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Structure, Gender, Tribalism, And Workplace Power In Libya

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to every mother who struggles for the best.

To my parents, Abdallha and Khayria.

Without their prayers, I would not be what I am today.

To the loving memory of my grandfather Ezzeddin, who taught me how to be a man in a society

where woman is considered as minor and needed a man to protect and take care of her.

To my husband Mohamed, who has been a constant source of support.

For his patience and his faith,

because he always understood.

To my lovely kids, Aisha, Salwa, and Sanad

You have made me stronger, better and more fulfilled than I could have ever imagined.

Love you.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Research demonstrates that legal-rational and traditional authorities co-exist in Libyan workplaces (Alarife, 2001; Rashed, 2004). To illustrate how these models occur concurrently, researchers show that 46% of hiring decisions made for the public sector are related to political loyalty to the regime, and 41% to education and experience. Whereas 54% of employees in high level positions have been hired because of their relationships with and loyalty to the regime, only 41% were employed because of their education or experience. Notably, only 1% of those employees in high level positions are women. These results are considered an indicator of the pluralism of labor standards or lack thereof, suggesting we should consider these factors to understand decision-making process. Hiring employees loyal to a particular regime has consequences for daily work experiences, and may limit individual's ability to make decisions.

Libyan workplaces have moved toward a more rational legal system that includes formalized rules and procedures, but traditional forms of power rooted in tribalism and patriarchy remain. Given this hybrid organizational structure, questions remain: What is the nature of workplace power and its distribution? How does tribalism shape power and its distribution? What role does gender play in relation to power? How might other sociodemographic variables of employees matter for understanding the distribution of power? What is the relationship among workplace structure, tribalism, gender, and workplace power?

Power is the ability to make and influence decisions (Parsons, 1950; Smith, 2002; Weber, 1976). The distribution of power refers to an individual's formal location within the workplace structure (Kluegel, 1978; Wright et al., 1982; Speath, 1985; Wright et al., 1995). Typically, power

is hierarchically distributed and flows downward from the top of the workplace structure. At the top, a worker obtains power from his/her location in the hierarchy. One becomes powerful because of his/her expertise and special knowledge and because of the ability to control and manipulate information.

Scholars have long recognized that workplace power derives its legitimacy through formal positions indicated by the importance of expertise and commitment (Becker, 1960; Fayol, 1949; Kanter, 1977; Parson, 1950; Weber, 1976), particularly influenced through social-cultural heritage that includes family, tribal assets, and relationships with political groups (Durkheim, 1893; Ibn Khaldun, 1377; Marx, 1884; Weber, 1958). More recently, scholars have drawn our attention to how gender preference regarding management positions and access to opportunities and resources in workplace also impacts power (Acker, 1990; Connell, 2010; Heilman, 2001; Kolb et al., 2011; Tong, 2009; Ridgeway, 2014).

As conceptualized by Weber (1976), the ideal structure of power should be characterized by the standard comprised of rules and regulations, which are based on the legitimacy of the law and the ideals of rightness, duty, and loyalty, all of which create the connections between superior and subordinate positions in the hierarchy. Thus, an individual's power is subject to legal standards and governed by those determinants stemming from structural workplace characteristics. The workplace structure imposes restrictions on individuals in the area of decision-making through the degree of formalization, the division of labor or specialization of job tasks, and the degree of centralization versus decentralization. Formalization includes job codification, a set of standards that give work roles a degree of standardization, and the range of rules that define which members of the organizational structure will perform which tasks, duties, and/or responsibilities (Hage & Aiken 1967). Formalization also includes rules and regulations of enforcement, or the degree to

which the behaviors of organizational members are subject to workplace control (Hall, 1968). Precise definitions of roles and positions, and the expectations held within the workplace are necessary to avoid the possibility of interference in areas of specialization (Parsons, 1950). The division of labor, sometimes referred to as specialization, is one mechanism that imposes some restrictions on the individual in the area of decision-making by identifying the particular task and codified procedures prescribed by a series of steps designed to advance the decision-making process appropriately.

Centralization refers to the concentration of power. Centralized workplace structures imply that authority is concentrated and assigned to a select few employees, such that those few people at the top of the hierarchy have greater power than those who are at the base (Perrow, 2002). The degree of centralization/decentralization provides a view of how much employees participate in decisions made about the allocation of resources, the determination of workplace policies (Hage & Aiken 1967), and the degree to which the organization's employees participate in making decisions revolving around the tasks associated with his or her position (Hage & Aiken 1967). Although a decentralized workplace structure implies that management authorizes those employees holding positions at lower workplace levels to make decisions, power is about the availability of it to be used by workers at all levels (Lipset & Bendix, 1991). That is, decision making power may be codified and formalized in job descriptions, but if employees do not feel they have the ability to enact those decisions, then their power is greatly diminished, suggesting a higher degree of centralization than what appears in formal rules.

Sociologists argue that the act and process of decision-making is not only a function of role and who is located in that role, but is also associated within the larger sociocultural, political, and economic context (Marx, 1894; Weber, 1976; Sorokin, 1925; and Wright, 1979). Merton points

out that organization may be subjected to the rigidities and an inability to adjust readily because of the intervention of external factors, which result in informal and non-objective goals taking precedence above the objectives of the organization, and thus reduces organizational efficiency (Merton, 1968). Most relevant for this study is a phenomenon of "Budocrate," an attitude common in Arab society, which asserts that workplace structure must include the filling of leadership positions based on factors of social background. This practice is similar to the idea of nepotism. Rumaihi (1998) uses this term to describe tribal and Bedouin relationships as they exist in the workplace setting of the Arabian Gulf, and to further elucidate how governmental institutions do not adhere to the official procedure based on the desirability of measurable characteristics such as one's area of specialty, rate of completion, and accuracy at work. Instead, hiring decisions are typically based on whether a candidate originates from the ruling tribe, regardless of any qualifications related to the job, contradicting the idea of power based on a rational-legal organizational structure. This ultimately leads to the conversion of formalization within an organization to Bedouin objectives that are covered by bureaucratic form and further combines the institutions of nomadism and bureaucracy[1].

Finally, a significant body of scholarship illustrates how power is unevenly distributed across gender. Acker's (1990) groundbreaking article that theorizes how work organizations are gendered organizations has challenged previous theorizing on workplace structures. She argues that workplace policies and practices create expectations that favor men (Acker, 1990). The "ideal worker" is rational, is a strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other

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[1] This combination of nomadism and bureaucracy because of asabiyya "'social cohesion, tribal solidarity" becomes invested in social, economic, and political structure of society to maintain "ruler attitude". Ibn Khaldun described this kind of bureaucracy as "a ruler can achieve power only with the help of his own people. They are his group and his helpers in his enterprise, it is they with whom he fills the administrative offices. They help him to achieve superiority. They participate in government. They share in all his other important affairs."(Mieczkowski, 1991, p90). The concept of asabiyya recalls Durkheim's concept of solidarity.

responsibilities (Britton 2000; Williams 2000). Whereas employers presume that men embody these expectations, they perceive that women are less rational, more expressive, unable to work long hours, and less committed to work, particularly if they are mothers (Benard and Correll 2010). Consequently, women are funneled into positions with little decision-making capacity, fewer resources, and lower pay compared to men (Kanter 1977; Reskin and Padavic 1994). Women's power in the workplace remains constrained.

The purpose of this study is to examine power in the workplace. Studying a workplace organization in Libya provides a unique context to examine what factors influence decision making. First, traditional identities constitute an important basis in the culture of the workplace in Libya. Rashed (2004) finds that workers with a particular tribal affiliation are treated differently than those with other affiliations. For example, workers may be hired simply because of this affiliation rather than for his/her qualifications and ability to be able to fulfill the requirements of the particular position. Or, workers who belong to a powerful tribe may garner the ability to become involved in the process of decision making, or may be offered priority access to privileges such as an apartment, a car, a gas card, and promotions. Similarly, Kaled Alrahal (2012) finds that 69.3% of the workers in commercial banks were biased toward customers who came from their tribe and city.

Second, the Libyan context also offers an important way to study how gender in the workplace carries a different meaning that is characterized by the power of inherited custom and tradition. Legally, Libyan law requires all institutions and companies to enforce gender equality, and maintains that a man and a woman hold equal positions and earn equal salaries. Boukaiqis (2013) argues that what prevents women from access to high-level positions is a social, and not a legal, reason. Obeidi (1996) finds that during the past four decades, the position of women and

their role in society has been one of the dominant issues in the regime's ideology. The Gaddafi regime introduced a number of organizations and concepts which were intended to promote the role of the "new woman." The main ones were those of the Women's Revolutionary Committees, the Female Guards, and the Revolutionary Nuns. These organizations and concepts have brought some Libyan women into the elite. However, these notions have not been popular among women at the grassroots level nor among the vast majority of Libyans in general.

The goal of this quantitative study is to examine employee authority and influence within the workplace. Specifically, the research objectives are: 1) to describe the standardization of workplace power regarding structural characteristics, as defined by formalization, centralization, and specialization; 2) to investigate the relationship between gender and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making; 3) to examine the relationship between tribal identification and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making, and 4) to explore work commitment and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making. This study intends to determine which variables explain the most variance in the distribution of workplace power. Data was gathered using a self-administered questionnaire given to a disproportionate stratified random sampling of employees working at Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

1.2 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because recent events in Libya have drawn attention to the ability of the Libyan institutions to continue and survive despite the insecurity and the dispersion of the government after the February Revolution in 2011. Economists, psychologists, and sociologists have paid close attention to the workplace power. Many researchers have explored the formal workplace power "authority" with regards to workplace structures characteristics, and the attitudes of top positional employees towards the formal authority. However, few studies have examined

workplace power toward the informal power "influence" and the consequences such effects of tribal accession, personal relationships, and gender on the distribution of workplace power. In addition, many existing studies on workplace power have used workplace power as independent variable that affects the productivity and efficiency of workplace and its employees. This study conceptualizes workplace power as the dependent variable and studies the factors that contribute to its shape. The emphasis of previous research on the relationship between gender inequality and workplace power has left many questions unanswered about differences with respect to tribal identification. More importantly, there has been very little empirical research conducted about the sociological topic of workplace power in Libya. In sum, this study contributes to our knowledge on workplace power because (1) the effect of tribalism on the distribution of workplace power has been ignored in scholarly research, (2) there is little published research related to the impact of tribalism in Azzawiya city, and (3) it is worth noting that the absence of reliable updated statistical information about Libyan women in the labor force, hinders a proper understanding of the role of women in Libyan society, and of the changes over the last decade.

1.3 Overview of the Study

This dissertation consists of five chapters. Following this introduction to the study, Chapter 2 consists of a literature review on workplace power, providing a general understanding of power, workplace structure's characteristics and power, gender and power, and tribalism and power. Also included in this chapter is a description of the context of Libya, paying particular attention to the role of tribes as social institutions in Libya. Chapter 3 presents the methodology employed, including research hypotheses, design, sample and setting, measurement, instrument and procedure, and statistical analyses techniques. In this chapter, I also discuss framework which is the basis of this study. Chapter 4 presents the findings of study; describes the workplace

organization in terms of formalization, specialization, centralization; presented are the univariate statistics which provide further evidence to describe this workplace organization, and presents the bivariate and multivariate data analysis, focusing on the results of how gender, tribalism, and workplace commitment matter for the ability to make decisions and influence decision making. In short, it examines the distribution of power at this workplace. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the major research findings for each of the workplace power and its relations to the theory, followed by outlining the conclusion, the strengths and limitations of the study, and the directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

"The best way to study power is by reading its classical texts[2]"

In this chapter, I review the relevant literature about structure, gender, tribalism, and workplace power. Since the study focuses on Libya, I also provide a brief history of the political system, tribe and tribalism, and the role of women within Libyan society. This review is essential to learn about and understand the relationship between structure's characteristics, gender difference, tribal identity, and people's authority and influence within workplace; to help recognize trends and methodology used in the reviewed research. Further, it helps identify appropriate variables that can be utilized to derive conclusions about people's power in the workplace. Finally, I also present the theoretical framework and the research hypotheses that inform this study.

