative influence of social, economic, political and industrial relations factors. The two main features of the US development of HRM are its initial emphasis on largely administrative activities, directed by senior management, and then the move to a more confident, business-oriented and professional approach in the 1980s and 1990s. Similar processes occurred in the United Kingdom, with more early emphasis on the ‘welfare’ roles of personnel practitioners because of the excesses of early capitalist industry, a strong humanitarian movement and developing trade unionism. In Asian countries, there has been a blend of administrative, paternalistic, cooperative, and business-focused HRM that varies between countries depending on their cultures, stages of development, extent of government

intervention in the economy and industrial relations systems (Nankervis, Chatterjee & Coffey, 2007)

Robbins and Judge (2017) classified OR into two categories: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards consist of salaries, wages, bonuses, allowances, promotions, affiliation with peers and superiors, physical environment and the organisation's policies. The intrinsic rewards, also known as the motivating factors, include opportunities for self-development, appreciation and acknowledgement. Both types of OR stimulate the individual positive attitudes and encourage productivity. Supervisory support is an additional determinant of organisational commitment amongst employees and includes caring about subordinates, valuing their contributions, helping them on work-related issues and facilitating their skill development. Frederico (2015) concluded that a leader who shows great consideration for the subordinates' contributions, well-being, personal growth and development will be perceived as fair and in turn instils a greater sense of belonging and confidence (Rafferty & Griffin 2004).

#### **1.2.1.1 Women discrimination**

Women discrimination in HRM practices: Women discrimination at workplace has received considerable attention from the researchers all over the globe and it has been defined as the practice when employment decisions about the women viz- selection, training, appraisals, promotion, reward allocation, task assignment etc are based on their gender rather than on their productivity, performance or qualification (Gutek et al., 1996; Sanchez and Brock, 1996; Ngo et al., 2002). Further, research has revealed that organisational policies and practices are deeply influenced by the socially and culturally mandated structures which question the women's abilities, capabilities and suitability for organisational work

and thus result into unconscious bias against them in terms of less compensation, fewer training and career advancement opportunities, biased appraisals and less task assignment (Sacket et al., 1991; Ohlott et al., 1994; Shankar, 2008; Pater et al., 2010; Diaz and Sanchez, 2011; Adhikari, 2014; Tlaiss&Dirani, 2015; Khuong and Chi, 2017).

Numerous studies have been conducted from time to time at both international and national workplace contexts about the discrimination experienced by the women employees in HRM practices viz: Tlaiss and Kauser, 2010; Khuong and Chi, 2017 have witnessed that women managers describe their working environments as characterized by the presence of negative perceptions and stereotypes about their professional abilities and commitment to work and thus they face discrimination in moving to the top ladders of the organisation. Tlaiss and Dirani (2015) have examined that woman employees in Lebanon experienced paucity of training and have illustrated that gender biased culture influence their learning at workplace. On the other hand, research has also witnessed that women employees are systematically rated as performing less well than men even after controlling for ability and experience (Sackett et al., 1991).

Women employees are also discriminated in the task assignment as well and are provided less challenging tasks than male employees (Ohlott et al., 1994; Pater et al., 2010). Diaz and Sanchez (2011) have reported in their study conducted across the Women employees are also discriminated in the task assignment as well and are provided less challenging tasks than male employees (Ohlott et al., 1994; Pater et al., 2010). Diaz and Sanchez (2011)

Discrimination at workplace and organizational justice are inter-related concepts and important issues in the field of HRM. Extant literature has revealed that most of the research on equity and organisational justice perception underlies on the social identity and social comparison processes. Research has revealed that

social identity theory connects the notion of perceived discrimination and organisational justice in a manner that people classify themselves and others into social categories and then identify more with members of their own group rather than with their out- group members, when status differentials between the groups are salient. Moreover, when women perceive discrimination in HRM practices, it accentuates the status differentials between genders and they began to identify themselves even more strongly with their gender group which in turn affects their organisational justice perception (Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Ely, 1995). Further, Wenzel (2000) has argued that identity process lies at the heart of justice phenomenon. It is the basis of justice motive itself and injustice threatens the identity. In addition to it, research has reported that social comparison process also helps the individuals in gauging the fairness of their own outcomes and resources with others (out groups) as it provides them information about what types of outcomes such as- salary, career- advancement, training, appraisals, it is possible to achieve ( Major, 1994).

The pattern of women's participation in the labour force has changed over the last century. In the early part of the twentieth century, labour force participation was restricted to the period prior to marriage. In the pre-war and immediate post-war years this shifted to the period prior to childbearing. Now this withdrawal is usually temporary with re-entry at a later stage and the length of the withdrawal is getting shorter. As access to higher levels of education improved, employment opportunities for women increased. The female economic activity rate in Italy (the share of the population aged 15 and above who supply, or are available to supply, labour for the production of goods and services) was 31% at the beginning of the century, decreasing to 23% by 1951. During the Second World War, women moved into the labour force to replace men, but then exited due to either choice or pressure once the war was finished. During the subsequent fifty years,

technological change, reduced average family size, increasing education levels, changes in social attitudes and personal preferences have all contributed to an increase in the employment participation rate for women. By now women constitute almost one half of the labour force (Istat, 2004).

Despite the expansion in women's labour force participation however, horizontal and vertical segregation of the labour market on a gender basis remains a fact of economic life. Women continue to be under represented in some sectors of the economy and over represented in others and they are consistently under represented at senior levels, even in those occupational groups where they are the majority. This domination of management as being a male paradigm is evident in career theories (Davidson and Burke, 2000).

But there were some institutional changes in Italy (Tiraboschi, 2005), which had initiated an ambitious process for the radical reform of the labour market. During 2003, the so called *LeggeBiagi* introduced new forms of fixed-term and part-time contracts, and regulated the quasi-subordinate employment. All of these changes reinforced the tendency toward a more flexible relation between employers and employees. Consequently, both women and men are now facing the challenge of a career that is not bounded by full-time, secure jobs and single-firm employment arrangements. Michael Arthur and Denise Rousseau (1996) have coined the term "boundary less career" to reflect these trends. Careers are boundary less in the sense that, either by choice or from necessity, people move across boundaries between organizations, departments, hierarchical levels, functions and sets of skills. This movement is possible partly because such boundaries are dissolving anyway, and partly because, to the extent that they are still there, maintaining employability requires one to make greater effort to cross them than before. A career is boundaryless not in the sense of being "patternless" but because it is controlled by the worker, it concerns a sequence of employment-related

positions and it is not necessarily confined to one occupation (Arthur, Hall and Lawrence, 1989; Arnold, 1997).

The match of women's inroads into paid occupations and the decrease of boundaries around companies, jobs and careers may be a setback for women. But it is one that may be more than offset by the fact that managing and organizing in a boundaryless context favors female characteristics. In a boundaryless context, managing and organizing require people to focus on helping and developing others. This requires that they teach and influence others without dominating them aggressively, and that they facilitate the process of solving problems without supplying all the answers (Perrewé and Nelson, 2004).

The human capital theory (Becker, 1962) attempts to explain this difference by suggesting that people are rewarded in their current jobs from their past investment in education and job training. Workers may choose to accept a wage or to invest in acquiring new skills and experience for higher-paying jobs. The human capital explanation assumes that investment pays off equally for all groups, but many studies find conflicting results on this equation. Powell and Butterfield (1994) found that job relevant human capital inputs worked more to the advantage of women than of men; they suggested that men do not appear to rely on formal merit-oriented procedures to gain career success. On the contrary Tharenou, Latimer, and Conroy (1994) found that women's education leads to greater managerial advancement than men's, both directly and through increased training. Chêvenert and Tremblay (2002) found that personal investments in education and experience represent the strongest and most consistent predictors of managerial progression.

Other than human capital, opportunity and motivation influence willingness to accept job changes. Opportunity reflects the individual's marketability and capacity to move and factors such as age and gender should influence capacity to



accept a job change. Previous research has indicated that younger employees, unmarried individuals, employees with young children at home, lower tenured employees, males and employees whose spouses' are not employed are more willing to relocate and change jobs (Landau et al., 1992; Noe et al., 1988). Lawrence (1997) suggests that the role of age should be interpreted in its interaction with other individual variables. Previous studies indicated that older workers and less tenured employees are less willing to accept job changes (Noe et al., 1988), presumably due to the greater costs of moving and to the greater time and energy of learning a new career discipline.

Choice of occupation is considered to be one of the key factors contributing to the male-female wage differential. In other words, careers with a majority of female employees tend to pay less than careers that employ a majority of males. This is different from direct wage discrimination within occupations, as males in the female-dominated professions will also make lower than average wages and the women in the for the wage differential to disappear. In 1960, the similarity index for the United State Women's Trade Union League (WTUL) is established to advocate for improved wages and working conditions for women. In 1920 The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor was formed to create equal rights and a safe workplace for women. In 1956 a group called Financial Women's Association (FWA), was formed. It is an organisation with special emphasis on the role and development of women, to attain greater recognition for women's achievements in business, and to encourage women to seek career opportunities in finance and business. (Gensemer, 2010)

In 1966 the National Organization for Women (NOW) was founded by a group of feminists including Betty Friedan. The largest women's rights group in the U.S., NOW seeks to end sexual discrimination, especially in the workplace, by means of legislative lobbying, litigation, and public demonstrations. NOW has

500,000 contributing members and 550 chapters in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Founded in 1972, the National Association of Female Executives (NAFE) provides education, networking and public advocacy to empower its members to achieve career success and financial security. Members are women executives, business owners, entrepreneurs and others who are committed to NAFE's mission: the advancement of women in the workplace. Many of these organizations led to legal action and protecting women's rights as workers and empowered women in the workplace

International laws protecting women's rights as workers exist through the efforts of various international bodies. On June 16, 2011, the International Labour Organization (ILO) passed C189 Domestic Workers Convention, 2011, binding signatories to regulations intended to end abuses of migrant domestic workers. It was anticipated that the convention would put pressure on non-ratifying countries to support changes to their own laws to meet the change in international standards protecting domestic workers. Also in 2011, Hong Kong's High Court struck down a law preventing domestic workers from having residency rights granted to other foreign workers, a move that affected an estimated 100,000 domestic workers in Hong Kong

Female decision-makers from around Europe are organized in several national and European wide networks. The networks aim to promote women in decision-making positions in politics and the economy across Europe. These networks were founded in the 1980s and are often very different from the "service clubs" founded in the early days of the century, like Soroptimist and Zontas. "Women in Management" is about women in business in usually male-dominated areas. Their motivation, their ideas and leadership styles and their ability to enter into leadership positions is the subject of most of the different networks. As of 2009, women represented 20.9% of parliament in Europe (both

houses) and 18.4% world average. As of 2009, 90 women serve in the U.S. Congress: 18 women serve in the Senate, and 73 women serve in the House. Women hold about three percent of executive positions (DeParle, 2011)

Women's access to occupations requiring capital outlays is also hindered by their unequal access (statistically) to capital; this affects occupations such as entrepreneur and small business owner, farm ownership, and investor. Numerous microloan programs attempt to redress this imbalance, targeting women for loans or grants to establish start-up businesses or farms, having determined that aid targeted to women can disproportionately benefit a nation's economy. While research has shown that women cultivate more than half the world's food—in sub-Saharan Africa and the Caribbean, women are responsible for up to 80% of food production—most such work is family subsistence labor, and often the family property is legally owned by the men in the family. (Chinen, Hoop, Alcázar, Balarin, & Sennett, 2017)

In Africa, women have limited access to financial services and formalized assets such as titles and deeds; this results in low levels of investment in productive capacity, hampering the growth of women-led micro, small, or medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs). Alleviating financial collateral constraints can allow more women producers and traders to participate in formal markets and expand their businesses. According to a study conducted on women and informal cross-border trade (ICBT) in Southern Africa, women are consistently found to rely on their own personal savings and women "savings clubs" (technically, rotating savings and credit associations) to source capital for trade as opposed to commercial banks and government programmers.

Studies with varying methodologies show that women face personal discrimination when going through the selection process (e.g., Goldberg, 1968; Rosen and Jerdee, 1974). Meta-analyses reveal that, when being considered

for male-typed (i.e., male dominated, believed-to-be-for-men) jobs, female candidates are evaluated more negatively and recommended for employment less often by study participants, compared with matched male candidates (e.g., Hunter et al., 1982; Tosi and Einbender, 1985; Olian et al., 1988; Davison and Burke, 2000). For example, in audit studies, which involve sending ostensibly real applications for job openings while varying the gender of the applicant, female applicants are less likely to be interviewed or called back, compared with male applicants (e.g., McIntyre et al., 1980; Firth, 1982). In a recent study, male and female biology, chemistry, and physics professors rated an undergraduate science student for a laboratory manager position. The male applicant was rated as significantly more competent and hireable, offered a higher starting salary (about \$4000), and offered more career mentoring than the female applicant was. In summary, women face a distinct disadvantage when being considered for male-typed jobs. (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012).

### **1.2.1.2 General Situation of Women in Ethiopia**

General Situation of Women in Ethiopia Women in Ethiopia as anywhere else occupy the law status in the society. Although they represent 49.8% of the estimated Ethiopian population of 77.1 million (CSA, 2007), contribute mainly to food production and other, they have not shared the fruits of development equally with their male counterpart. Rights such as, access to land, credit and other productive resources are difficult for women to attain. They also experience multiple forms of other deprivations such as longer working days, women specific ill health, low levels of education relative to men, lack of adequate representation in leadership decision making positions (Sosena and Tsehai, 2008).

In general, Women in Ethiopia occupy low status in the society. In spite of their contributions to the well-being of their family community affairs in general, women experience lower socio-economic status as a whole hence is marginalized from making decisions at all levels. Women are facing multiple forms of deprivation. Gender based discrimination, lack of protection of basic human rights, violence, lack of access to productive resources, education 13 training, basic health services, employment are widespread (National Committee for Traditional Practices Eradication (NCTPE, 2003).

Women experience lower socioeconomic status in general and hence is marginalized from making decisions at all levels. Nonetheless, women are poor in terms of access to resources, services employment. Women are underrepresented in the formal sector of employment. The survey conducted by the Central Statistical Authority (CSA, 2004) showed that women account for less than half (43%) of the total employees in the country. Considering the percentage of female employees from the total number of employees by employment type, the highest was in domestic activities (78%) followed by unpaid activities (59.3%). In other types of formal employment (e.g. government, NGOs, private organizations), the percentage of female workers is less than 359(CSA, 2004). On the other h, the survey showed over representation of female workers in the informal sector. About 58% of working women work in the informal sector whereas the percentage of working men in the informal sector was 37.7 %. The breakdown of the federal government employees by occupational groups also indicated gender disparity. From federal government employees found in the clerical fiscal type of jobs 71.3 % were female, while the percentage of females was slightly more than half (51%) in custodial manual type of jobs. Women make up 25% 18% of the administrative professional and scientific job categories, respectively, indicating that upper middle level positions are overwhelmingly dominated by men (Federal Civil

Service Commission, 2005). This concentration of women in the informal sector low level positions has implication on their earnings. In this regard, the survey showed four out of ten women civil servants earn Birr 300 a month compared to two out of ten for men (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005).

Generally, regardless of women's immense contribution, they often lack productive assets particularly, are underserved with agricultural extension, credit, labor, oxen and farm implements. Women's representation in the permanent employment of both regional federal civil services is also lower than men; in comparison to the large number of unemployed women. The increase in the number of women employees over the years is insignificant. 14 Women's employment in the formal sector both in industries and in the Civil Service is lower than men (NCTPE, 2003).

Despite the growing feminisation of the global labour market, discrimination against women in the workplace remains entrenched. Such discrimination of women is largely attributed to human resource management (HRM) policies and practices, which are inherently masculine, designed by men for men (Ansari et al. 2016; International Labour Organisation (ILO) 2016; Stamarski & Song Hing 2015). Often such masculine HRM policies and practices are a source of great psychological and physical distress, mental and physical ill-health, job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and high turn-over rates amongst female employees (Borrel et al. 2010; Schmader, Johns & Forbes 2008). Although there has been a paradigm shift in societal roles where work is no longer genderised, a significant proportion of women professionals are opting out of their jobs because of the persistent gender inequality in labour markets (ILO 2016). In this regard, Lagarde and Ostry (2020) observed that despite some progress in the feminisation of the workplace, the participation rates of women remain low. As working women contribute significantly to household, national and global

economic development, failure to develop women-friendly work practices such as fair remuneration practices will ultimately reverse all the accumulated gains resulting from increased women participation in the workplace (Stamarski& Song Hing 2015).

Previous studies on gender discrimination in formal work have recommended measures that will ensure more equitable participation of women workers. These measures are still relevant today, and they comprise actions to be taken by women workers themselves, as well as actions to be taken by employers and governments. To start with, women workers have been urged to view positive discrimination, or policies that are akin to ‘federal character’ policy as additional support, and not the main solution for improving their participation in paid work (Dantiye et al., 1991)

Stamarski and Song Hing (2015) observed that the workplace remains unwelcoming for female employees because of the multiple forms of discrimination with respect to genderised wage gap, career opportunities and lack of women in leadership and management positions. Some of the most harmful gender inequalities experienced by women are enacted within the HRM practices (Ambad, Rimin& Harbi 2017; Bae & Yang 2017; Khuong& Chi 2017; Messner 2017; Qureshi et al. 2019). Whilst much of the literature focuses on the effects on firm performance of such management practices, the possible effects of these management practices on women in the workplace have received very little attention (Kato & Kodama 2017). The majority of studies undertaken to date have been predominantly masculine (Borrel et al. 2010; Qureshi et al. 2019) whilst others focus on both genders (Ikechukwu & Adolphus 2017; Nkhukhu-Orlando et al. 2019). However, to date, there exists scanty empirical literature that specifically focuses on HRM practices and female employees’ organisational commitment. A few studies emerge mainly from the developed countries (Frederico 2015;

Kato&Kodama 2017), and not so much in developing economies (Ambad et al. 2017). Empirical studies are essential to understand the drivers of women's organisational commitment in developing countries. Therefore, based on this deficiency of prior research, our study seeks to narrow this knowledge gap by explaining the causal linkage between HRM practices and female employees' affective, normative and continuance commitment (CC) within an African context, with specific reference to Zimbabwe. The ability to balance work and family indicates that because women typically maintain major responsibility for the home and the family, they have greater difficulty in balancing work and family than men (Duxbury & Higgins 1991; Sundaresan 2014). In terms of the work environment, Glick (2013) has observed that often women are given fewer and less challenging roles and fewer training opportunities, compared with men.

Notwithstanding the growing scholarly interest in the factors that can help retain women in the workplaces, there remains a paucity of studies in how HRM practices influence female professionals' organisational commitment in the workplace, particularly in a society such as Zimbabwe punctuated by patriarchy and an economy that has been depressed for over two decades. In her study, Makunike (2012) found that the problem in Zimbabwe is that women continue to be discriminated by their employers and male counterparts, often because of policies or practices that are ostensibly nondiscriminatory. Gender discrimination is pervasive and is known to occur in almost every professional setting. To that end, Radu and Chekera (2014) observed in their report that gender discrimination is pervasive in almost every professional setting in Zimbabwe and that current mechanisms for dealing with gender discrimination are inadequate. However, none of the given studies paid attention to the determinants of organisational commitment amongst the female professionals in Zimbabwe. To the best of our knowledge, to date, only Jemedze's (2016) study attempted to do so although it



was focused solely on the impact of a flexible maternity leave system – a derivative of the working conditions on Zimbabwean women employee’s motivation, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Highly committed employees strongly identify with the organisational goals and values, have an intense desire to belong to the organisation and are prepared to show greater affinity in organisational citizenship behaviour (Aksoy, Sengül& Yilmaz 2018; Majid & Ibrahim 2017). The studies also posit that organisational commitment motivates employees to go beyond their mandatory job descriptions. Committed employees deliver immense value to the organisation through their determination, pro-activeness, comparatively high productivity and an elevated awareness of quality (Khuong& Chi 2017; Messner 2017). Furthermore, highly committed employees display beneficial behaviours within an organisation whilst those with low commitment are detrimental to its survival and competitiveness (Saha 2016). Studies (Qureshi et al. 2019; Shah, Ali, Dahri, Brohi& Maher 2018) consider organisational commitment to be essential in predicting employees’ attitude towards the organisation, aiding in understanding and forecasting employees’ withdrawal tendencies such as lateness, absenteeism and turnover. In this regard, Lyndon and Rawat (2015) observed that organisational commitment assists management in harnessing voluntary cooperation within an organisation – it shows the strength of an individual’s identification with the involvement in an organisation and also the willingness to remain in the organisation. Organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional concept with the widely accepted metric being Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model consisting of AC, CC and NC. These three categories of organisational commitment have been adopted in this study. Meyer and Allen (1991) described AC as a measure of the extent to which an individual feels emotionally attached to or identifies with an organisation.