2.1 Understanding Power

Although the topic of power is both traditional and complex, it remains puzzling to empirical researchers because of its multi-faceted meanings. I review a range of perspectives about power and provide a general understanding and critique of each one that I have selected for this study. Upon reviewing the literature of power, I have found that there are various issues that affect our individual and collective human understanding of power. For example, there are numerous definitions of power, each possessing the capacity for different meanings with a given culture or society, and, importantly, there are the aspects integral to the ambiguity of the relationship between compliance and obedience, as well as to the manifestations of rejection and coercion. The essence of the problem of understanding power, argues Parsons, is establishing the definition of power (Gamson, 1968). Scholars have proposed that power is best defined as the concept of the implicit which conveys the idea of selective privilege for some, and results in the subordination of others

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[2] *Harold Laski*

(Scott, 2007), as facility (Mills, 1989), or as legitimacy (Weber, 1947). Thus, these models ascribe three meanings to the concept of power: 1) coercion or oppression, 2) the ability of one social group to influence the behavior of another group, and 3) the right that includes what is known as "legal guidance" (Gamson, 1968).

Scholars clarify the nature of power through its presence in the following societal elements: authority, influence, force, and authoritarianism. However, some scholars reject that premise because they view these same elements to be interchangeable in meaning. Yet others purport that it is wrong to distinguish between the terms of influence, authority, and power. Riker (1964), for example, believes that the concept of power itself should be banished. His call to renounce the concept of power underscores the fundamental ambiguities inherent among the range of definitions of power and have been shown to reflect and to have taken root in similar ambiguities about the nature of causation. For all this complexity and haziness, scholars offer four perspectives that define power and its resources (Dillaway, 2012).

The first perspective argues that power is super ordinate. This view means that person "A" controls and holds power over person "B." In his book entitled "Leviathan", Thomas Hobbes, the English philosopher, emphasized the necessity of a strong central authority to avoid the evil of discord and "war of all against all" (Hindess, 1996). Even then during the 17th century, Hobbes had understood power in primarily instrumentalist and individualist ways (Saar, 2010).

The second perspective argues that power cannot be held but it is exercised. Michel Foucault, the 20th century French historian and philosopher, believed that power is everywhere and not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere. According to Foucault, power is not an institution, and not a structure; neither is it a certain strength we are endowed with; it is the name that one attributes to a complex, strategically situation in a particular society (Lukes,

2005). He argues that "Knowledge is power". knowledge serves as a technique of power. In modern societies use knowledge to exercise power. it is constituted through accepted form of knowledge and reinforced constantly through the education system, the media, and through the flux of political and economic ideology. These helps create a discursive practice or a body of knowledge and behavior that defines what is normal and acceptable as a 'common sense'.

The third perspective argues that power is relational. This viewpoint analyzes power in terms of social relations, although various researchers have different explanations about its source. This perspective argues that person "B" also has some kind of power that gives him the right to negotiate with person "A." As Dahrendorf (1957) wrote, power "is an essential aspect of social stratification." As a result, the distribution of power originates from different sources depending upon the economic, political, and social contexts. Relational power scholars determined different sources that reflect the inequality of workplace power, such as class (Marx, 1894; Wright, 1979; Ryan, 2002) and gender (Acker, 2006; Elliott and Ryan, 2004).

The fourth perspective is termed critical perspective which states that power is conceptualized as domination, and actions taken to challenge it constitute resistance to domination. Scholars have tried to operationalize power according to its dimensional properties. According to Dahl, power has but one dimension which is decision–making (Dahl, 1961). Dahl's decision-making model argues that A has manifest power over B and that it is observable in their behavior: A is able to prevent an attempt by B to pass legislation about climate change. In the overt dimension of power relations, A's power over B is manifested to the extent that A can make B do something which B would not have done had it not been for A. The overt dimension of power may be investigated by means of behavioral observation: who participates, who profits, who loses, and who expresses himself throughout the decision-making process. As far as the first dimension of

power is concerned, business practices transfer some resources to employees. But, senior managers often retain control of many important resources, especially the right to hire, fire, promote, distribute rewards, and control budgets, rather than delegating such resources to employees. Thus, the control of at least some of the resources associated with the first dimension of power remains with existing power holders.

Researchers have found that the decision-making model is narrow and uncovered the sources of power that allow actors, who do not possess legitimate authority, to influence decision outcomes (Hardy & O'Sullivan, 1998). Casper (1976) challenges Dahl's findings, criticizing his research, and concurring with others that Dahl's view and analysis were too narrow. The mode of Dahl's analysis might suggest that the law-making majority was no longer viable and, hence, the influence of the Court was not significant. Yet, this argument has the peculiar implication discussed above: if the Court acts and Congress overrides, then the Court has not been influential; yet, if the Court acts and Congress fails to override, then, again, the Court has not been influential, for we assume the law-making majority no longer exists.

Bachrach and Baratz (1962) deal mainly with the connection between the overt face of power, or the way decisions are made, and the covert face of power, which is the ability to prevent decision-making**.** Of course, power is exercised when A participates in the making of decisions that affect B. But power is also exercised when A devotes his/her energies to creating or reinforcing social and political values and institutional practices that limit the scope of the political process to public consideration of only those issues which are comparatively innocuous to A (Bachrach and Baratz, 1962). Compared to the first dimension, the second dimension of power emphasizes that employees may secure access to some decision-making processes from which they were previously excluded.

In the third dimension, Lukes (2005) points out that power is often used to shape peoples' "perceptions, cognitions, and preferences in such a way that they accept their role in the existing order of things, either because they can see or imagine no alternative to it, or because they view it as natural and unchangeable, or because they value it as divinely ordained and beneficial." The analysis of power, according to Lukes, must henceforth relate to the open decisions (of Dahl's overt face) and the non-decisions (of Bacharach and Baratz's covert face) and also to the entire political agenda, in order to examine its adequacy to the true interests of various groups.

In the third dimension of power, it can be viewed as an exercise in the management of meaning to enhance the legitimacy of organizational goals and to influence behavior unobtrusively. Also, all social interactions involve power because ideas operate behind all language and action. By managing meaning and using power to create the perception that organizational and employee interests converge, empowerment programs reduce the necessity of having to use more visible or coercive forms of power to ensure that organizational goals are met and to quell resistance. The stronger such unobtrusive, cultural controls are, the less likely organizational norms will be transgressed, and the more comfortable managers will feel in delegating power. Thus, managers are able to provide employees with greater access to resources, yet still avoid opposition by reducing the will or inclination of employees to use their new-found power to initiate adversarial strategies.

Lukes (2005) suggests another, more radical, explanation for the essentially contested nature of the concept of power. His conceptions of power argue that gender, race, and class are created by power relations. Here, too, Lukes re-conceptualizes the idea of "false consciousness." He emphasizes that domination can occur through explicit coercive means, but it can also occur through unconscious mechanisms. Lukes' concept of power has been discussed by other scholars.

For instance, critical writers point out that power is ideological, as well as economic and structural. Through the production of everyday beliefs and practices, power is used to produce apparent consensus and acquiescence, replacing visible controls by hidden cultural forms of domination (Mills, 1956). A good example of how ideological power can be given analytical value was elucidated in the Levy and Egan study (2003). They examine debates about climate change where large firms have shifted from an opposition to ideas of global warming to an acceptance. The shift has occurred not because of any (domination 1 or 2) change in the economic or political resources of firms or environmental lobbies, but rather "endogenous dynamics," namely, the emergence of a group of firms that saw benefits in moving from outright opposition toward a strategy of" win– win … ecological modernism" with market-based implementation mechanisms (Levy & Egan, 2003).

Burawoy (1985) has famously argued that power has set of beliefs expressed and reinforced a particular set of power relations. He argues that an engineering factory produces not only parts of engines but also ideology. Ideology is not only something that is created by the powerful and imposed on others, although, of course, it can embody that quality. Further, it is also produced in the process of social interaction, as in rituals and ceremonies, and in day-to-day life. Fantasia (1988) similarly addressed ideologies of solidarity in workplace struggles, arguing not that workers had a true consciousness but that the ways in which people behave can be explained in terms of their material conditions and the ways in which they give meaning to these conditions.

In summary, by broadening our understanding of power, it will become easier to comprehend how power is mobilized by dominant actors in a given setting. The dominant actor "A" prevails over the subordinate actor "B" by using resource interdependencies to influence decision outcomes in the first dimension; through the control of decision-making processes to limit

access and agendas in the second dimension; and by managing meaning to create legitimacy for an issue and thus prevent conflict in the third dimension (Hardy & O'Sullivan, 1998). The procedural definition of power as exercised by using various resources influences the outcome of decision-making processes and controls access to those processes, and by which we mean the legitimization of power through cultural and normative assumptions. In other words, we can recognize that workplace power arises from three levels: structural, interpersonal, and relational.

2.2.1 Workplace Structure's Characteristics and Power

This section reviews the relevant literature related to workplace structure. This study seeks to understand formal structure as source of power and how structure's characteristics affect the distribution of workplace power. The literature review begins with an appropriate definition of structure, then provides discussion that highlights the effects of workplace structure's characteristics in relation to workplace power: specifically, formalization, centralization, and specialization. In addition, this review provides a good direction for decision making process and helps to formulate study's hypotheses related to the relationship between workplace structure and power.

Giddens defines structure as "both constraining and enabling" (Ritzer, 1988). Giddens views structure as a cluster of rules and resources. The rules guide and inform the action, and the resources provide it with energy: purpose, power, and efficacy (William, 1992.p5). This study adopts a Giddens' definition of structure because it leads us directly to a better understanding of the nature of workplace power. Between constraining and enabling, rules and resources, access to and control, the effects of structure become clearly appear on distribution of workplace power. Kevin and Donald (2009) determined that workplace power is seen as resulting from access to and control over person, information, and instrumentalities.

Similarly, Kanter (1977) expresses the characteristics of a structure can either constrain or encourage optimal job performance. Workers' location in opportunity structures affects their objective possibility of promotion, which in turn affects the importance workers attach to being promoted (Cassirer & Reskin, 2000). According to Kanter, power is defined as the "ability to mobilize resources to get things done" (Kanter, 1993, p. 210). Power is 'on' when employees have access to lines of information, support, resources, and opportunities to learn and grow. When these 'lines' or sources are unavailable, power is 'off' and effective work is impossible. These lines of power are sources of employees' power (Alejandro & Yolanda, 2014; Nedd, 2006). The structure of power or the ability to mobilize resources through access to information, resources and support; and the relative proportion of similar employees or social composition of the work group.

Kanter believes that access to workplace power is associated with the amount of formal and informal power an employee has. Formal power can be obtained from jobs that allow for flexibility, creativity, and visibility in the organization. Formal power through job authority is also derived from jobs that are considered important and relevant to accomplishing the goals of the organization. Informal power through "influence" comes from relationships and networks with superiors, peers, and subordinates both within and outside the organization (Kanter, 1977).

Scholars assert that the workplace structure affects workplace action in two ways. First, it provides the foundation on which standard operating procedures and routines rest. Second, it determines which individuals get to participate in which decision - making processes, and thus to what extent their views shape the actions (Hackman & Walton, 1986; Kartz & Kahn, 1978; Jackson, Morgan, & Paolillo, 1989). The ideal workplace power should be characterized by the standard rules and regulations, based on the legitimacy of the law and the idea of right and duty, and loyalty that connects between superior and subordinate in the hierarchy (Weber, 1947;

Parsons, 1951; Perrow, 1970). Thus, individuals' power will be subject to legal standards and governed by the determinants stem from structural characteristics. The most important scholars who have identified workplace structure's characteristics are Pugh, Aiken, and Huge. Pugh and his colleagues (1963) have provided six primary dimensions of structure: (1) specialization, (2) standardization, (3) formalization, (4) centralization, (5) configuration, and (6) flexibility.