Normative commitment is a sense of obligation to the organisation depicting an employee's feeling of loyalty and duty (Messner 2013).

### **1.2.1.3 General Situation of Women in Somali**

Although Somali women have played a dynamic role in starting businesses in Somalia, there are few consequences those face them and lead their businesses to become unsuccessful. Those consequences we will comprehensively talk in problem statement. The sections of this study will be containing: second section Literature review; this section we will be seen what the previous researchers have discovered about the using women as Human resource in Somalia. Third Methodology of the study that we will also perceive the methods used to approve these statement, this section are including research design, population of the study(women as HR Company) and sampling. (Organization)

Global competition is forcing companies to realize that their success is widely depending on talented people of any nationality, age, race, and gender. In this article I will focus on the role of women in the corporate world, because women represent half of the population and nearly half of the active workforce. Their role in the international business world, however, is still insignificant. Although we can see some improvement over the past 20-30 years, top corporate positions are still dominated by men

Women and Leadership in Somalia A woman is an adult female human being, as contrasted to men, an adult male, a girl, a female and child. The term woman (irregular plural: women) is used to indicate biological sex distinctions, cultural gender role distinctions, or both (Wikipedia, 2005:1). Ethiopia is a patriarchal society that keeps women in a subordinate position (HaregewoinEmebet, 2003). There is a perception that women are docile,

submissive, patient, and tolerant of monotonous work and violence, for which culture is used as a justification (Hirut, 2004).

The most African country many Somalia women face low social status which results to lack of women power to make decision in developing countries in general and in Ethiopia in particular (Almaz1991). They have been denied equal access to education, training, gainful employment opportunities, their involvement in policy formulation decision making processes has been minimal. It's true that women play a vital role in the community by taking care of all societal activities. However, they do not enjoy the fruits of their labor and suffer from political, economical, societal, cultural marginalization. According to Meaza (2009), although there are many women who have played important political and leadership roles in the history of Ethiopia, only few are visible in the existent literatures (Meaza, 2009). Additionally Meaza (2009) indicated that women have played important political roles mostly by wielding proxy power through birth or marriage. In addition to this, as Teshome (1979) stated, in Somalia history, women did great contributions in both out and in door activities especially in battles and other activities. They have been actively participating in rural and area in agriculture, commercial, undertaking reproduction social responsibilities. However, their misfortunes of living in the shadow of men have hidden from view such highly notable performances. Also women have been forced to lose confidence so have been unable to act on their own action directly concerning themselves (Teshome, 1979). It is described that even if women's formal participation on leadership position have been minimum, but it is documented that throughout the world, women played a vital roles in times of war and peace as community organizers and activists. Moreover, for instance, un Ethiopian Women history, contributions and brilliant leadership role which have Emperor Minilik's 15 (1877-1913) first and formal wife, Bafena and second legal wife Empress

Taitu had played is unforgettable history comes first when one talk about Ethiopian women contributions. For instance, Taitu was acted as the chief advisor of Emperor with particular influence in the area of foreign relations. She holds high profile in the history for patriotism uncompromisingly pursuing Ethiopia's independence (Meaza, 2009).

The historical facts make it clear that despite their strengths, contributions demonstrated leadership abilities; it has never been easy for Somalia women to ascend to formal political power (Meaze, 2009). On present day FDRE government has adopted several enhancing instruments to raise women participation on nation's decision making positions because of that FDRE constitution which is most promising binding one which had played a significant role for women participation on all decision making level. However some efforts should be done because still the participation of women in leadership and decision making position is minimal as per to their counterparts. This can be seen on all levels of decision making position seem increasing from time to time, it is still minimal, according to the information gained from international Parliament Union (IPU), in 2005 National election women accounts 21.3%, where as in 2010 national election, their number has increased to 152 (27.8%) out of the total 547 seats of HPR members, with compared to Rwanda (56.3%), South Africa of which they accounts for 44.5% others.

With regard to the equal treatment between women and men, the most important and comprehensive step in the Hungarian legislation in the past two years was the adoption of the Act CXXV of 2003 on Equal Treatment and the Promotion of Equal Opportunities (hereinafter AET). The act came into force in January 2004. It determines those organizations fulfilling public tasks in wide understanding, which have to observe the principle of equal treatment in all of their relationships, procedures and measures. The Act also defines all those relevant

relationships in relation to which actors defined by the law have to observe the equal treatment principle, regardless of whether they were included among the previous organizations or not. The scope of the Act does not extend to – among others – family law relationships and relationships between relatives. The scope was one of the reasons for which non-governmental organizations formulated criticisms against the Act.<sup>2</sup> In its opinion, the Hungarian Women’s Lobby suggested a comprehensive review of the scope in order to expand the application of the Act to all for-profit and non-governmental organizations. The opinion says that the Act arbitrarily determines certain criteria for the entrepreneurs, business associations and non-governmental organizations in deciding for them to pertain to the scope of AET or no

Organizational support refers to the degree to which employees believe that the organisation acknowledges their contribution or effort and cares about their overall well-being (Ambad et al. 2017). Organisational support through familyfriendly policies, which foster employee commitment and include practices such as working from home, generous maternity leave, child care leave, reduced work schedules, parental subsidy and on-site child care facilities (Bae & Yang 2017; Caillier 2016). Bae and Yang (2017) reported that women employees tend to be more emotional and sensitive compared with their male counterparts and thus require greater organisational support (OS) for work-life balance. They found that some organisations are inflexible in allowing their female employees to take some time off to care for their families. A few studies have established a positive relationship between a favourable working environment (a reasonable work load, job safety and security, conditions, team work approach and flexible working hour schedules) and organisational commitment (Agbozo et al. 2017; Ahluwalia & Preet 2017; Aksoy et al. 2018; Suifan 2019). The provision of progressive career

development opportunities is imperative for enhancing organisational commitment (Qureshi et al. 2019)

Previous studies on the influence of HRM practices on organisational commitment reveal a causal relationship between attractive OR and organisational commitment (Ambad et al. 2017; Majid & Ibrahim 2017). Attractive OR relay to the employees that the organisation values investing in them (Khaliq et al. 2016; Nazir et al. 2016). In exchange, the rewards are found to instil a perception of support by the organisation in the minds of the employees, enhancing their commitment (Heathfield 2016). Furthermore, fairness in recognition and distribution of rewards signals out the organisation's concern over its employees increases the commitment of employees with the organisation (Ganesan, Mun & Raman 2017; Huynh 2015). Similarly, Bustamam, Teng and Abdullah (2014) posited that an employee who is satisfied with the rewards provided by an employer voluntarily reciprocates and continually shows a high level of commitment. Likewise, Nazir et al. (2016) concluded that an attractive rewards system enhances employees' commitment. The studies report that rewards (monetary and non-monetary) are the most prominent determinant for women employees' organisational commitment. In an earlier study, (Miao et al.2013)

#### **1.2.1.4 Equal Employment Opportunity**

The Equal Employment Opportunity Act (hereinafter referred to as the "Equality Act"). However, it does not touch upon the human resource management of part-time employees or human resource management pertaining to measures to promote a better work-life balance, both of which issues are closely associated with women. Compared with other developed countries, a high proportion of women in Japan worked in days gone by. This was because many women were

self-employed or family workers, working in sectors including agriculture, but it was only after the war that the number of working women employed at companies (and therefore subject to human resource management) increased. Even before the war, there were “joko (factory girls),” who were factory workers employed primarily in silk-reeling and spinning plants, and “shokugyo-fujin (office girls),” whom in modern times we would describe as white-collar workers.<sup>2</sup> There are many studies concerning the human resource management of factory girls. In addition, as shown below, first-hand accounts from office girls are recorded in the 1926 study entitled *The Lives of Office Girls* carried out by the Hiroshima Municipal Government Department of Social Affairs, from which the types of problem that arose in terms of human resource management can be seen

The “Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act” (2018) was established to promote equality and prevent discrimination on the basis of gender, pregnancy, leave in connection with childbirth or adoption, care responsibilities, ethnicity, religion, belief, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity, gender expression, age, or other significant characteristics of a person. The Act has the particular objective of improving the position of women and minorities, dismantling barriers created by society and preventing new ones from arising. Employer/employee organisations are duty-bound to promote equality and make active, targeted, and systematic efforts to promote equality and prevent discrimination on the above-cited grounds. These efforts focus on targeted recruitment, pay and working conditions, promotion, development opportunities, accommodation, the prevention of harassment and the ability to balance work and family life.

Women initially gained entry to managerial positions only in specific industries in which the opportunity for career success is more limited than other industries (Gagnon and L  tourneau, 1997). "Horizontal segregation" has been justified by the claim that there is a match between women’s stereotypical attributes such as

nurturing, helping, inclusion and serving others, and the occupations and positions they are forced into (personnel and training function, nursing, teaching and social work) (Sachs, Chrisler and Sloan-Devlin, 1992). In 1994, women accounted for 4, 8% of the top managers in the Italian companies with less than 500 employees: in the manufacturing industry the female managers accounted for 4% of the top managers, in the service industry the percentage increased to 6,9%. These percentages are smaller in the largest organizations: in companies with more than 500 employees, female managers accounted for only 3,1% (2,9% in the manufacturing industry, 3,4% in the services industry). According to OECD (2004), Italy is the EU state with the lowest percentage of women in decision-making positions in the highest decision-making bodies of the top 50 publicly quoted companies.

Given that women have been traditionally associated with the "soft" (people and welfare) side of managing, where they are able to use their care skills and abilities, on the face of it, personnel as a function dedicated to the management of people would seem to be an "ideal" job for a woman. Indeed it has frequently noted that personnel management is a "traditional stronghold of female (managerial) employment" (Marshall, 1984; Bujold and Gingras, 2000). Nevertheless, the evidence is that women rarely reach top positions in personnel, despite being the majority working in the profession. Hierarchical segregation has gone along with stereotypical horizontal differentiation of personnel work into "feminine" welfare and "masculine" industrial relation. But the supremacy of the experienced industrial relation-oriented senior manager has been under threat from models of personnel based on the management of "human resources" (HRM). The route to competitive advantage was seen to be through improvements in the management of



people and organizational structures, "in other words, through better utilization of human resources" (Guest, 1987)

Gender inequality in organizations is a complex phenomenon that can be seen in HR practices (i.e., policies, decision-making, and their enactment) that affects the hiring, training, pay, and promotion of women. We propose that gender discrimination in HR-related decision-making and the enactment of HR practices stems from gender inequalities in broader organizational structures, processes, and practices, including HR policy but also leadership, structure, strategy, culture, and organizational climate. Moreover, reciprocal effects should occur, such that discriminatory HR practices can perpetuate gender inequalities in organizational leadership, structure, strategy, culture, and climate. Organizational decision makers also play an important role in gender discrimination. We propose that personal discrimination in HR-related decisions and enactment arises from organizational decision makers' levels of hostile and benevolent sexism. While hostile sexism can lead to discrimination against women because of a desire to keep them from positions of power, benevolent sexism can lead to discrimination against women because of a desire to protect them. Finally, we propose that gender inequalities in organizational structures, processes, and practices affect organizational decision makers' sexism through attraction, selection, socialization, and attrition processes. Thus, a focus on organizational structure, processes, and practices is critical. (Gelfand et al. 2007)

Women as 'special need employees': Women are implicated in the last two of the three categories of 'special need employees' who stand to gain a lot from continuing training and development, in that they tend to be worse hit than men by technical changes such as advances in computer technology (International Labour Organisation- ILO, 1998b; 1998c); and also because of their simultaneous over-

representation in low-skilled jobs and under-representation in management (Berry, 1998). The concept of ‘glass ceiling’ describes women’s inability to progress to management positions because of invisible barriers erected by male-dominated management; while tokenism describes the limited presence of women in a particular job position or work environment (Sharma, 1997; Lindsey et al., 2000).

Developing women for management roles: In order to increase women’s presence in managerial positions, therefore, concessionary treatments that specifically raise the number of women to be developed for such posts have been suggested, akin to affirmative action or positive (reverse) discrimination. In particular, mentoring has been suggested for improving women’s participation in management. Regrettably, women find it difficult to find a senior executive to mentor them because of a peculiar circular problem: most senior executives tend to be males; mentoring requires some closeness between the ‘trainee’ and the mentor; a closeness which onlookers often misconstrue in amorous terms. Ironically, the few women in executive positions themselves fail to mentor upcoming ones, believing that everyone must ‘pay her own dues’ (Sharma, 1997; Berry, 1998; Lindsey et al., 2000);

### **1.2.2 Human Resource**

Human Resource Management is a multidisciplinary function that depicts assumptions from different fields such as management, psychology, sociology and economics (Senyuce, 2009). An effective HRM attempts to get extraordinary results from ordinary people. Besides hiring the right person for right job at right time, HRM is also responsible for employee motivation, satisfaction, training, long term development & retention (Walker, 1994). This function has to assure through hard and soft approach that everyone is complying with companies’ laws and

regulations (Dowling & Welch, 2004). It is vital to remain well versed with not only environmental changes but also technological shifts. One of the biggest challenges today for HR personnel is to develop employees in accordance to global environmental factors as well as international marketplace (Andersen, Cooper, and Zhu, 2007)

Although it is a long-standing challenge, the human resource management of women is an issue at the very forefront of Japanese society. In the modern era, it has increasingly encompassed issues common to all employees, including men. To put it another way, pioneering measures to deal with these issues have come to be incorporated into and practiced in workplaces with a progressive approach to the human resource management of women. Looking at the history of the human resource management of women, it can be said that it has developed in response to changes in the typology of workplaces,<sup>1</sup> as shown in Figure 1. Of course, it can also be said that proactive reforms of human resource management have also brought about a change in the typology of workplaces. This paper examines transitions in the human resource management of women, focusing primarily on the period from the

The existing empirical data tend to indicate that women are overrepresented in HR generally and in the managerial ranks of HR, yet tend to face a glass ceiling when it comes to reaching top management, despite their being as equally qualified as men. That said, researchers have yet to investigate why this is the case. Some scholars have proposed that an emphasis on strategic human resource management (SHRM) may prevent women from becoming managers in the HR function (Legge, 1987), whereas an emphasis on employee involvement (EI) may facilitate women's movement into management (Buttner, 2001; Gooch, 1994)

Training and human resources development are important segments of HRM as they can include historically excluded social groups and especially women in

different training and development programs. One of the programs is leaderships skills training as an important step in career development of employees with leadership potential, leading further to development of top management based on diversity principles (Fine, 1995; Konrad and Linnehan, 1995).

Thompson and Harley (2007) suggest that there has been a recent change in how organizations manage their human resources. They state that the current, highly competitive, economic system, has increased the pressure for organizations to manage their human resources in a more strategic way. In this increasingly competitive environment the role of highly skilled and engaged employees for organizational success has become highlighted. It has become evident that human resources, in form on human capital skills, knowledge and attitudes of the organizational members, play a central role in organization's long term competitiveness (Boxall, Purcell and Wright, 2007). This has influenced the current HRM trends and shifted the focus from controlling employees towards increasingly strategic HRM that aims to increase the engagement and motivation of the employees (Boxall, Purcell and Wright, 2007).

According to the existing literature, the objectives of organizations HRM activities are both economic and socio-political in nature (Boxall, 2007). When it comes to economic goals, cost efficiency is the fundamental economic driver of HRM. This objective refers to organization's ability to provide skilled and highly productive employees who work towards the organization's goal in a cost efficient manner. Cost efficiency also refers to HRM practices that allow flexibility in terms of human resources in case of a changed market situation (Boxall, 2007) In addition to the economic goals, HRM activities aim to achieve social legitimacy and managerial autonomy. Socially legitimate HRM are adapted to the characteristics of a particular industry as well as local legislation and social norms of the society. Social legitimacy can be seen as crucial for organization's survival

as it gives it access to society's resources and support. The objective of managerial autonomy refers organization's power over its external environment. This power is considered as strong when market is not strongly regulated by institutions. When operating in markets with demanding market regulations and strong labour unions and other institutions the managerial autonomy is often weak. (Boxall, 2007)

Organization's HRM can be divided into three different subdomains depending on the scope of these activities: micro level, strategic and international HRM. Micro level HRM includes sub functions of organization's overall HR policy. These individual practices concern managing small groups of individuals such as recruitment, training, performance management and career development. The content of micro level HRM will be discussed in detail in the following sub chapters of this paper. Strategic human resource management refers to analysing the micro level practices in organizational level. This emphasizes the importance of alignment between HRM strategies of different business units and the common goals and strategy of the organization. Strategic human resource management suggest that, in order to assure competitive advantage, HRM should be integrated into all parts of organizational strategy. (Boxall, Purcell and Wright, 2007) International HRM concerns organizations operating internationally and focus on the consistence of organizations HRM practices and adapting these to both industrial and cultural characteristics of international markets where the organizational operates (Björkman, Morris and Stahl, 2012).

Organizations tend to use numerous methods to create awareness and attract individuals in the labour market to apply for an open position. The choice of a suitable method is traditionally determined by the importance of the open position from the perspective of the organization. Qualified individuals can be acquired through formal and informal social networks, advertising in various channels and with the help of external assistance such as head-hunters and career services.

(Beardwell, Holden and Claydon, 2004) The purpose of a job advertisement is two folded: it is used attract the ideal candidates who fill the personnel needs of the organization but it also aims to discourage disqualified individuals from applying the job. It therefore aims to increase the number of qualified applicants and limit the number of unsuitable ones. The job advert can be published and spread on the labour market through the traditional and/or electronical channels that, in the best possible way, reaches the ideal candidates. (Beardwell, Holden and Claydon, 2004) Another structural characteristic that work as a barrier for equality regards the degree of gender and racial segregation. These patterns of segregation may occur on hierarchical levels, occupational groups and within job tasks as well. Existing literature points out that women and coloured people are still unrepresented in highest hierarchical positions and positions with high power and benefits. (Acker, 2006; Acker and Due Billing, 2009) Less visible barrier for equality regards segregation within jobs. Indeed, previous research show that even though the occupational group would be heterogeneous, the job tasks assigned for individuals might vary based on gender (Acker, 1991)

According to an HR Magazine article, the first personnel management department started at the National Cash Register Co. in 1900. The owner, John Henry Patterson, organized a personnel department to deal with grievances, discharges and safety, and information for supervisors on new laws and practices after several strikes and employee lockouts. This action was followed by other companies; for example, Ford had high turnover ratios of 380 percent in 1913, but just one year later, the line workers of the company had doubled their daily salaries from \$2.50 to \$5, even though \$2.50 was a fair wage at that time. This example clearly shows the importance of effective management which leads to a greater outcome of employee satisfaction as well as encouraging employees to work

together in order to achieve better business objectives. During the 1970s, American businesses began experiencing challenges due to the substantial increase in competitive pressures. Companies experienced globalization, deregulation, and rapid technological change which caused the major companies to enhance their strategic planning - a process of predicting future changes in a particular environment and focus on ways to promote organizational effectiveness. This resulted in developing more jobs and opportunities for people to show their skills which were directed to effectively applying employees toward the fulfillment of individual, group, and organizational goals. Many years later the major/minor of human resource management was created at universities and colleges also known as business administration. It consists of all the activities that companies used to ensure the more effective use of employees

Human resources focus on the people side of management there are two real definitions of HRM (Human Resource Management); one is that it is the process of managing people in organizations in a structured and thorough manner. This means that it covers the hiring, firing, pay and perks, and performance management This first definition is the modern and traditional version more like what a personnel manager would have done back in the 1920sThe second definition is that HRM circles the ideas of management of people in organizations from a macro management perspective like customers and competitors in a marketplace This involves the focus on making the "employment relationship" fulfilling for both management and employees. Some research showed that employees can perform at a much higher rate of productivity when their supervisors and managers paid more attention to them. The Father of Human relations, Elton Mayo, was the first person to reinforce the importance of employee communications, cooperation, and involvement. His studies concluded that sometimes the human factors are more

important than physical factors, such as quality of lighting and physical workplace conditions. As a result, individuals often place value more on how they feel. For example, a rewarding system in Human resource management, applied effectively, can further encourage employees to achieve their best performance.