1) Formalization "rules"

Formalization is an important characteristic of a structure because structural frameworks provide guidance in determining who workers interact with in carrying out company duties. Formalization can include (1) statements of procedures, rules, roles (including contracts, agreements, and so on), and (2) operation of procedures, which deal with (a) decision seeking, (b) details of decisions and instructions (plans, minutes, requisitions, and so on), and (c) transmission of information, including feedback (Pugh, et al, 1963). Aiken and Huge (1966) defines formalization as the degree of work standardization and the amount of deviation that is allowed from standards. Similarly, Blau and Scott have described formalization as:

> . . . official procedures . . . which prescribe the appropriate reactions to recurrent
>
> situations and furnish established guides for decision making (Blau & Scott,
>
> 1962, p240).

Also, Zheng, et al. (2010) have studied formalization as the extent to which an organization uses rules and procedures to prescribe behavior. The nature of formalization is the degree to which the workers are provided with rules and procedures that deprive versus encourage creative, autonomous work and learning. It includes job codification that measure the degree of work standardization, that is, how many rules define what organizational members are to do (Hage and Aiken 1967, p. 79), Job specificity measures the degree to which procedures defining a job are

spelled out (Aiken & Hage 1968, p. 926). Strictness measures a dimension related to rule observation: the degree to which existing rules are enforced (Perrow 1970, p. 17). Rule observation measures whether rules are employed and enforced (Hage and Aiken 1967, p. 79). And, written communication measures the frequency of written communication as reported by individuals.

There are several empirical studies that have supported the effect of formalization on workplace action. Crozier (1963) suggests that there is a relationship between low participation in decision making and a high degree of job codification. Hage and Aiken (1967) find that "the absence of highly codified jobs can facilitate the decentralization of power. Under such circumstances, participants lower in the hierarchy are not controlled by rules and regulations, and they can gradually augment the power of their positions, and may undermine the power structure of the organization." (p.82). Chena and Huangb (2007) examine the effects of organizational climate and structure on knowledge management. Their findings show that when the structure is less formalized, more decentralized and integrated, social interaction is more favorable; and that social interaction is positively related to knowledge management. These empirical evidences indicate that social interaction plays the mediating role between structure, and knowledge management. In addition, Kevin and Donald (2009) found that organizational characteristics affect the access to managerial positions. For example, formalization, including written job descriptions, public postings of job openings, panel reviews of candidates, and various due process procedures, such as formal yearly evaluations, may reduce inequality through reducing the causal influence of cognitive bias in information processing.

Furthermore, Vazifedoust, Nasiri, and Norouzi (2012) have studied the relationship between organizational structure and employee empowerment in Eastern Azerbaijan. They find that the relationship exists between low organizational formality and employee empowerment of

eastern Azerbaijan governorship. Mahmood, Naziri, and Sis (2014) examine the relationship between empowerment and organizational structure in SEMET-CO Company in Iran. They find that there is a negative/reverse relationship between formalization and the employees' empowerment. Based on this relation, an increase in formalization leads to the decrease of the feeling of the staff's psychological empowerment.

2) Centralization of authority "resources":

The second characteristic is centralization. Centralization refers to the hierarchical level that has authority to make decision. If decisions are delegated to lower levels the organization is decentralized and if decision making power authority is kept at the top level it is centralized (Pugh, 1973). Menon and Varadarajan (1992) maintain that centralization fosters a hierarchical organizational structure whereby ultimate power and decision-making is concentrated at the top rather than shared with lower levels of the structure. Centralization refers to the locus of decision-making authority lying in the higher levels of a hierarchical relationship (Robbins & Decenzo, 2001). Centralization also creates a non-participatory environment that reduces communication, commitment, and involvement with tasks among participants" (Chen and Huang, 2007, p106). Weber notes how the low-ranking bureaucrat becomes familiar with the organization its rules and operations, the work flow, which gives him considerable power. Mechanic (2003) argues that there are some variables help to account in part for power exercised by lower participants in workplace; for instance, some attributes of persons related to power: commitment, skills. The findings supported his arguments that "commitment is a much more powerful organizational force than coercive authority." (p364). And, a participant who work in a low level has important expert knowledge not available to participants who work at high company level, he is likely to have power over them.

Additionally, Ferrell and Skinner (1988) find that authority is located in the formal hierarchy and reporting relationships of the bureaucracy. Two properties that identify authority are (1) position in the organization, rather than personal characteristics, and (2) the compliance of subordinates because they perceive that superiors have a legitimate right to exercise authority. Tannen (1959) suggests that there are two important aspects of centralization. First, organizations vary in the extent to which members are assigned tasks and then provided with the freedom to implement them without interruption from superiors; we call this the degree of hierarchy of authority. A second, and equally important, aspect of the distribution of power is the degree to which staff members participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization; we call this the degree of participation in decision-making.

Chandler (1960) examines hundreds of the largest American companies and identifies that the companies in his study had been first launched with centralized structures. This case reflects this fact that they first had limited production lines. Decisions can be centralized under the authority of one senior manager, because organization's strategy is focused here and a structure that can implement this strategy must have little complexity and formality. Chen and Huang (2007) claim that decentralized and informal structure will lead to higher performance. In addition, the findings of several studies show the negative effect for centralized structure and suggest that highly centralized organizations—those with little autonomy over individually assigned tasks and little participation in agency-wide decisions—are likely to have high rates of work alienation. Blauner (1964) argues that workers have strong feelings of powerlessness in industries such as textiles and automobiles in which the workers have little control over the conditions of employment.

Furthermore, Zheng and Jia (2010) show that a number of studies that have found negative effects for centralization; for example, high centralization inhibits interactions among

organizational members (Gold et al., 2001), reduces the opportunity for individual growth and advancement (Kennedy, 1983), and prevents imaginative solutions to problems (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). On the contrary, decentralization facilitates internal communication (Bennett and Gabriel, 1999), adoption of innovation (Miller, 1971), and higher levels of creativity (Khandwalla, 1977). However, apart from a minority of studies that demonstrate a positive impact of high centralization on organizational effectiveness, many scholars have agreed that a decentralized organizational structure is conducive to organizational effectiveness. decentralization improves effectiveness because it gives the decision maker the ability to plan, coordinate, and control all activities (Rueket et al. 1985).

3) Specialization:

The third characteristics is specialization. Pugh his colleagues (1968) define specialization as concerned with the division of labor within the organization, the distribution of official duties among several positions. They measure specialization as the extent to which one or more individuals occupy a non-work-flow function on a full-time basis, regardless of the number of specialists (Pugh et al. 1968, p. 92). Their findings show that specialization is in the direction of dispersed authority, as would be expected; with more specialization, authority is likely to be distributed to the specialists. "Non-workflow personnel" also has a definite weighting toward dispersed authority, but the percentage of workflow super-ordinates is firmly weighted in the direction of concentrated authority. Thus, the greater the percentage of the line hierarchy, the more concentrated is the authority, and the less decentralized are the decisions down the line.

Blau and Scott (1962) consider specialization as mechanisms of control. With more divisions and departments, each with a specialized task that differs from the specialized tasks of the other units, the structure became horizontal differentiation which makes more difficult to

participate in making discussion. Mechanic (1962) emphasizes that increasing specialization has made the expert or staff person important. The export maintains power because high ranking persons in the organization are dependent upon him or for their special skills and access to certain kinds of information. In another study, Mechanic (2003) finds that low-ranking participants have important expert knowledge not available to high-ranking participants, and therefore is likely to have power over them.

Specialization is the extent of complexity an organization has, which includes educated, professionalized employees who fill specialist roles. One of the foundations of mechanistic/organic structure system is whether a whole task can be broken down or not. Hage and Aiken (1967) use the word complexity in order to avoid terminological confusion and to refer to the former phenomenon. They define complexity with three empirical indicators: occupational specialties, the length of training required by each occupation, and the degree of professional activity associated with each occupation. The greater the number of specialties, the greater the length of training required by each occupation, and the greater the degree of professional activity, the more complex the organizational structure (p.507).

In short, between constraining and enabling, rules and resources, access to and control, structure clearly affects the distribution of formal workplace power. Through formalization, centralization, and specialization process, structure affects employee's authority "formal making decision." This process control actions by guidance, rules, roles, hierarchy of authority, and technological and professional complexity.

2.2.2 Indirect Effects of Structure on Workplace Power

The discussion of formal structure's characteristics and workplace power has highlighted other sources for workplace power which are workplace expertise and commitment. To be more

specific, there is flexibility within the structure allows the decision maker to empower their employees as a strategy to increase organization's performance. Thus, the decision making is not only limited to the job position, but it also involves the sharing of power from top management to low levels, however, this sharing still defined, codified, and restricted through structural formalization. At this point, this study deals with empowerment as structure's strategy and defines empowerment as a complex tool of management to survive and succeed. Employs' empowerment is a process of giving authority to the employees to make necessary important decisions on their own about their day to day activities (Hass, 2010); therefore, it means that every employee of the company should be involved in the decision-making process. The most effective way for lower participants to achieve power is to obtain, maintain, and control access to persons, information, and instrumentalities. Several scholars have determined that empowered employees are more specialized and committed than others; a brief overview of these studies are as follows.

First, scholars have linked expertise to workplace power. Fayol (1949) presents a realistic analysis to understand the change in authority structure and decision-making process which include staff employees who provide effective specialized assistance. Fayol explains the successive layers of authority that comprise an organization are a product of functional and scalar growth. The functional growth related to the horizontal structure of a firm, in that employees are added to perform functional duties as a firm's workload expands. In contrast, scalar growth is vertical, caused by the need to add layers of supervision to coordinate various activities divided among departments. Fayol believes that managers generally have neither the time nor the energy to devote to long-term considerations. Staff employees, freed of daily pressures associated with running a department, could search for improvements in work methods, identify developing changes in immediate business conditions, and consider longer-term trends. Fayol visualizes a

group of individuals as staff employees who have the "strength, knowledge, and time" to assist managers by acting as an extension of a manager's personality. Staff employees take orders only from a firm's general manager and to serve managers in dealing with daily obligations such as correspondence, interviews, and conferences, but they also assist in harmonizing current and future plans. Finally, Fayol emphasizes that authority should be delegated downward to develop employees' abilities and to avoid "drying up initiative and loyalty; then, he recommended that line managers use staff employees to enhance coordination, but warns that their use did not replace line managers' direct responsibility for achieving a firm's objectives (Mern & Bedeian, 2009, p. 212-227). Furthermore, Kanter (1993) describes the empowered employee who has more technical knowledge and expertise. She finds that "access to resources relates to one's ability to acquire the financial means, materials, time and supplies required to do the work. Employees must possess the technical knowledge and expertise required to accomplish the job, as well as an understanding of organizational policies and decisions" (Cho et. al, 2006). She considers empowerment as a management technique used to motivate employees by delegating or sharing of power with them (Kanter, 1993). In addition, Mechanic (2003) finds that increasing specialization and organizational growth has made the expert or staff person important, "the expert maintains power because high-rank persons in the organization are dependent upon him for his special skills and access to certain kinds of information" (p357).

Scott (2004) describes the changes in conceptions of organization: strategies and controls. He stated that economic exchanges created strategies and power differences. Managers must take steps to manage not only their structures but also their environments, reducing dependencies and seeking adequate power advantages. He asserts that because of the changes that occurred in wider societal systems, the uses and modes of power and control have changed in organizations. The

hierarchy becomes more decentralized and gives way to horizontal systems, particularly among organizations in the newer industries. When most of the important information needed to compete effectively is found at the boundaries of organizations rather than at the core, then centralized command/control structures become dysfunctional and obsolete. As the operational boundaries of firms and agencies extend outward to include temporary workers and contractors, managers are obliged to learn to manage horizontally (without authority) as well as vertically. In short, the organization is dominated by the professional manager. As Scott indicates:

"The current mantra guiding managers is to cultivate your core competence. These developments necessarily affect employees, who have discovered that the implicit contract guaranteeing job security in exchange for loyalty has been renegotiated, if not repealed." (p6).