The human capital theory (Becker, 1962) attempts to explain this difference by suggesting that people are rewarded in their current jobs from their past investment in education and job training. Workers may choose to accept a wage or to invest in acquiring new skills and experience for higher-paying jobs. The human capital explanation assumes that investment pays off equally for all groups, but many studies find conflicting results on this equation. Powell and Butterfield (1994) found that job relevant human capital inputs worked more to the advantage of women than of men; they suggested that men do not appear to rely on formal merit-oriented procedures to gain career success. On the contrary Tharenou, Latimer, and Conroy (1994) found that women's education leads to greater managerial advancement than men's, both directly and through increased training. found that personal investments in education and experience represent the strongest and most consistent predictors of managerial progression(Chêvenert and Tremblay(2002).

Human resource policies surrounding promotions and opportunities for advancement are another area of concern. In organizations with more formal job ladders that are used to dictate and constrain workers' promotion opportunities, women are less likely to advance This occurs because job ladders tend to be divided by gender, and as such, gender job segregation that is seen at entry-level positions will be strengthened as employees move up their specific ladder with no opportunity to cross into other lines of advancement. Thus, women will lack



particular job experiences that are not available within their specific job ladders, making them unqualified for advancement (Perry et al., 1994).

**Predominance of women in sweat-shop jobs:** Some export-oriented, labour-intensive industries like clothing and toy industries are known for employing a preponderance of young female workers aged between 13 and 25 years, under what has been described as sweat-shop conditions (Lindsey et al., 2000). This employment strategy is informed by stereotypical perceptions that women can be paid less than men, while at the same time, their nimbler fingers make them better than men at these jobs (Sapiro, 1994; Barber, Gowthaman and Rose, 2004). Aspects of the poor working conditions in these industries include the very nature of the jobs in that they are menial, ill-paid jobs with poor career prospects; exposure to toxic substances and poor ventilation; poor living accommodation; and lean chances of obtaining maternity leave (ILO, 1998a; Barber et al., 2004). It is said that by the time these young women are nearing 35 years, they are already physically worn out and are routinely replaced with fresh batches of teenagers (Shah, 2001).

**Developing women for management roles:** In order to increase women's presence in managerial positions, therefore, concessionary treatments that specifically raise the number of women to be developed for such posts have been suggested, akin to affirmative action or positive (reverse) discrimination. In particular, mentoring has been suggested for improving women's participation in management. Regrettably, women find it difficult to find a senior executive to mentor them because of a peculiar circular problem: most senior executives tend to be males; mentoring requires some closeness between the 'trainee' and the mentor; a closeness which onlookers often misconstrue in amorous terms. Ironically, the few women in executive positions themselves fail to mentor upcoming ones,

believing that everyone must ‘pay her own dues’ (Sharma, 1997; Berry, 1998; Lindsey et al., 2000);

## **2. EVALUATION WOMAN AS HUMAN RESOURCE IN THE COMPANIES OF SOMALIA**

### **2.1. Research design and Methodology**

This research is the descriptive study which concerned describing for its scope of the using women as human resource in Somalia and many consequences those effects the women as human resource.

There are many research methodologies to collect data in my research paper; Despite the shortage of concrete research and studies previous done both literature review and primary data through data collection and interview with women it involves in companies will be the methodology of this study to achieve its intended objectives. The primary data collection will assisted in providing facts and figures for comparison and analysis while, the literature review providing an in depth background information on existing records I will use questionnaire and interview to obtain empirical data which explicitly represent my lovely, beloved of women business owners of Somalia in order to attain their views about Somalia women as Human resource company. The researcher will also use the literature review by using available data in order to attain the ideas of previous researchers, and studies about the role of women as Human resource in Somali Company.

### **2.2. Research population**

The population of this study will be the women Employee companies in Somalia; the research will target 10 to women Employee companies' product. This number of women will be an adequate representative for testing purpose.

However, the mostly the women Employee companies in Somalia and their types of business including:

- Telecommunication
- Cosmetics
- Cloth and shoes shops
- Vegetable and meal products

Nevertheless I would like to take a samaple10 to 15 women's above varies business

Owner the researcher will distribute questionnaire and interview some of them to obtain fact and reliable information.

### **2.3. Sampling procedure**

Using simple random sampling method, I will take10 to 15 (those approximately are 10% to 17% of women) women by chance as a representative sample from women as human resource in the company Somalia.

### **2.4. Instruments**

The instruments researcher will use for data gathering will be using available data, observation, interview and questionnaire. Those the questionnaire researcher will be used to extract the ideas of respondents, where interview schedule will be used

for respondents those have not enough time to fill questionnaire, and are illiterate and observation to obtain correct current market situation for the eyes.

The questionnaire of this research will be focus on the issues that need to be answered in order to comprehend the women as human resource in the company Somalia and sustainability of their long-lasting existence.

## **2.5. Results of the research**

### **PRESENTATION AND DATA ANALYSIS INTERPRETATION**

This **Results of the research** was focused on Presentation and Data Analysis Interpretation of The Study, the researcher investigated The using women as human resource in the company Somalia Also this chapter covers, three parts of Research the first part is introduction, the second parts are Demographic of the respondents while, third part is Research questions interpretation and Date Presentation.

### **2.6 SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC OF THE RESPONDENTS OF GENDER**

The Findings Data on the Responds, w asked the Following Answers Through Questionnaires Form and Data Collection Information from the Responders', In the below Illustrated gender.

Table 1 - Level of age

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 18-30 years	6	40%
31-40	5	33%
41 -50	4	27%
Total	15	100.0

Primary date: 2022

The next table 1 below summarizes the age of respondents, which are categorized 18-30 years, 31-40, 41-50, The ages “between 18-30 years are the most age holds those positions in Somalia , which have response rate of, 6(40%), The second ages are “between 31-40 which had, 5 (33%), %), the third ages are “between” which had 41-50, 4 (27%)

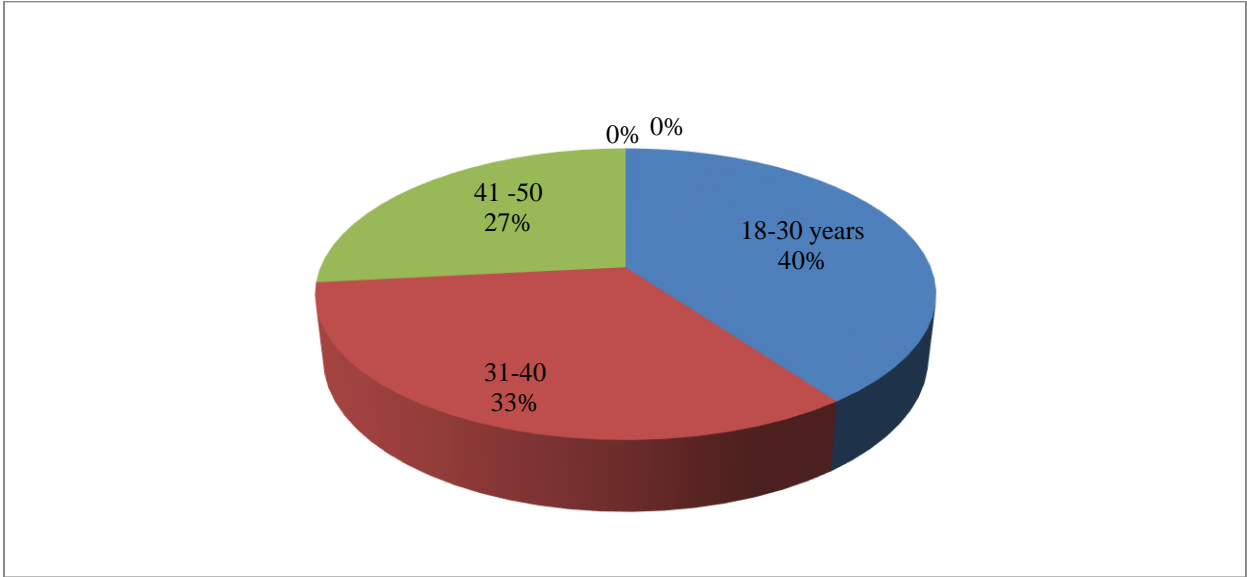


Figure 1 - Age of respondents

Table 2 - Level of marital status

	Frequency	Percent
Valid single	7	47.0%
married	3	20%
Divorced	5	33.1%
Total	15	100.0

The next table 2 below summarizes, in Marital Status the results shown that single which respondents of the distributed questionnaire which respondents' rate 7 (47.0%) the second respondent were marriage which respondent rate 3 (20%) the third respondent were Divorced which respondent rate 5 (33.1%)

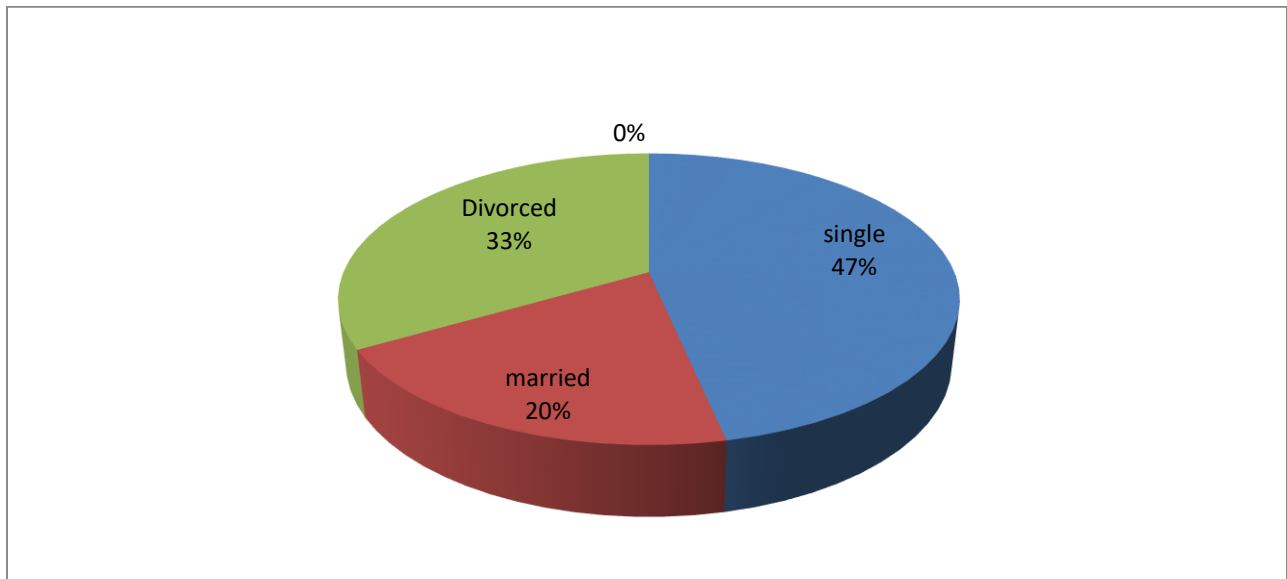
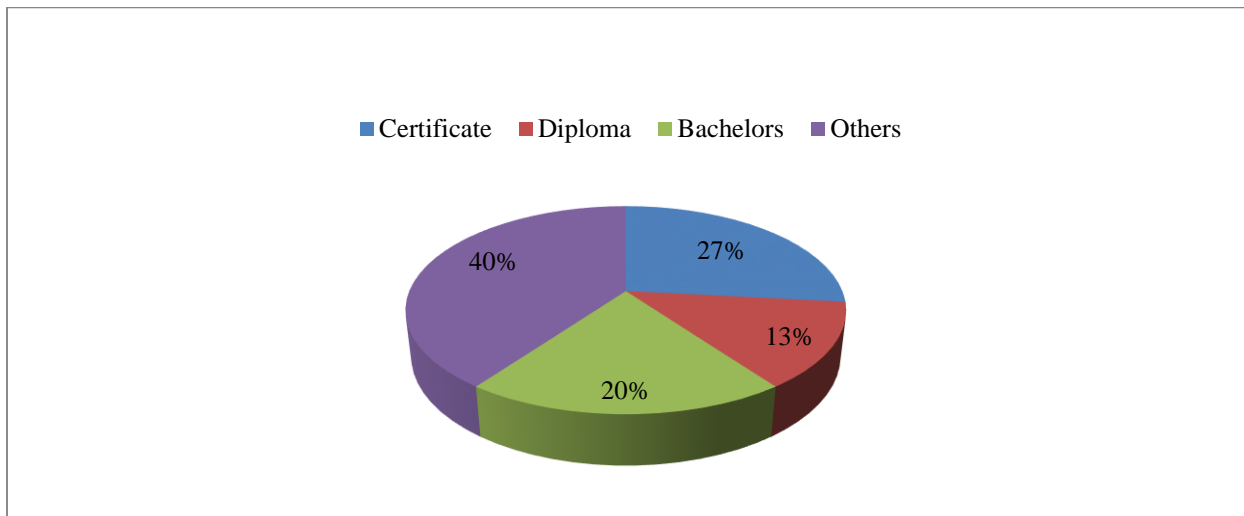


Figure 2 - Level of marital status

Table 3 - Level of education

	Frequency	Percent
Valid Certificate	4	27%
Diploma	2	13%
Bachelors	3	20.0%
Others	6	40.0%
Total	15	100.0

The next table 3 below summarizes the level of education the respondent categorized, Certificate, Diploma degree, Bachelors, Others. First respondents were Certificate which respondent rate 4(27%) and the third respondents were Diploma which respondent rate are 2(13%) and the fourth is Bachelors r which respondent rate were 3 (20.0%), and the nine is Others which respondent rate were 6 (40.0%),.



### Figure 3 - Level of education

The main questionnaires we are analyzing are the as following:

The following tables and charts are showing and represent tabulation and graphical Information of questionnaire responds of 15 women respondents at Organization companies in Somalia.

Table 4 - The challenges of women the and managers Human resource organization visited by the researcher

Type	Frequency	Percentages
Discrimination	7	47%
Security	3	20%
Inopportunity	5	33%
Total	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The next table 4 below summarizes, in Discrimination the results shown that single which respondents of the distributed questionnaire which respondents' rate 7 (47.0%) the second respondent were Security which respondent rate 3 (20%) the third respondent were Inopportunity which respondent rate 5 (33.1%)



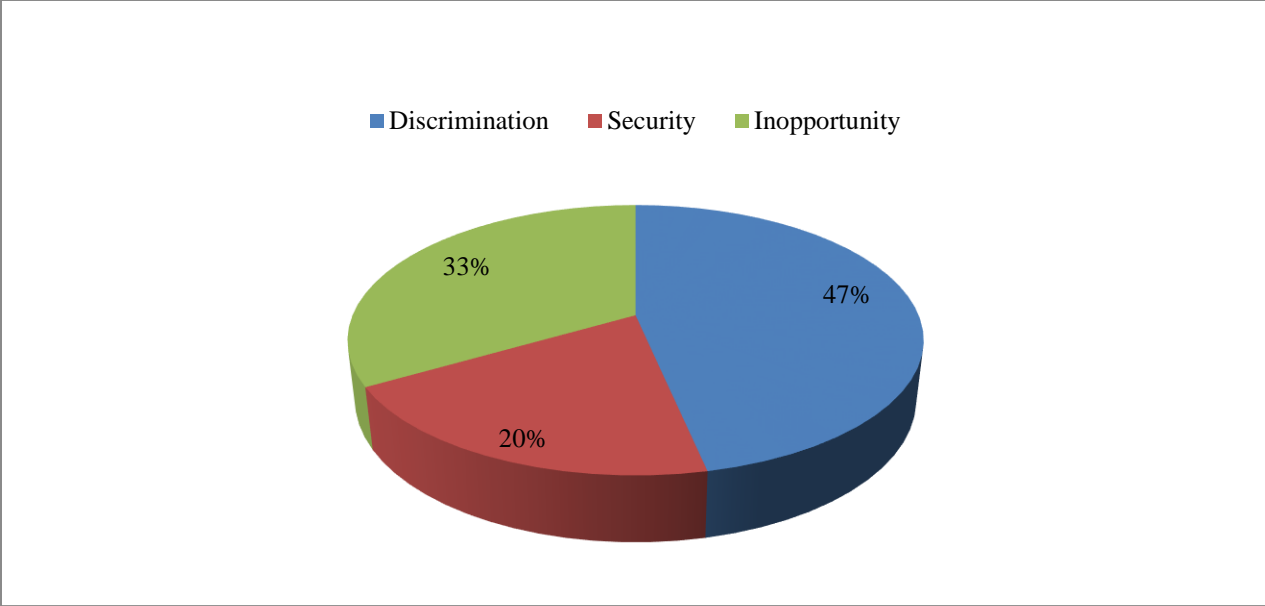


Figure 4 - The challenges of women the and managers Human resource organization visited by the researcher

Table 5 - The capital sources of women

Type	Frequency	Percentages
Employment	8	54%
Family	5	33%
Loan	2	13%
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The next table 5 below summarizes, in employment the results shown that single which respondents of the distributed questionnaire which respondents' rate 8 (54.0%) the second respondent were Familywhich respondent rate 5 (33%) the third respondent were Ioanwhich respondent rate 2 (13.1%)

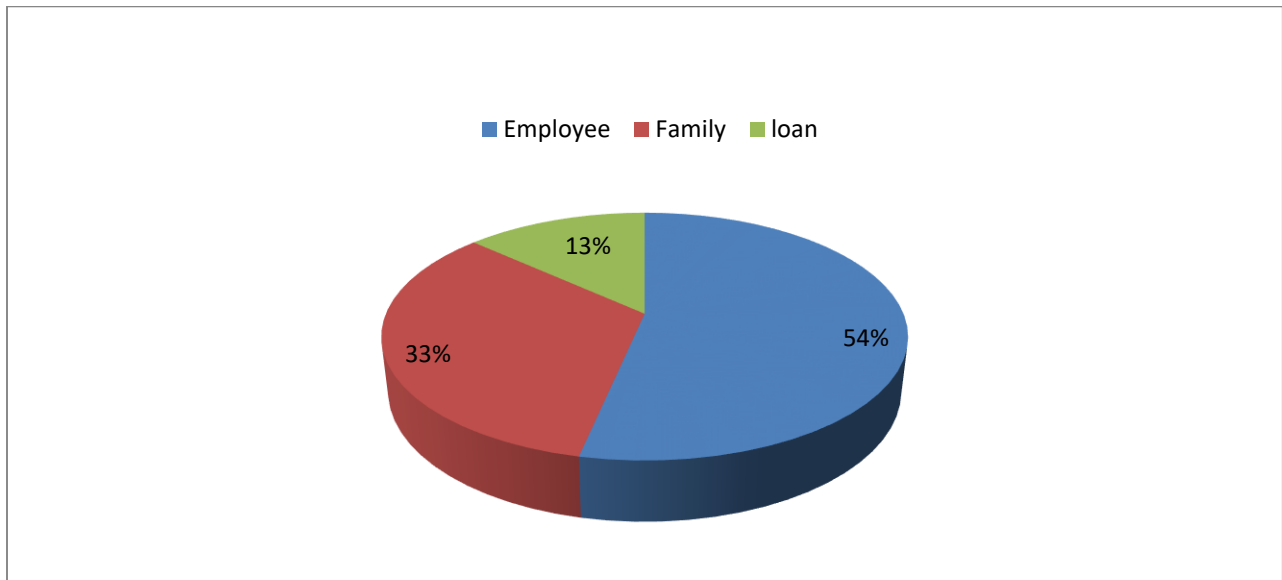


Figure 5 - The capital sources of women

Table 6 - Exemplifying factors motivate women to start small businesses

Type	Frequency	Percentages
Lack of job	5	33%
lack of basic family needs	8	54%
Income Opportunity	2	13%
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The next table 6 below summarizes, in lack of basic family needs t the results shown that single which respondents of the distributed questionnaire which respondents' rate 8 (54.0%) the second respondent were Lack of job which

respondent rate 5 (33%) the third respondent were Income Opportunity which respondent rate 2 (13.1%)