Another indirect effect of workplace structure is work commitment. Several scholars have linked commitment to workplace power. Parsons (1950) confirms that all roles, whatever the degree of importance, involve an amount of power. Employees who work at low level have power through commitment to commands and instructions that issued from the most powerful roles. Kanter (1993) maintains that employees who have access to opportunities are more motivated, committed and innovative in their jobs. In contrast, employees in positions with low opportunity are described as feeling "stuck" in their jobs, resulting in lower career aspirations and lower levels of organizational commitment. Goss (1994) explains the relationship between commitment and participation in decision-making. He notes that the structural and job design techniques can be used to foster organizational commitment in the following ways: Firstly, structural technique involves a flat organizational structure that limits hierarchical order of reporting and encourages one on one contact. It also encourages the coordination of shared goals and communication in the

organization that is both horizontal and vertical, thereby reaching all levels. Secondly, job design related techniques focus mainly on allowing employees to be involved in the decision-making processes and it emphasizes the importance of work teams (Manetje, 2009).

Several studies support the relationship between commitment and empowered employees (Fornes, Rocco, and Wollard 2008). These studies find that managers with strong organizational commitment report higher levels of compliance with strategic decisions and better financial planning (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Kim & Mauborgne, 1993). Managers are more willing to engage in organizational citizenship and extra-role performance (Meyer et al., 1993). Employees with strong organizational commitment are emotionally attached to the organization and have a greater desire to contribute meaningfully to the organization.

Conceptually, commitment has multidimensional conceptualizations. Fornes, et.al (2008) emphasizes that workplace commitment consists of organizational commitment, individual commitment, and outcomes of workplace commitment. Mowday et.al in (1979) defines commitment to an organization as an individual's identification with and involvement in the organization, characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (p. 604). Organizational commitment is the measure of strength of the employee's identification with the goals and values of the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). On the other hand, individuals committed to the organization exert extra effort, desire organizational membership (Morrow, 1993), protect company assets, and share company goals and values (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Meyer and Allen (1991) provide the three dimensions of organizational commitment. First, affective commitment (AC) refers to the employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. It results from and is induced by an individual and organizational value congruency.

Thus, it becomes almost natural for the individual to become emotionally attached to and enjoy continuing membership in the organization. Meyer and Allen attached affective commitment as the "desire" component of organizational commitment. An employee who is affectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization. Second, continuance commitment implies awareness to the costs incurred when leaving an organization, and those with this primary link stay because they have to. It is described as the willingness to remain in an organization because of personal investment in the form of non-transferable investments such as close working relationships with co-workers, retirement investments and career (Rawat, 2011). And, third, normative commitment implies a feeling of obligation to stay with the organization, resulting in one's feeling he or she ought to stay. It results from what has been characterized as "generalized value of loyalty and duty." The individual believing in normative commitment demonstrates commitment behavior solely because she or he believes it is the moral and right thing to do (Weiner & Verdi, 1980; Schwartz & Tessler, 1972). In short, an employee with greater commitment has a greater chance of contributing to organizational success and will also experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

Conclusion

Although the restricting on decision-making process through formalization, centralization, and specialization process, these processes have produced a kind of informal workplace power. The most effective way for lower participants to achieve power is to obtain, maintain, and control access to persons, information, and instrumentalities. To extent that this can be accomplished, lower participants make higher-ranking participants dependent upon them. The structural review helps to formulate a first hypothesis in this study. There are relationships between workplace structure, formalization, centralization, specialization, and employee's ability to make decision and

influence making decision; and, there is relationship between employee's commitment, skills, length of time in the company, and ability to make decision and influence making decision.

2.3 Gender and Workplace Power

In this section, I discuss another important aspect to understand the distribution of workplace power. Scholars have clearly illustrated how power is unevenly distributed by gender (Acker, 1990; Britton, 2000; Brook and Holland, 2009; Cohen & Huffman, 2004; Ely, 1995; Gorman, 2005; Gorman and Kmec, 2009; Kanter, 1977; Parsons, 1955; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Reskin, 1993; Ridgeway, 1994, 2009; Smith, 2002). Two issues influence the understanding of the relationship between gender and workplace power: power or empowerment gender which focuses on individual agency, and structure. At the end of this section, I provide a brief review of women's background that reflect the changing values towards women in Libyan society through describe the ideology and policies of the Libyan regimes toward women's power and work from 1951 to present.

2.3.1 Power or Empowerment Gender

Several scholars like human capital scholars use the concept of "empowerment" to describe the nature of workplace power as given. According to Barrett and Caroselli (1998), the linguistic meaning of the prefix "em" means to "put into." Thus, empowerment means to put power into someone or something in order to share or cultivate feelings of power in people who are considered to have little power. Barrett's theory says everyone has power; no one can give it to them, and no one can take it away. He argues is that what differentiates it is how we choose to use it. In my opinion, the concept of empowerment promotes inequality at the conceptual level. Using the concept of empowerment rather than power enhances the value of disparity; for example, studying minorities such as women and blacks, the concept of empowerment carries implicit meanings that

lead to a lower value to these groups and does little to recognize structural barriers that preclude power. Empowerment is to give power or authority to the individual to the extent that the person is equipped with the tools the knowledge, the skills, the motivation, and the self-confidence necessary to enable him or her to take charge and to make sound judgments and decisions based upon fact, skill and ability (Omvig, 1992). This model is still a popular base for many gender researchers. Feminists have reconceptualized power as a capacity or ability, specifically, the capacity to empower or transform oneself and others (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2004). Thus, some feminists have tended to understand power not as power over but as power to. Wartenberg (1990) calls this transformative power. Keller and Mbwewe (1991, as cited in Malhotra, 2002), describe empowerment as "a process whereby women become able to organize themselves to increase their own self-reliance, to assert their independent right to make choices and to control resources which will assist in challenging and eliminating their own subordination." Malhotra (2002) states that there are overlapping terms that are included in defining empowerment: options, choice, control, and power. These are referring to women's ability to make decisions and affect outcomes of importance to themselves and their families. Control over one's own life and over resources is often stressed. Thus, there is frequent reference to some variant of the ability to "affect one's own wellbeing," and "make strategic life choices." In short, if women are given the skills and tools to succeed, then they should be able to capitalize on it and have power in the workplace.

At individual-level factors such as education, job experience, training, and social capital explain a significant part of the gender disparities and the distribution of workplace power. Scholars of human capital theory provide a set of assumptions that pointed to the characteristics of individuals in the form of achievement that leads to authority (Becker, 1964; Bergmann, 1986;

Pierre Bourdieu, 1986; Solomon Polachek, 2004). According to this view, women may have less authority than men because they have lower investments in factors such as training, education, and experience, or because they have less seniority or intermittent labor force attachment. Such factors may increase the likelihood of attaining authority while simultaneously serving as forces that legitimize the authority structure (Smith, 2002). For women and racial minorities, education is a key mechanism for securing widespread recognition of individual achievement and expertise. Through education, women and racial minorities can publicly demonstrate expertise, tempering the effects of long-held stereotypes and biases that may limit their appeal to employers (Bergmann, 1986; Carnoy, 1994, 1996; Reskin, 1984). Consequently, educational credentials can help level the playing field in arenas traditionally dominated by white men (Kanter, 1977) in that education often provides access to opportunities.

Scholars like Kabeer (2001) having argued that "agency" should be treated as the essence of empowerment, and treat resources and achievements as enabling conditions and outcomes, respectively, another caveat is necessary. While distinctions such as those between resources, agency and achievements of empowerment seem clear at the conceptual level, it is not always easy to completely separate them in developing empowerment indicators. As well, Barrett's theory defines power as the capacity to participate knowingly in the nature of change characterizing the continuous patterning of the human and environmental field. The measurable manifestations of power are awareness: choices, freedom to act intentionally, and involvement in creating change (Barrett & Caroselli, 1998). However, the effects of individual achievement on the chances of women and men attaining positions of authority depend on whether observations are made at the lower or upper end of the authority hierarchy. At the low end, where an individual may have the title of supervisor but lack the ability to make decisions, education and continuous work experience

are more important for the attainment of authority for women than for men. At the high end, where supervisors have decision-making authority over the pay or promotion of workers, the effect of education is stronger for men (Smith, 2002).

In light of the empirical results of mainstream workplace power research that has focused on an agency, human capital theory may be described as voluntarily investments, such as: education, skills, and labor market experiences known as the supply side of what employer demand from individuals (Huffman, 2013). Most employers seek to find the best human resources as indicated by education, experience, and skill set to meet the demand of their organization. Human capital has been found to add explanatory power to the analysis of boardroom appointments. Individuals are appointed to the board because they have one or more of these resources that are required by the firm and the firm attempts to match its needs with the resources provided by the board members (Hillman et al. 2000). Dunn (2010) argues that part of the resources that directors bring to the boardroom is their human capital. Human capital is the experience, expertise, and reputation of the individual. His results support resource dependency theory that identifies the human capital characteristics that contribute to a woman being appointed to an all-male board. The results show that women who are appointed to all-male boards have specialized knowledge skills; either they have firm-specific knowledge as insiders, or they are support specialists with a specific financial or legal expertise. Amin and Kushnir (2012) state that gender-based disparity in human capital by educational attainment and the number of years of experience that top female and male managers have. Amin and Kushnir's results show that there are fewer women with many years of experience in managerial roles, equaling 83-86 percent that of their male counterparts. This gender-based difference is particularly large among young firms, but small and insignificant among older firms. Also, Amin and Kushnir (2012) find that women managers have less years of

experience than their male counterparts. Job experience is an invaluable component of overall human capital of a country and gender-based difference in job experience can have serious implications for gender inequality in income levels and employment opportunities.

In addition, Wajcman (1991) argues that to be technically skilled in the workplace means to be powerful. Her results show that men's power is embodied in the design of technology, and technology is made by men to make full use of their physical advantage and technical competence. Peterson and Philpot (2007) examine the relationships between director and firm characteristics, director resource dependence roles, and interaction between director gender and director characteristics. They find that women directors are less likely than men directors to sit on executive committees, and are more likely than men directors to sit on public affairs committees. The lack of experience likely is one reason why women are not well represented on executive committees. Lorsch and MacIver (1989) find that firms have limited resources and by co-opting experts, they automatically gain access to specialized knowledge and skills. Because of their understanding of the business milieu, these directors can provide critical advice and counsel that can assist in formulating strategy and setting long-term priorities.

Empowerment advocates predominantly focus on individual achievements despite the interest in the importance of the role played by structural access to resources. However, these explanations at the individual level do not describe the entire picture and provide a very narrow explanation of gender differences in workplace power. Perrons (2009) describes that focusing on individual variables tends to emphasize 'gender deficits' rather than context and overlooks how the work environment, labour market, and wider economy are shaped by gendered norms and assumptions that operate to women's disadvantage. Other feminist's scholars argue that a gendered workplace perspective draws on sociological literature to focus on the relationship between

structure and agency (Acker, 1990, 2006; Coleman, 1988; Collins, 1990; Connell, 1987; Ferree, 1990; Giddens 1984; Kanter, 1977; Kimmel, 2008; Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Risman, 2004).

Previous research has pointed out that although there is an increase in the level of education and profession of working women, women still have significantly less power at work. Eagly and Karau (2002) find that women have gained increased access to supervisory and middle management positions, but they remain quite rare as elite leaders and top executives. Cha (2013) finds that in a workplace that values overwork, women are more likely to be evaluated poorly, less likely to receive opportunities for promotion, and more likely to leave their jobs than men. Brumley (2014) finds that women's education level was on par with men, but they were underrepresented in leadership. Women are fewer in certain leadership areas like business administration, operations, and finance, reflecting horizontal segregation. As indicated in the first section of this dissertation, power is the process of enhancing an individual's or group's capacity to make purposive decisions and to transform their ability into desired actions and outcomes. In the workplace domain, the access of individuals and groups to opportunities and resources are determined by regulations and formal institutions. In the social domain, power-based institutions of social hierarchy, patriarchy, or exploitative patron-client relations can empower or constrain individual and group agency (Brook and Holland, 2009). These structures are the focus on the next section.

2.3.2 Gendered Structure:

A comprehensive understanding of gendered workplace power requires examining the structural context. The structural and institutional features of the workplace can have a significant impact on gender differences in workplace power distribution. Macro interpretation focuses on structural barriers to women's recruitment and advancement. Connell's (1987) theory of gender

and power as social structural theory is based on sexual inequality, gender, and power imbalance. According to this theory, three major structures characterize the gendered relationships between men and women: 1) the sexual division of labor, which examines economic inequities favoring males; 2) the sexual division of power, which examines inequities and abuses of authority and control in relationships and institutions favoring males; and 3) cathexis, which examine social norms and affective attachments.

At structural level, gender in workplace is still framed as differences between men and women; these differences result from differential structures of opportunity and power that women's access and advancement also reward men's structural position over women's (Acker, 2006; Kanter, 1977; Reskin, 1988; Ridgeway, 1993). In the workplace, inequalities between men and women are shaped by institutional arrangements such as patriarchal family structures or discriminatory labor practices and property laws, which may not be affected by the economic growth process or could even be affected negatively (Cuberes and Baqué, 2011).

Kanter (1977) describes three structural variables that shape the behavior of women and men in organizations: the opportunity structure, the power structure, and the sex ratio. Structural scholars suggest that women workers can find equity in forms that usually favor male-typed behavior patterns. Whittington and Smith-Doerr (2008) in their research on how variation in organizational logic affects sex differences in scientists provide a good study to explain the effect of workplace structure on workers' power. For example, Reskin and McBrier (2000) find women workers do better in larger, more bureaucratic organizations; they conclude that women are more likely to become managers when hiring practices are more formalized.

Acker (2006) believes that the concept of gender regime is a useful approach to understanding how gender is reproduced in organizations. Organizing processes should be looked

at simultaneously from various 'points of entry.' Organizing practices are always shaped with the help of images, symbols and ideologies, carried out in interactions some through computers, by people who have fashioned themselves as competent gendered organizational actors. Lucas (2003) finds that the institutionalization of women's leadership can reduce the influence gap between women and men by legitimating structures of women's leadership. Results of an experiment conducted to test this idea show that, as predicted, men leaders attained higher influence than did women leaders, and leaders appointed on ability attained higher influence than did randomly assigned leaders. Institutionalization, however, reduces the advantage of men such that women leaders appointed on ability when women's leadership is institutionalized attain influence as high as men leaders appointed on ability when women's leadership is not institutionalized.

Moreover, Gorman and Kmec (2009) find that high-ranking organizational positions are characterized by three key factors, notably high status, work uncertainty, and the historical predominance of male incumbents, that combine to trigger biases in decision makers' evaluations of men and women candidates. In addition, the cumulative effects of biased decisions in earlier organizational contests may generate objective gaps in skill and motivation between men and women candidates for high level jobs. They point to three important processes that can bias organizational decision makers' assessments of job candidates and lead them to prefer men over equally qualified women: (1) decision makers' reliance on gender as an indicator of general competence, (2) the influence of gender-stereotypical selection criteria on decision makers' perceptions of candidates' suitability for particular jobs, and (3) in-group favoritism. Processes such as these, involving the perception and evaluation of others, can operate under conscious control or through implicit, automatic cognition. They are likely to have important implications

for women's and men's prospects of organizational mobility. Then, they stated that women's persistent underrepresentation in powerful organizational positions presents a puzzle.

Scholars have described the workplace as having been built around "ideal workers" who are available continuously because they have few or no responsibilities for housework or childcare. Ideal workers are rational, strong leaders, and are committed to work (Brumley 2014). Men represent these expectations. Women, especially mothers, are often viewed as less than "ideal," due to the cultural norms that expect women to assume most if not all domestic duties. Women are perceived as less rational, more expressive, unable to work long hours, and less committed to work. Williams (2000) believes that men are also suffering from the requirements of being ideal workers, and that both men and women find it difficult to succeed without conforming to this standard (Correll et al, 2007; Munn & Greer, 2015).

Risman (2004) notes that part of the structural power of gender stems from the fact that "norms develop when actors occupy similar network positions in the social structure and evaluate their own options vis-à-vis the alternatives of similarly situated others." Because women and men consider themselves different, women are unlikely to wonder why their lives are not more like men's (Risman 2004). Building an intersectional perspective into this question, we must also ask how working-class women and women of color develop frames to evaluate what their own workforce options will be and whom they consider similarly situated others. The prevailing culture of gender can bias people's expectations about women's ability to participate in paid work (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004). These expectations reinforce traditional male-role expectation that constrain available position opportunities to women (Baird 2007) and reinforce gender inequality in the workplace (Acker, 1996; J. C. Williams, 2000; Ridgeway and Correll 2004; Risman 2004). Women and mothers are less likely to live up to these expectations and less likely to garner

economic rewards associated with being an ideal worker (Ammons et al, 2010). Perrons (2009) finds that cultural boundaries, cultural practices, and gendered social norms that uphold and reinforce exist practices and understandings of appropriate roles for women and men and the value of different activities. These cultural boundaries or understandings of appropriate gendered behaviors are deeply rooted and have become naturalized through repeated practice and proscribe or at least limit boundary crossings despite the formally permissive equalities legislation. These practices become cumulative as some social groups or identities are not considered suitable for certain positions and then become unsuitable by not having had the necessary practice, experience, or social networks. The gender of people holding positions becomes identified with those positions, such that leadership and authority 'stick' to and become equated more with men who then shape the notion of leadership as male. Thus, economic or social attributes are inextricably identified with social beings. In this way occupations become gender stereotyped and while the boundaries are permeable, and divisions vary across cultures and over time, indeed such variations reflecting their social/cultural rather than natural construction, they nonetheless have a certain fixity that shapes expectations, making people reluctant to transgress by entering gender incongruent occupations. Moreover, Butler (1988) explain gender reality as performative gender appears as a substantial core which might well be understood as the biological sex.12 If gender attributes and as identity that express or reveal. The distinction between expression and per-formativeness is critical. She believes that:

> "if gender attributes and acts, the several ways in which a body shows or produces its cultural signification, are performative, then there is no preexisting identity by which an act or attribute might be measured; there would be no true or false, real or distorted acts of gender, and the postulation of a true gender identity would be revealed as a regulatory

fiction. That gender reality is created through sustained social performances means that the very notions of an essential sex, a true or abiding masculinity or femininity, are also constituted as part of the strategy by which the performative aspect of gender is concealed" (p. 527).

In addition, scholars have explained the effect of structure on gender differences in workplace power distribution by cultural status beliefs (Acker, 2006; Ridgway, 2009; Ridgeway & Correll 2004). Status stabilizes resource and power inequality by transforming it into cultural status beliefs about group differences regarding who is "better." Status beliefs bias evaluations of competence and suitability for authority, bias associational preferences, and evoke resistance to status challenges from low-status group members. These effects accumulate to direct members of higher status groups toward positions of resources and power while holding back lower status group members.

Ridgeway (2014) states that gender inequality was most likely to occur in that work environment related to performance and evaluation. Gender is associated with social hierarchies because gender stereotypes categorize the status worthiness and competence in relation to social practices. The status element of gender stereotypes that causes such stereotypes to act as distinctively powerful barriers to women's achievement of positions of authority, leadership, and power. Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch (1980) find that a status organizing process is any process in which evaluations of and beliefs about the characteristics of actors become the basis of observable inequalities in face-to-face social interaction. The key concept in the study of status organizing processes is the status characteristic, any characteristic of actors around which evaluations of and beliefs about them come to be organized. Examples include age, sex, race, ethnicity, education, occupation, physical attractiveness, intelligence quotients, and reading

ability-but there are many others. They find that the groups of strangers who were equal in status to begin with evolved inequalities in opportunities to participate, in participation in evaluations of performance outputs, and in influence over the group's decisions. These inequalities were highly inter correlated and hence can be conceptualized as forming a single observable power-prestige order. The power-prestige order of the group correlated with external status differences; more important, it appears to be "instantaneously" created instead of evolving out of the face-to-face interaction of the members of the group. It does not seem to make much difference what kind of status differentiated the group: The same effect is found for age, sex, race, occupation, ethnicity, education, and organizational office.

Schieman and Reid (2008) find that gender characteristics contribute to cultural perceptions of personal and social attributes (i.e., leadership abilities) that are salient in contexts that involve power dynamics. The theory contends that gender emerges as key diffuse status haracteristics, especially in the workplace, because individuals with advantaged diffuse characteristics are deemed to be more legitimately in the possession of greater authority in hierarchical settings. For them, the deployment of authority is also perceived as more valid and acceptable. This view implies that men and older adults should tend to be more advantaged with respect to participation, influence, and the legitimate possession of authority in the workplace. Aldrich and Yang (2014) demonstrate that cultural beliefs about merit and gender affect power and prestige orders in social groups by prescribing the aggregated expectations that social actors rely on to organize task relations. And, in modern business organizations, where the logic of meritocracy creates an a priori expectation that leadership will be merit based, gender remains salient in nearly every aspect of entrepreneurial practices.

2.3.3 Ideology and Policies of the Libyan Regime Towards Women

Women in Libya have had a long history of actively participating in the economic, social and political development of the country, having acquired the right to vote in 1920. As early as 1955, Libyan society increased access to education for women, leading to an acceptance of paid female employment and the resultant emancipation and independence. In the period of monarchical regime, the involvement of women in the labor force was quite limited, except for farming. Although government regulations did not discriminate against women in salaried employment, women were neither qualified nor skilled for such positions. Attir (1991) states that "women were only eligible for those jobs requiring little or no training and that could be performed in segregated quarters. Thus, women tend to occupy positions such as housemaids or office janitors. Women are still not participating in daily activities in the same way as men" (p.123).

Until the discovery of petroleum and the 1969 revolution conservative attitudes and values about women dominated society. Libyan law does not differentiate on the basis of gender in terms of salary. Article 31 in Labour Code Act No 58 of 1970 (Libya) states:

> "The employer shall not pay a worker a wage less than the minimum wage fixed according to this code; an employer shell not discriminate in wage between men and women if the conditions of work and nature of the work are the same" (p.7).

Also, equality between women and men was granted in the 1977 Declaration of the Authority of the People. By the 1980s, modifications in the traditional relationship between men and women were becoming evident, and critical changes were appearing in the traditional role of women. These varied with the age, education, and place of residence of the women. In 1988, issued The Great Green Charter of Human Rights in the Age of the Masses. The 1997 Charter on the Rights and Duties of Women in Jamahiriya Society included provisions to guarantee the equal rights of

men and women in areas such as national security duties, marriage, divorce, child custody, and the right to work, equal paid, social security, and financial independence. However, these guarantees of equality are undermined by family law, which retains many discriminatory clauses.

In the social setting, "legal rights are not always translated into action" (Birke. 2011). Despite women working, they are still expected to be homemakers because of the low wages. Like many traditional cultures, men are more highly valued than women in Libyan society. There is a considerable extent the two sexes continued to constitute largely separate sub-societies, each with its own values, attitudes, and perceptions of the other:

> "Some of the traditional views still shape the attitudes of individuals in Libyan society are: "women are weak mentally and physically; women are soft, beautiful and temperamental; the women's place is at home, and house work is a woman's job; and it is shameful for women to remain unmarried (Obeidi,1996. p. 184).

Girls' upbringing quickly impresses on them that they are inferior to men and must cater to them; boys learn that they are entitled to demand the care and concern of women. Men regard women as creatures apart, weaker than men in mind, body, and spirit. They are considered more sensual, less disciplined, and in need of protection from both their own impulses and the excesses of strange men (Metz, 1987). The ideology of the regime emphasizes the physical and biological differences between male and female. This idea was highlighted by al-Qadhafi when he stated that nothing else would be more appropriate for humankind's nature, and would suit his dignity, than natural motherhood in a family where the true principles of motherhood, fatherhood, and brotherhood prevail. In principle, the ideology of the regime did not reject women working, but limited them to fields which "suited" them and their nature. In the Green Book, al-Qadhafi argues that the question is not whether the woman works or does not work. Work should be provided by society

to all able members whether men or women who need work, but on the condition that each individual should work in the field that suits them, and not be forced to carry out unsuitable work.

By law, education is compulsory, and women must attend schools until the intermediate level. As a consequence, the number of schools for women increased all over the country after 1969. The increasing level of education among women during the 1970s affected many other aspects of Libyan life. This was visible in the widespread 'unveiling' among women, especially in urban areas; and in the increasing number of females participating in shopping and driving, and travelling without a man companion.