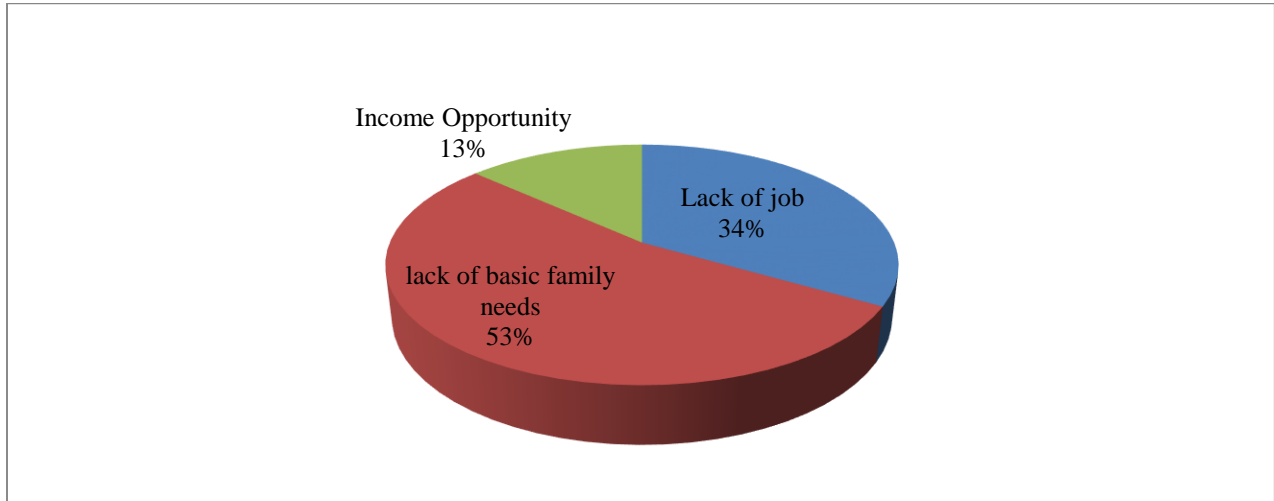


Figure 6 - Exemplifying factors motivate women to start small businesses

## 2.6 Summary

To summarise, it is important to point out the potential for further research. Researches so far were not able to explain how the application of HRM policies and procedures based on diversity management connect with the business strategy of the organisation. Having that in mind, HRM should have a strategic approach to creation, implementation and evaluation of the said policies and procedures. Specifically in relation to HRM and professional development and promotion of women in organisations the researcher so far has mainly focused on white women, representing majority of women. Future research should include the problems relating to women from different ethical groups and women with disabilities in their analysis, implicating that HRM practice should be adjusted to women from different social groups (Proudford, 1999). The HRM practice aimed in removing

obstacles in career development of white women should be adjusted to include women from different ethnic groups (Bell and Nkomo, 2001).).

Important aspect in research relates to the age differences among women. Negative stereotypes about older women have negative effect on both man and women (Perry and Parlamis, 2006), indicating that those stereotypes are more prominent in older women than older men (McKelvie, 1993). We can conclude that outcomes in professional development are gender sensible and future research should take that into account. Another important aspect is treatment of persons with disabilities at work, especially women. Research in Canada indicated that women with disabilities faced additional humiliation at work due to their disability (Carr et al., 2003). Additional research is necessary to explore the efficiency of HRM practice towards employees with disabilities, especially women.

The increasing rates of women contributing in the work force has led to a more equal disbursement of hours worked across the regions of the world. Empowerment of women enhances the quality and the quantity of human resources available for development. Empowerment is one of the main procedural concerns when addressing human rights and development.

Table 7 - Descriptive statistics

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>				
<b>Strengths and weaknesses of women as human resource</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
Women as human resource include planning, recruitment and selection process, posting job	80	3.33	1.14402	<b>strengths</b>

ads, evaluating the performance of employees				
Women as human resource employment gaps problems are far wider among parents than those without children	80	3.45	1.14402	<b>Weaknesses</b>
Women Increasing human resource goals and strategies planning component came into play as a result of companies	80	3.48	1.00900	<b>Strengths</b>
Women will lack particular job experiences that are not available within their specific job, human resource , making them unqualified for	80	3.51	1.00930	<b>Strengths</b>
Quitting work, women often work shorter hours than employed, that's human resource management company.	80	3.58	1.08833	<b>Weaknesses</b>
<b>Mean Index</b>	80	<b>3.204</b>	<b>6.52937</b>	<b>Strengths</b>

### 3. RECOMMENDATIONS

After obtaining using women as human resource in the company Somalia, the information through data collection by interviewing women employee and owners in company Somalia and observing the situations of the market; the researcher would like to recommend the following tips:

- The women managers HR describe their working environments as characterized by the presence of negative perceptions and stereotypes about women's professional abilities and commitment to work and thus they face discrimination in moving to the top ladders of the organization and which reports that it is the gender stereotyping, cultural beliefs, and male counterpart's

behaviour that creates hindrances for the women in moving to the higher positions.

- The performances of Women employees are evaluated differently than male employees. They have analysed the actual performance evaluation data, which shows that women are systematically rated as performing less well than men even after controlling for ability and experience, and that the biased performance evaluations are greater in male gender-typed jobs and to receive on the job training and apprenticeship opportunities than women. While on the other hand, women receive more off the job training opportunities than male employees.
- To increase the women participating in the labour force and becoming competitive, and businesses are recognizing that gender diversity in their workforce is necessary for competitive business performance to analysing the gender pay gap across different sectors via- public and private sectors. The results of which revealed that gender pay gap exists and female employees are underpaid than their male counterparts
- To make the survey that asked companies how employers' organizations and chambers of commerce could best support them in implementing initiatives to ensure women and men have equal opportunities in their career paths which revealed that women employees are underpaid as compared to their male counterparts, because there are stereotypes which believe that women do not possess the ability as men do and therefore, they do not deserve same pay as received by their male counterpart
- The Woman employees of different age groups working in the private organisations of Pokhara (Nepal), the results of which revealed that women employees did not perceive discrimination in career advancement Human Resource and indeed had considered that male behaviour towards them was

positive. Thus, the results were in contradiction with respect to the other studies supporting discrimination in career advancement.

- Women get less on the job training than men even after controlling various factors via- human capital and occupational segregation hat women employees working in banks experience discrimination in training and are denied training opportunities with the belief that they will not be interested in joining such programmes.

Women small businesses in Puntland are commonly large number but, they are not successful as well as they a lot of that caused by lack of resources there are many challenges which face women in starting and running small business, because women mostly do not obtain the financial support also they make fund rising because they invest their profit to needs and development their of children, there are many challenges which face women in starting and running small business, because women mostly do not obtain the financial support also they make fund rising because they invest their profit to needs and development their of children Nevertheless, the majority of women in business work under extremely difficult conditions; they have no child care, facilities for business, proper transportation and sanitation in a work place. So they need support for both financially and technically. Women empowerment is the most important strategy to promote women in business. It's very important in strengthening women's self-reliance, to educate women how to organize business plan, cost control, marketing management and any other entrepreneurial spirit activities. Furthermore, empowering women in both educationally and economically will play a vital role in the politically, socially and economic development in the country Work place policy has a negative contribution for improving the level of women participation at managerial position at organizational companies. These Work place policy are reflected in the form of no organizational companies, absence of Flexible working

hours for breast feeding, Discrimination during hiring/recruiting, similar job evaluation criteria with male and have no special Promotion Policies for women.

De Lysa Burnier (2003) calls for a transformation of the field of public administration through a deeper interrogation of gender. Hutchinson and Mann (2004) similarly call for a feminist re-visioning of public administration. Human resource management practices represent but a small slice of the field, but changes in HRM practices affect the working lives of public administration professionals. The purpose of this article was to demonstrate how HRM practices reproduce gendered norms. Ongoing research of public sector organizations—using the propositions we present here—would resuscitate an area of inquiry that Stivers (2010) declares “all but stalled” (p. 220). Knowing that gendered organizations and their gendered practices are not a function of sex representation, but rather are deeply engrained roles and expectations, we can no longer use statistics on the growth of women in full-time employment or examples of women in upper management as proxies for fairer and more humane workplaces. Public sector human resource managers can no longer presume workplace equity based on the number of male and female workers in their agencies. Rather, a wholesale investigation and reorganization of the workplace and its expectations of workers is needed. Work culture must acknowledge that women, as well as men, have lives outside the cubicle and allow professional ambition to include flextime and family leave, too. It costs little to incorporate life-friendly policies, but they are invaluable to parents, employee caregivers, and those who need to make time for self-care. Dismantling the organization man will lead to a new workplace where humans will thrive and thus their work will flourish. This can happen in future research that recasts our propositions as testable hypotheses to examine gendered organizations, either empirically (Horiuchi, 2005) or interpretively (Burnier, 2005), by capturing



the narratives of public sector workers seeking balance between their work roles and care roles.