Women have been encouraged to participate actively in political life within the framework of the political system of the regime. They have also been encouraged to form their own Revolutionary Committees which work within the framework of the Revolutionary Committees in general, with the special aim of strengthening female political and administrative roles. Amal Obeidi (1996) provides an important description of women's status from the beginning of the 1980s. A number of new ideas and policies were introduced by al-Qadhafi's regime to encourage women to take a more prominent place within the society. Obeidi (1996) lists the following features that reflect about the ideology and policies of the Libyan regime toward women:

- All Libyan males and females were to undertake and have continuous military training if medically able. Also, military science was one of the main topics which students should study at all levels above primary level. Both male and female students above primary level were required to wear a standard military uniform and attend daily military exercise, though in the past few years this was reduced to one day a week. Similar all girls, I grew up wearing a military uniform at my school, as was the dress code for all high school kids in Libya during al-Qadhafi's regime, from 1969 to 2011. They were raised to be his

soldiers to learn his political philosophy from what is famously known as the "green book," and were tested on their understanding of their country's military (Salbi, 2016). Also, university students do not receive any military training during their studies, but they have to do military service after their graduation for at least a year, except for those who were successful in their military training under Law.

- Women were encouraged to attend the Women's Military Academy, which was established in 1979. Graduates of this academy have been promoted to the rank of lieutenant.

- Women were encouraged from the beginning of the 1990s to participate in the judicial system. Women had not previously been accepted as judges for cultural reasons. By law, women have the right to hold judicial jobs, under the same conditions as men. The jobs included those of judges, public prosecutors, and case administrators. Thereafter the first women were appointed to these positions.

- Women were encouraged in this period to hold positions in the political system. A few women were elected to participate in the Secretariat of the General People's Congress and the General People's Committee Secretariat. Nevertheless, women and their participation in politics and political affairs was limited compared to their roles in other activities.

- The regime introduced a number of organizations and concepts which were intended to promote the role of the "new woman." The main ones were those of the a) Women's Revolutionary Committees. Women were encouraged to form these committees at schools, places of work, and in the communities at large. The duties of women's Revolutionary Committees were the same as those of the Revolutionary Committees in general to develop a core of believers in al-Qadhafi's Third World Theory (The Green Book). b) The Female

Guards form part of the Green Revolutionary Guards, which include both males and females. Members of the Revolutionary Guards tend to be members of the Revolutionary Committees. The Female Guards come from all strata of society and have different professional backgrounds and ages and come from all areas of Libya. All are volunteers and unpaid. They uphold the principles of the revolution and the Third Universal Theory and The Green Book. Their aim is to protect the revolution and its leader, al- Qadhafi. c) The Revolutionary Nuns were introduced by al-Qadhafi in February 1981 when he addressed a group of women's Revolutionary Committees. Al-Qadhafi stated that Revolutionary Nuns must be totally devoted to the revolution, they must be ready to sacrifice their lives, they must give up any personal private life and marriage, to put an end to reaction, Zionism, the Crusades, divisions, and to push forward socialism, progress, and Arab unity. These organizations and concepts have brought some Libyan women into the elite.

Civil society as close to non-existent under the Qadhafi regime. By civil society, I mean a free press, real trade unions, active non-governmental organizations, and a viable political opposition. These did not exist because the country's political and legal framework banned any form of civil society activity. During the Qadhafi era, an authoritarian regime, there were no independent women's organizations. Anyone permitted to work on behalf of women's rights had to do so within the framework of the state. As a result, women's groups were closely linked to the state and were permitted to cooperate only with international women's organizations that had been sanctioned by the government (Ftes, 2017).

After 2011 revolution, the phenomenon of civil society activists has emerged in Libyan society. Women join women's development organization and led the media as activities. There are

new opportunities for some women by enabling them to enter the job market and progress within the professional environment. The uprising brought international organizations into the country that acknowledged and pursued human rights practices. Women also started volunteering to assist children who lost their parents during the 2011 revolution, widows whose husbands died during the revolution, and rebels who were injured during the conflict. Women also played a major role in the revolution by running different non-governmental organizations which tended to focus on gender specific caretaking activities, such as women's rights, youth development, child protection, environmental protection, and refugee assistance. For example, Hajer Sharief co-founded the Together We Build It organization that works on women and youth peace and security. Zahra Langhi founded The Libyan Women's Platform for Peace (LWPP) to ensure that women remained a vital part of post- Qadhafi Libya, reinforcing inclusive transitions such as women's rights, youth leadership, advancement and security as related to women's political and economic participation, constitutional reform and education. Shahrazad Magrabi founded an organization called Libyan Women Forum (LWF) in order to empower women to participate in the future development of the country. The Voice of Libyan Women (VLW), founded by Alaa Murabit was initially focused on the political and economic empowerment of women. Additionally, Women in Libyan Leadership (WILL) Facebook group was created in 2013 to reinforce Libyan women's role in socio-economic development allowing women in Libya to discuss and initiate projects related to women empowerment.

In 2013, The USAID released the project called Libyan Women Economic Empowerment (LWEE) that lead to women's participation in activities beyond those deemed as women's work. LWEE economically empowers women through business training and access to financing, enabling them to participate in Libya's formal economy. LWEE creates women-owned business

associations for networking and builds more effective market linkages. LWEE enhances the role of women in the economy, increases stability within communities, and improves the livelihoods of women who have participated in the program. About 200 women attended instructor-led business development training, and 300 women entrepreneurs were trained on fundamental business skills. In addition, Through LWEE business plan competitions, more than 20 women were awarded grants to start or expand a business. However, none of these women have implemented their business on the ground (personal communication with LWEE, March,2017). These projects were just more ink on paper and reflect another kind of corruption and deception to get funds. By contacting with the Ministry of Economy in Libya to get information about the projects that funded by the USAID through project called Libyan Women Economic Empowerment (LWEE) since 2013. They inform me that there is no record for these projects in the Ministry of Economy and Trade

Sofija Ftes (2017) conducted interview with twenty-three women in Libya as a part of her qualitative research on the role of working women. Her findings show that the 2011 revolution raised awareness of the existence of women's rights organizations, and these institutions are creating new opportunities for women. Moreover, many women claimed that the revolution encouraged them to open their own businesses such as law firms, catering companies, startups, and online retail entities. Also, the interviewers claimed that new organizations established in the country, created gender equality awareness through campaigning and lobbying with hopes to change Libyan people's mentalities. More women became interested in the political, social, and economic matters of the state. As a result, the political and social involvement of Libyan women greatly increased.

According to a 2013 report by the International Foundation for Electoral Systems there is no gender gap in higher education. There are almost as many women (32%) as men (33%) who hold a university degree or higher. The top fields of study young women would like to pursue are medicine, applied sciences, and languages. For young men, the top fields of study are engineering; accounting and economics; and medicine. However, women's labor force participation in Libya is significantly lower than men, with 43% of women reporting work for pay in the past week compared to 66% of men. International Foundation for Electoral Systems survey data further indicates the gender gap in labor force participation closes for highly-educated women: 66% of women who have a university education or higher report being employed compared to 69% of men with the same educational attainment. In addition, Assia Amry, Aramex manager explains how Libyan women Libyan women struggle to join the workforce and how cultural practices have negative affect on the female workforce. She said:

> "The biggest challenge is with customers… A lot of times when customers have issues, they will say 'I want to talk to the manager,' but they don't realize I am the manager, and it's usually satisfying for me to tell them that.... Women are not traditionally in the public sphere, and while they are given jobs, rarely are they put in decision-making positions. It's the mindset, people still think women can't do a lot...The number of women working in Libya's private sector is low at nine percent, but not necessarily because women are actively being discouraged to enter the work force" (Sarhan, 2014).

Since the 2011, a new feminist identity appeared among Libyan women. Its principles are derived largely from the liberal feminist framework. Libyan women came together and established women's rights organizations since they saw the uprising as an opportunity to highlight their

feminist values and gain equality with men in both the public and private spheres. Hala Bugaighis, the human rights activist, concluded:

> In order for change to happen, social norms must be changed. People need to understand the true meaning of women's empowerment, liberation, and independence. Although there is an increase in projects supporting women's emancipation, the resistance will be present until the whole population understands the importance of women's roles in the country's economic and social development (Ftes, 2017).

Conclusion:

We can conclude the discussion in this section with argument that the distribution of workplace power is gendered and the gender gap in workplace power results from: (1) gender differences in the kind of individual investments that made in education, training, and experience. Women may have less power than men because they have lower investments in factors such as training, education, and experience, or because they have less seniority; (2) differential structures of opportunity that block women's access and advancement. Women are more likely to become managers when hiring, evaluation, and promotion processes are more formalized and standard; (3) gendered stereotypes undermine and devalue women's achievement of positions of power by producing expectations that favor men. These expectations demand ideal workers, employees who are perceived to be rational strong leaders, and put work above familial or other responsibilities. Employers presume that men embody these expectations; women do not, particularly if they are mothers. Consequently, women hold positions with little decision-making capacity, fewer resources, and lower pay compared to men. Given the conservativeness in Libyan culture and

society, these are exacerbated such that women significantly struggle to obtain greater power in the workplace.

2.4 Tribalism and Workplace Power

"It should be known that differences of conditions among people

are the result of different ways in which they make their

living."(Ibn Khaldun, p60)

This section provides a conceptual and historical review for Libyan tribes. This review is essential to understand the current workplace in Libya, how political historical factors have shaped tribe as social institution, and how Libyans came to rely on personal connections rather than on formal positions. Also, it is an important to understand is how tribe identity became a source of employee power in formal workplace.

2.4.1 Tribe and Tribalism

According to Sage Dictionary of Sociology (2006), tribe is a small group bound by kinship and a sense of duty to other members, and associated with a particular territory. It normally has something like the political autonomy of a nation. Adopting this definition would be inappropriate for Libyan tribes. The concept of tribe and tribalism has numerous definitions as a result of different focus of scholars' attention. Tribe is defined in this study as a system of social organization which includes several local groups - villages, bands, districts, or lineages -and normally includes a common territory, a common language, and a common culture. The elements constituting a tribe may or may not be coordinated by formal or centralized political power. Ideally, the term 'tribe' implies a large element of solidarity based on strongly shared primary sentiments. Such solidarity becomes contractual as the tribal organization becomes more formally organized." (Gould & Kolb, 1964, p729).

The definition of tribe as organization implies/entails three important characteristics for tribe structure:

1) This definition emphasizes solidarity based on blood relations (al- nasab, genealogy) or a religious or political ideology. Abd-al-Rahinfin Ibn Khaldun who lived between 1332- 1406, his written remain powerful definition for tribal society. Ibn Khaldun (1987) introduced word *asabiya* (solidarity, group feeling, or group consciousness), to explain tribalism. The concept of *asabiya* has been translated as "social cohesion," "group solidarity," or "tribalism." This social cohesion arises spontaneously in tribes and other small kinship groups. Ibn Khaldun tells us that asabiyya is based on nasab and formed through attachment to kinship, and that nasab have been "a natural disposition in human beings since they existed" (Hermassi, 1972, p8). The group to which some individual feels most closely attached is his/her clan or tribe, the people with whom he/she shares a common descent. However, *asabiya* is neither necessarily nomadic nor based on blood relations. Politically, asabiya can also be shared by people not related to each other by blood ties, but by long and close contact as members of a group (Hannoum, 2003). Therefore, the tendency among the scholars to link tribe and badawa (Bedouin, the nomadic style of life) became not acceptable (Barakat, 1993). Albert Hourani suggests that tribes owe their solidarity not to kinship per se but to political, social, cultural, ethnolinguistic, and territorial bonds could produce tribal solidarity (Khoury and Kostiner, 1991).

Tribalism can exist equally as a social organization in cities as in rural areas or in the desert among the nomadic tribes. Scholars were led into error by their belief that the difference between people is in their nasab (genealogy). This is not so. The difference for some is due to geographical location and phenotype. It may be caused by customs and sentiments as in the case of the Arabs. It may be caused by other conditions, features and specific traits of people.

2) The tribe as a social organization can be found both in villages and cities. Despite the incredible changes that occurred in the economic and political sphere, it is quite normal to find individuals referring to themselves as tribesmen, even if they live in urban areas. Ibn Khaldun (1332- 1406) interpreted Arab history in terms of conflicts and struggle for power between badw [Bedouin] versus hadar [sedentary, urban]. For Ibn Khaldun, the differences of condition among people are the result of the different ways in which they make their living. He characterized badw-hadar relationships as confrontational because of their intrinsic conflict of interests (Barakat, 1993; Obeidi, 1996). This traditional division in Arab society, based on the two concepts badw and hadar, remains part of Arab culture and has not disappeared. Jacques Berque asserts that the Bedouin model "forced itself on the city" (Berque, 1964, p. 29).

Ali al-Wardi has studied Iraq tribalism through the relationship between the values of the city and the village and the cultural dissonance of those who find themselves caught between the two. He found out that "rural tribes, which constitute about 60 percent of the Iraqi population, continue to lead a way of life close to that of their ancestors, the Bedouin of the desert. They share with them values of solidarity, patriarchy, hospitality, protection money, revenge, honor crimes, and so forth" (Al-Wardi, 1978, p. 289). Al-Wardi considers Bedouin nomadism-civilization dualism not as a product of cultural conflict between tribalism and urbanism, but because of a convergence between North African/Middle Eastern civilization and western civilization. In other words, he describes Middle Eastern civilization as entirely Bedouin. In Libya, many tribes exhibit all three patterns of living (tribal, village, urban), but there are also quasi-tribal families which originated in the Ottoman period and are hadar [urban] but not badw. This division between tribes and quasi- tribes seems to have no contemporary political significance, and inter-marriage among the groups is normal now.

3) The definition of tribe as organization determined tribes as a source of identity. That is, a tribal identity that members carry with them is that of their tribal society as a whole, irrespective of whether or not it originally represented a single political unit. Identity here is a sense of shared characteristics held by a group of individuals. One identity is not exclusive of others, since people can have a sense of belonging to a religious grouping, a culture, a state and a region, all at the same time. Moreover, the weight which individuals give to particular elements of their identity can change over time (Obeidi, 1996).

Members of a tribe tend to possess a strong feeling of identity, especially when they belong to powerful tribes. Ibn Khaldun uses several concepts to account the difference in power among individuals or groups. For Ibn Khaldun the superiority is always maintained by a superiority in number, by a noble genealogy (Ibn Khaldun, p. 145.). Here, the essential question is: how does tribal superiority lead to inequality? Asabiya is general, but uneven in strength among tribes. The bigger the tribe the stronger its tribal solidarity; the stronger the tribal solidarity, the more powerful the tribe (Hannoum, 2003, p.76). For Ibn Khaldun, inequality is constant and variant at the same time. It is constant in that humans are constituted of dominant and dominated. But as the material world, including humans and human conditions, is subject to dissolution, neither inequality nor superiority is inherent in a group; they are contingencies (Ibn Khaldun, p.180). Power is important to impose order, and to establish a religious and political order. It is a necessary domination for the benefit of both the dominator and the dominated. They both benefit from the elimination of what is harmful and the pursuit of what is useful (Muqaddima, 180). Ibn Khaldûn suggests that people, or rather tribes, are unequal only insofar as some of them have a hasab (nobility, noble descent) that is not inherent in their nature but is generated from their own deeds, associated, one would assume, with might and conquest. Abdelmajid Hannoum (2003) stated that "One can see

that there is neither "progress," nor "degeneration," nor "racial hierarchy" in Ibn Khaldûn. His historical narrative is regulated by other categories such as asabiya, nasab, and hasab.

Libyan society is based on traditional identifications such as family, tribe, religion, and city. In such a society, the deeds of individuals bring collective fame or shame to the family and tribe. Amal Obeidi (1996) examined tribe and tribalism among the university students in Libya. Her findings of the study showed that tribe is still a major source of personal identification in Libyan society. In Libya, most people have recent clear Bedouin connections, even if they themselves are now urban. It may well be that distinctions based on tribe and city could emerge eventually.

2.4.2 Tribe (Demographics and Role)

The importance of this section lies in a realistic description of social and political construction of Libyan tribe. This a realistic description will become a part of theoretical ground for this study, which consider tribe as an important variable to determine the relations of power and influence on Libyans. In this section, the study seeks to describe the tribal demographics through its ethnic divisions and sites presence in Libya and tries to understand the role of the tribalism and tribe effects through a historical context of Libyan society.

Libya was historically divided into the provinces of Tripolitania, Fezzan, and Cyrenaica. These provinces no longer exist in name, but the regions still have stark demographic differences. The form of tribalism was shaped by the Berber, Arab, Tuareg, and Tabu tribes. Libya is comprised of 140 tribes that divided to multiple branches. Below is a short description of the tribal structure in Libya, and then I describe the Azzawiya tribes.

1) Amazigh tribes

Amazigh is indigenous inhabitants of Libya and have lived in Libya before the Islamic Conquest in 643. The Berber language known collectively as Tamazight or Tamashek (Tamahaq-Tamajeq), which has an ancient script that went through evolutionary stages to eventually settle on what know now as Tifinagh alphabet. The Amazigh also call themselves Imazighen which means the free and nobleman (Najimi, 2003, p. 17). The most important of Berber tribes are the Hawara, Qutama, Sanhaja, Lemta, Addasa, Darissa, Nafiisa, Lawata, and Zanata. These tribe can be found in different areas in Libya include:in west side of Libya there are Nafusa tribe which is a massive group of tribes still inhabiting Nafousa Mountain including Yefren, Kabaw, Jado, and Nalut; Zuwaryah tribe which is a general name for a group of tribes inhabiting the coastal city of Zuwarah in Western Libya. Some tribes inhabiting the oases of Jalo and Awjilah, Hun, and Socra in Eastern Libya. Besides, there is another Berber tribe called Tuareg. It consists of a large and complex group of nomadic Berber tribes and clans, native to the desert and its various oases like Ghadames, Ghat, and Ubari.

Amazigh tribes have affected social, political, economic history of Libyan society. Libya was transformed as a result of the influx of Arab tribes into Berber land. That process altered not only the ethnicity but also the culture and language in favor of the Arabs over others. Historically, Hassan Bin al-Numan, the leader of the Umayyad army in North Africa, universalized Arabic as the spoken and written language of Libya and popularized amongst all Libyans between 701 and 704. However, Amazigh and those of African descent accepted the new reality because Arabic had effectively become the language of worship as well as commercial dealings. Amazigh was equally in favor for a unified language to ease their daily lives since they spoke many different dialects, and Arabic was the language of the rulers as well as the strongest and, therefore, presented itself as a bond between the various ethnic groups within the State. On the other hand, Hassan allowed

Amazigh to join the army which was one of the first opportunity-institutions where the Arabs and Amazigh could really mix on equal footings, and thence the Amazigh had become a force to be reckoned with in the Islamic State. They, also, played a vitally decisive role in shaping Islam's future political presence in North Africa after permeating its spheres of influence and power, and becoming, if not in, adjacent to the leadership and decision-making process. With that, the Amazigh had become just as powerful as the Arabs.

However, several Amazigh activists reported that Amazigh was struggled to preserve the identity and culture of Tamazight through the history. During 1911- 1943, the Italian government tried to obliterate the existence of Amazigh in Libya; for instance, according to an Italian ethnographic study conducted in 1932, there were no purely ethnic Berber tribes in Libya and, linguistically, they had already become Arabic-speaking. Even the colonial population census of 1936 did not differentiate between Arabs and Amazigh lumping them under the single heading: Libyans (Agostini, 1932). Gaddafi denied the existence of Berber and considered them as ethnically mixed Arabs. In a speech in Niger in 2007, al-Gaddafi went so far as to deny the existence of Amazigh in the whole of North Africa: "We in North Africa are Arabs, and North Africa is 100% Arab." However, the Gaddafi's government has promoted the renovation of landmark Berber architecture around the country mainly for the benefit of foreign tourists. Al-Rumi (2009) explained Gaddafi's attempts to promote Berber folklore because "Being Berber is a cultural thing, not just an ethnic distinction" (p. 3). Amazigh activists claim that the Libyan state has attempted to annihilate Amazigh cultural identity. They claimed that the 1969 Constitutional Declaration discriminates against them, as the document defines Libya as an Arab nation and Arabic as the country's only official language.

In 2011, Amazigh a strongly participated in the revolution of 17th February. Because of the Berber tribes control western border of Libya through "Zuwarah and Nalut," Amazighs supported opposition against Qaddafi, they secured a supply line to Tripoli, they called "The Lions of Nafusa." On 30 July 2013, the GNC officially recognized the Amazigh, Tuareg, and Tabu languages and provided for them to be taught in schools.

2) The Toubou

Toubou is another group which lives in various places in southern Libya, Sabha, al-Kufrah, Fezzan, and Qatrun. The International Encyclopedia of Linguistics defined Toubou as a Nilotic people that live mainly in northern Chad, but also in southern Libya, northeastern Niger, and northwestern Sudan. They speak Tebu, in the Saharan subfamily of the Nilo-Saharan languages language family. Toubou in old Tebu language means "Rock people," which associated them with the Tibesti Mountains. Al-Bakri (1983), who was traveler and scholar, mentioned that Toubou are very knowledgeable about the desert, and they are diehard fighters. They participated in the resistance against Italian and French colonialism during 1911- 1934.

In 2010, the Society for Threatened Peoples (STP) reported that Toubou suffered from discrimination during Qaddafi's rule. In 2007, the Libyan Government withdrew citizenship from members of the Toubou group, stating that they were not Libyans but Chadians. Furthermore, the local authorities issued decrees barring Toubou from access to education and health care services and refused to renew or extend passports to members of this minority. Several times parents were prevented from registering births of their children and denied birth certificates. In 2009, the Qaddafi regime began a program of forced eviction and demolition of Toubou homes and expelled Toubou people from their residential areas in Kufra. According to STP, "several dozens of Toubou were arrested because of their opposition against the forced evictions. They only were released

after publicly confirming that they would not block any destruction of houses. People who refused to move from their houses were beaten by security officials. Some were notified by the authorities to leave the houses only minutes before bulldozers destroyed their homes. No alternative housing was proposed to the victims of the forced evictions." (p23). In 2011, Toubou tribes people in Libya sided with the rebel anti-Gaddafi forces. However, there are conflicts between Arabs and Toubou since Gaddafi's rule to today. According to STP, the Qaddafi regime is responsible for reinforcing hostility between Arab and Toubou.

3) Arab tribes:

During the Islamic conquest of North Africa in 642, Libya came under the control of Arab tribes from the Arabian Peninsula. Arab tribes of Libya descended from Bani Hilal and Bani Salim tribes originally from the region of Najd in the Arabian Peninsula. These tribes settled in west, east, and south Libya.

In Eastern Libya " Cyrenaica," Amal Obidi (1996) described Cyrenaica tribes which consisted of Saadi tribes and the Murabutin were either Berber or had Arab-Berber origins. Each clan was tied to a powerful. (p43). Evans (1954) in his ethnographic study "The Sanusi of Cyrenaica" found that the Sanusiyya orders united the tribes of Cyrenaica and established a comprehensive religious and political system. This contributed to the formation of a distinctive cultural and political identity that differed from Fezzan and always competed with Tripolitania. These experiences united Cyrenaica tribes under the leadership of Omar Al-Mukhtar (1858–1931) against Italian colonial rule (1912–1942). In the days of the Libyan monarchy under King Idrıs (1951–1969), the tribes of Cyrenaica enjoyed de facto cultural and political autonomy. This legacy of distinctiveness continued to exercise influence in the political history of Libya as a matter of division and latent conflict. Thomas Huesken (2013) described the effect of the discovery of oil

on these tribes. He stated that "the discovery of oil in 1959 transformed the former Bedouin economy of herders and pastoral nomads. It also led to decentralization, urbanization and the emergence of new or transformed social, political, and economic actors. Yet, these transitions never caused tribes to disappear as a comprehensive and flexible cultural system. The high rate of urbanization in Cyrenaica does not entail metropolitan spaces with cosmopolitan populations. With the exception of Benghazi, the organization of urban space and urban culture is shaped by tribal and kinship patterns. This makes it somewhat difficult to apply patterns and distinctions such as rural and urban or desert and city" (p. 163). After 2011 revolution, tribes of Cyrenaica demanded a federal system because of their marginalization.