## CONCLUSION

Despite the growing feminisation of the global labour market, discrimination against women in the workplace remains entrenched. Such discrimination of women is largely attributed to human resource management (HRM) policies and practices, which are inherently masculine, designed by men for men (Ansari et al. 2016; International Labour Organisation (ILO) 2016; Stamarski& Song Hing 2015). Often such masculine HRM policies and practices are a source of great psychological and physical distress, mental and physical ill-health, job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and high turn-over rates amongst female employees (Borrel et al. 2010; Schmader, Johns & Forbes 2008). Women entered the HR profession in large numbers again in the 2009s when the emergence of a complex web of federal employment legislation dramatically increased the demand for HR staff (Simpson & Lenoir, 2003). This rapid increase in demand apparently outstripped the supply of available men and opened up new opportunities for women (Reskin &Roos, 2019; Simpson & Lenoir, 2003). The increase in clerical work associated with legal compliance also may have contributed to the increase in women incumbents during this time, since men may have been perceived as a misfit for this type of work.<sup>1</sup> certainly the contemporary feminization trend within personnel work

Although Somali women have played a dynamic role in starting businesses in Somalia, there are few consequences those face them and lead their businesses to become unsuccessful. Those consequences we will comprehensively talk in problem statement. The sections of this study will be containing: second section

Literature review; this section we will be seen what the previous researchers have discovered about the using women as Human resource in Somalia. Third Methodology of the study that we will also perceive the methods used to approve these statement, this section are including research design, population of the study(women as HR Company) and sampling. (Organization)

Women are implicated in the last two of the three categories of ‘special need employees’ who stand to gain a lot from continuing training and development, in that they tend to be worse hit than men by technical changes such as advances in computer technology (International Labour Organisation- ILO, 1998b; 1998c); and also because of their simultaneous over-representation in low-skilled jobs and under-representation in management (Berry, 1998). The concept of ‘glass ceiling’ describes women’s inability to progress to management positions because of invisible barriers erected by male-dominated management; while tokenism describes the limited presence of women in a particular job position or work environment (Sharma, 1997; Lindsey et al., 2000)

This research makes a number of strategic and theoretical contributions in relation to career management theory and practices that seek to address barriers and enablers for the progression of women in HR middle management into more senior positions. Recent CIPD (2017a) career advice for HR professionals looking to advance their careers into HR leadership roles only makes fleeting reference to gender issues and ignores ethnicity and class, as potentially significant in shaping the experiences and opportunities afforded to women in the profession (see CIPD publication 2017 ‘How to become a HR leader). This is despite their own research (CIPD, 2013),

There are many research methodologies to collect data in my research paper; Despite the shortage of concrete research and studies previous done both literature

review and primary data through data collection and interview with women it involves in companies will be the methodology of this study to achieve its intended objectives. The primary data collection will assisted in providing facts and figures for comparison and analysis while, the literature review providing an in depth background information on existing records I will use questionnaire and interview to obtain empirical data which explicitly represent my lovely, beloved of women business owners of Somalia in order to attain their views about Somalia women as Human resource company. The researcher will also use the literature review by using available data in order to attain the ideas of previous researchers, and studies about the role of women as Human resource in Somali Company. The population of this study will be the women Employee companies in Somalia; the research will target 10 to women Employee companies product. This number of women will be an adequate representative for testing purpose.

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**Публичная оферта (лицензионный договор)  
на размещение материалов выпускной квалификационной работы  
в электронно-библиотечной системе УрФУ**

Настоящий «Авторский договор» (далее «Договор») определяет взаимоотношения между Федеральным государственным автономным образовательным учреждением высшего профессионального образования «Уральский федеральный университет имени первого Президента России Б.Н. Ельцина», именуемое в дальнейшем **Университет**, в лице ректора Кокшарова Виктора Анатольевича, действующего на основании Устава, с одной стороны, и студентом, завершающим обучение по образовательной программе высшего образования (магистратурѐ), принявшим публичное предложение (оферту) о заключении настоящего Договора, именуемый в дальнейшем **Автором**.

Настоящий Договор в соответствии с п.2 ст. 437 Гражданского кодекса РФ является публичной офертой, полным и безоговорочным принятием (акцептом) которой, в соответствии со ст. 438 ГК РФ, считается направление Автором своих материалов выпускной квалификационной работы в электронно-библиотечную систему УрФУ (vkr.urfu.ru)

Положения настоящего Договора относятся к материалам выпускной квалификационной работы, предоставляемых Автором в электронной форме для размещения в электронно-библиотечной системе УрФУ, проводимого в соответствии с Приказом МОН РФ от 29 июля 2015 года № 636 «Об утверждении Порядка проведения государственной итоговой аттестации по образовательным программам высшего образования – программам бакалавриата, программам специалитета, программа магистратуры»; приказом ректора УрФУ от 01 декабря 2015 года «О введении в действие Порядка проведения государственной итоговой аттестации в УрФУ».

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– создать печатную копию Произведения;

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5.2. Заключением Договора со стороны Автора, то есть полным и безоговорочным принятием (акцептом) Автором условий Договора является выполнение Автором любого из нижеследующих действий:

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Группа : УГИМ-200053, Исследование роли женщин как

человеческого ресурса в компаниях Сомали / The study of the role of women as human resource in the Somalia's companies

Подпись (\_\_\_\_\_)

07.06.2022

## ПРОСТАЯ НЕИСКЛЮЧИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЛИЦЕНЗИЯ № \_\_\_\_\_

Екатеринбург

« \_\_\_\_ » \_\_\_\_\_ 20\_\_ г.

Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение высшего образования «Уральский федеральный университет имени первого Президента России Б.Н. Ельцина», именуемое в дальнейшем «Лицензиат» в лице первого заместителя проректора по науке Кружаева Владимира Венедиктовича, действующего на основании доверенности 14-05/80 от 01.01.2022 г., с одной стороны, и гражданин (ка) мохамед Б.О именуемый(ая) в дальнейшем «Автор», с другой стороны, заключили настоящий договор о следующем:

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1.6. Настоящий договор является безвозмездным.

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2.1. Автор передает Лицензиату файлы, содержащие полную электронную версию Диссертации в формате pdf.

2.2. Автор гарантирует идентичность переданного полного текста Диссертации печатной версии Диссертации.

### 3. ПРАВА И ОБЯЗАННОСТИ СТОРОН

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3.2. Лицензиат обязуется:

- предоставить Автору право в любое время знакомиться с условиями использования электронной версии Диссертации, размещенной в Электронном научном архиве УрФУ;  
- использовать Диссертацию только способами, предусмотренными в настоящем договоре.

3.3. Лицензиат имеет право преобразовать (конвертировать) электронный документ, в котором представлена Диссертация, в единый формат, используемый в Электронном научном архиве УрФУ.

3.4. Автор имеет право:

- проверять порядок и условия использования Диссертации;
- использовать самостоятельно или предоставлять аналогичные права на использование Диссертации третьим лицам.

3.5. Автор обязуется незамедлительно поставить в известность Лицензиата о передаче исключительных прав на Диссертацию третьему лицу.

#### 4. ПОРЯДОК РАЗРЕШЕНИЯ СПОРОВ. ОТВЕТСТВЕННОСТЬ СТОРОН

4.1. За неисполнение или ненадлежащее исполнение обязательств, предусмотренных настоящим договором, стороны несут ответственность в соответствии с законодательством РФ.

4.2. Автор несет ответственность перед Лицензиатом за достоверность сведений об обладателе исключительных прав на Диссертацию. В случае предъявления претензий и исков со стороны действительных обладателей прав на Диссертацию к Лицензиату, Автор несет ответственность в соответствии с законодательством РФ.

4.3. Лицензиат несет ответственность за соблюдение авторских прав в соответствии с действующим законодательством РФ.

4.4. Все споры, так или иначе касающиеся настоящего договора, разрешаются сторонами путем переговоров.

#### 5. ЗАКЛЮЧИТЕЛЬНЫЕ ПОЛОЖЕНИЯ

5.1. Настоящий договор вступает в силу с момента подписания сроком на 5 лет.

5.2. Стороны вправе расторгнуть договор по взаимному письменному соглашению.

5.3. В случае, если ни одна из сторон не уведомит о своем желании расторгнуть договор за 14 календарных дней до момента его окончания, договор считается пролонгированным на тех же условиях и на тот же срок.

5.4. Настоящий договор может быть расторгнут досрочно в случае неисполнения одной из сторон обязательств по данному договору.

5.5. Во всем ином, что не предусмотрено настоящим договором, стороны руководствуются нормами ГК РФ.

#### 6. ПОДПИСИ СТОРОН

Автор:  
Мохаммед Балкиз Осман  
Адрес:( Екатеринбург, улица  
Комсомольская, дом 70)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Автор \_\_\_\_\_  
(Мохамед Балкиз Осман )

Лицензиат:  
ФГАОУ ВО «УрФУ имени первого Президента  
России Б.Н. Ельцина» или УрФУ

Первый заместитель проректора по науке

\_\_\_\_\_ В. В. Кружаев



## Appendix G

**Метаданные магистра :** Мохамед.Б.О

- фамилия, имя, отчество автора (полностью, а не инициалы) –

- фамилия, имя, отчество руководителя (также полностью) –

Елена Владимировна Лысенко

ElenaVladimirovna Lysenko;

- название диссертации : The study using women as human resource in the company) –

- аннотация – на русском.

Основной целью данного исследования является изучение использования женщин в качестве человеческого ресурса в компании Сомали. Установить равные возможности для женщин и управление людскими ресурсами в случае Сомали. Объектом этого исследования будут компании, работающие с женщинами в Сомали; исследование будет нацелено на 10 компаний, работающих с женщинами. Это число женщин будет адекватным представителем для целей тестирования. Для определения дискриминации женщин и людских ресурсов в случае Сомали. Чтобы определить роль женских человеческих ресурсов в успехе организации в Сомали, в моей исследовательской работе есть много исследовательских методологий для сбора данных; Несмотря на нехватку конкретных исследований и исследований, ранее проведенных, методологией этого исследования будет обзор литературы и первичные данные путем сбора данных и интервью с женщинами, работающими в компаниях. достичь намеченных целей. Первичный сбор данных поможет предоставить факты и цифры для сравнения и анализа, в то время как обзор литературы, предоставляющий подробную справочную информацию о существующих записях, я буду использовать анкетирование и интервью для получения эмпирических данных, которые явно отражают мою прекрасную, любимую женщин-владельцев бизнеса в Сомали, чтобы узнать их мнение о Сомали. женщины как кадровая компания.

Дополнительно только на русском языке:

- название и номер направления магистерской подготовки,

38.04.03 – Управление персоналом

- название института

Уральский гуманитарный институт

- название кафедры

Кафедра управления персоналом и психологии

- дата рождения магистранта (01.01.1998)

- годы обучения магистранта в магистратуре: 2020-2022 (срок обучения – 2 года (очная форма обучения).

гражданство (сомали) -