In Southern Libya "Fazzan", the main Arab tribes in this area were the Awlad Sulayman, Hasawna, and Magarha. The Awlad Sulayman occupied most of Fazzan in early 20th century to become the main political force of that region (El-Mogherbi, 1992, p9). STRATFOR reports in Feb 25, 2011 that Magariha is the second-largest tribe in Libya. It is the tribe that Gadhafi has consistently sought to keep in alliance throughout his time in power. The Magariha are the dominant tribe in Fezzan, though many Magariha live in Tripoli and other large cities on the coast, as is the case for almost all of the Arab-Berber tribes in Libya. Since Gadhafi took power, members of the Magariha tribe have come to play an integral role in the affairs of the Libyan core. In addition, according Sheikh al-Tahir al-Zäwi, "the most famous Arab tribes that inhabited Fezzan is Al-Riah tribe that trace their roots to Bani Hilal, and Naceera tribe that trace their roots to Bani Salim" (p. 248).

In Western Libya "Tripolitania," the main Arab tribes in this area were the Qadhadhfa of Sirte, Wurfalla of Bin Walid, Awlad Bu-Sayf, Wershifana, the Fawatir and the Awlad al- Sheikh of Zlitin, the Firjan and the Al-Rijban, Al-Zintan, AL-Mahameed Tarhona tribes, Misurata tribes,

Azzawiya tribes, Ghryan Tribes, AL-Asabea, Alajelat tribes, Al-Nawael tribe, Alalqa tribes, Maqura tribes, and al Mashashiyya tribes. These tribes have played an important role in the history of Libyan society. Despite the power and influence of tribes such as Wurfalla and Qadhadhfa and others in the Western Region, we will focus on the description of Azawiya tribes which are considered an important factor in this study to understand the distribution of workplace power.

Azzawiya city has a strategic location related to a long coastline of the Mediterranean Sea about 45 km (28 mi), its closeness from the capital Tripoli, and has an important oil refinery. Historically, because of its consideration as the western entrance to the capital, Italian leaders, and later Qaddafi, realized that to maintain on the Libyan capital, they most control Azzawiya city, and both faced strong resistance to extend their control over the city. Azzawiya's tribes are divided into four main tribes: Al-AShraf, Al-Balazza, Al-Kuraghiya, and Elgabayel. Each of these tribes can be subdivided into several branches.

Al-AShraf

Their genealogy related to the Sidi M'hamed Al Wajih Sinani who descends from Morocco and his lineage can be traced to Idriss I, the founder of Idrisids. The tribe includes overseeing branches: Awlad Jarboa, Qamodah, Alapshat, Awlad bin Maryam, Awlad Abo-Hmirah, Al-Shorafa, Awlad Slaag, Alromahh, and Awlad Amarah. They founded zawayya [religious lodges as an Islamic religious school] to teach the Arabic language, Quranic science, Islamic jurisprudence and the hadith for children and adults. Al-Tahir al-Zäwi (1989) described how people in Azzawiya see Al-Ashraf and wrote: "They are the people of the goodness and condemns."(p.140).

Al-Bulaazh

Al-Bulaazh tribe is a large group of tribes that claims to have descended from the Arabian Peninsula. The strength of the tribe depends on the solidity of its people and the superiority of their numbers. The estimated number of Al-Bulaazh's members is about thirty-five thousand people. They are described by Al-Tahir al-Zawi as "the strength of the Arab who reside in Azzawiya." (p152).

Alkaraghila

Their lineage is related to Turkish assets during the Ottoman colonization of Libya. Karaghila is mixed tribes of people of foreign janissaries from the Ottoman Empire and local Arab and Berber women. Al-Tahir al-Zawi, described Al- Karaghila as follows: "They are born to Turkish fathers and Tarabulsit [Tripoli] mothers." (p. 154)." Alkaraghila is Turkish word given to people whose father was a Turkish and his mother was Tarabulsi [live in Tripoli]. Because of the length of residence in Tripoli, Turkish soldiers resorted to marriage from Tarabulsi women" (p.171). Alkaraghila were influential tribes during the Ottoman occupation, providing manpower to all government services, including defense, security, the army and tax collection; for which the Turkish Pashas rewarded them with special rights and privileges.

Elgebayel

Elgebayel are Amazigh. According to the Sheikh al-Zäwi (1989, p. 150) "Elgebayel roots goes back to Hawara.". Hawara is a large Berber tribe spread widely across North Africa. Sheikh al-Zawi describes the Elgebayel tribe as follows:

"It appears that they related to barbaric assets, but they integrated with Arabs because of the neighborhood and the unity of religion and land. They dwelled in the towns, villages, and countryside of Azzawiya. They adapted Arab customs and language; especially, Berber language was language of communication, not writing. They fused in Arabs and Arabs fused into them and intermingled their genealogy. Those Berber "Amazigh" forgot their language because of Islamic

religion has eliminated all the differences, and both became Muslim before be an Arab or Berber "Amazigh"." (p 155).

In addition, there are several tribes living in the south of Azzawiya such as Asahab bin Maryam, Al-Shaalial, and Al-Gadirat, al-Harart. They link their lineage to the allies of Allah, which means that they believe Allah has made them blessed. They are very pious men and deserved veneration through holy living. The strength of its members relies on two sources: First, spiritual value of their ancestors who are very pious men and deserved veneration through holy living. They believe that they inherited blessings from their ancestors; thus, the spiritual value turned into rituals and become source of protection for them in their daily lives. Second, it depends on the effectiveness and influence of their social relationship within the tribe and outside.

4) **Libyan Jews:**

In addition, there is another component was a part of Libyan demography and has affected Libyan culture, which is Libyan Jews. The Jewish population of Libya stretches back to the 3rd century, and they settled in Tripoli, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan. Lavender (2011) describes the history of the Jews in Libya as follow:

> "They had a rich history of over two thousand years including many good years, but then the community, within a few turbulent decades, was forced to undergo tremendous persecution, including Nazi detention and concentration camps, and anti-Semitic riots and attacks from Arab nationalists that forced them to leave their homeland" (p.200).

Despite the absence of Jews in Libya today as a result of the displacement and expulsion, their impact is still strong in the trade system especially gold trade and the kind of traditional Libyan food and clothing.

Discussion and Conclusion

Libyan demographics based on the tribal structure that depends on ethnic, geographic, religion, and ideological identity. Libyan tribes with other identities have for centuries provided Libyans with social structure, a system of authority, and a network of privilege. Besides multiple identities and identity-switching, tribal identities depend on the context and the situation of the people and society. In fact, Libya is the product of a remarkable series of transformations. In history, the ideological, regional, and local interests that are shaping the transitional political landscape are further complicated by the importance of tribalism. The strength of the political movement in Libya was based on the tribal support.

During the Ottoman rule from 1835 to 1911, Ottoman attempts to curtail tribal autonomy and extend state control into the interior of the territory in Libya was unsuccessful and precipitated its end. By imposing royalties, the Ottomans exhausted tribes' strength and created another enemy to the Ottoman Empire. Ali Abdullatif Ahmida (2005) finds that "Major tribes in eastern Tripolitania began to settle, with tribal chiefs and urban notables registering land to themselves and moving to fill most of the state's mid-level bureaucratic positions. It was clear that the political economy had begun shifting from tributary relationships toward a capitalist commercial structure" (p. 8). Ahmida states that Ottoman rule did bring a level of bureaucratic organization to the country. Ottoman government worked to establish an educational system that trained the administrators, teachers, judges, and others needed to run the new bureaucracy. Anderson (1986) described bureaucracy that "state formation began in the second half of the nineteenth century in Libya. This was the result of a process of reforms undertaken by the Ottoman government, which led to the establishment of a new state bureaucracy and the weakening of the traditional social organizations which had been based on tribes." (p. 123)

During the Italian conquest (1911- 1931), tribes reemerged as major military and political players. Tribal leaderships led the armed resistance movement against the Italians such as Al-Sheikh Omar Mukhtar, the leader of Manfi tribes and national hero of Libya. He led Libyan armed opposition in the East of Libya (Cyrenaica) for 22 years. On the other side, Anderson (1986) found that the Italian colonial administration destroyed Ottoman institutions, while failing to develop a new bureaucracy. As result of this, she argues, there was the revival of kinship which regained prominence as the political frame of reference after independence in 1951.

Tribal leaders subsequently played a leading political role under the monarchy. King Idris tried through the reinforcement of the principles of the Islamic religion to replace tribalism and tried to eliminate the customs and traditions that incite enmity, hatred, and intolerance. Despite the extension of Quran schools to teach Arabic reading and writing and Islamic religion, tribalism remains strong because of poor living conditions, poverty, and destitution at that time. In my opinion, there is a lot of bias toward Senussi stage and the history of monarchy. In fact, with the legacy of corruption left by the Ottoman Empire and the war of attrition during resistance of the Libyan against Italians, the Libyan Kingdom could unite the Libyans, declare the independence of Libya, and embark on formulating a constitution that guarantees the rights of all Libyans and ensure Libyan women's rights in elected assemblies.

Ahmida (2005) describes this stage that Libyan society characterized by the thought and principles of Sanusiyya. The Sanusiyya movement is a revivalist Islamic movement that established several religious lodges and created a rudimentary structure of governance in Cyrenaica by collecting taxes, providing social services to tribes, and maintaining peace in the province. The early form of social, economic and political organization by the Sanusiyya preserved Islamic values and tribalism in the region. The state rested on an infrastructure composed of a

network of lodges, the Sanusiyya replaced the Ottoman administration, providing education, security, and justice to the region.

Between 1969 and 2011, the tribe has played an important role in support of Gaddafi. Throughout his rule, Gaddafi played on tribal affiliations as a strategy to maintain his power and regime. The findings of Obidi's study (1997) have demonstrated that Libyan society is still a tribal society. The tribe is one of the strongest social organizations, and tribalism still plays a significant social role. It may be an invisible political unit, but it has emerged as one of the main sources of legitimacy of the Gaddafi regime. Indeed, though Qadhafi had depended on central authority that include all state institutions, he co-opted influential tribes, giving them some autonomy as long as they did not impede Qadhafi's revolutionary policies (Pargeter, 2012). Also, tribal influence in Libya is extremely important with tribal affiliation being important with regards to obtaining employment in Libya's General People's Committees, as well as in the country's security apparatus. Qadhafi tribes' political function was formalized during the mid-1990s through the establishment of the Popular Social Committees, in which tribal leaders were represented and which were designed, among other purposes, to hold tribal leaders responsible for subversive activity by members of their tribe. Amal Obeidi (2008) perceives this policy to be the creation of a loyal neo-tribal elite by Qadhafi. Members of Popular Social Leadership Councils were renowned tribal leaders appointed by Qadhafi. As part of this policy, the tribal leaders were granted the right to distribute a significant share of oil revenue on the local level to their tribes, cities, and villages. This initiative could be interpreted as an attempt by the regime to co-opt tribal elites (Husken, 2013).

However, politics in Libya, in the absence of strong state institutions, "became the assertion of family, factional, tribal, and parochial interests" (Vandewalle, 1986, p. 31). It allowed officials

to distribute positions, budgets and projects based on clientelistic considerations rather than merit and efficiency. Pargeter (2012) states that although the persistence of a formal structure of government includes the General People's Congress and the local committees, the real power remained in the hands of an informal structure of authority. This informal structure consisted of Gaddafi and his small circle of intimates, supported and kept in place by several (partly overlapping) security sector institutions to ensure regime survival. It is revealing that for the first 30 years in power, only 112 people occupied ministerial posts in the regime, and were frequently shuffled from one job to the next.

Currently, tribes have obtained political empowerment. This empowerment was evidenced through 1) tribal influence in the National Transitional Council (NTC), 2) the recognition and support of tribal leaders by foreign powers, 3) the power of tribes is enhanced by tribal militia built on former revolutionary brigades ((Husken, 2012). In addition, there is an impression reinforced by the political situation after the summer 2012 elections that the alliance between the tribal establishment and the political party has raised fears about the democratic process become hostage to the tribal interests.

Libyans still identify themselves by tribe, city, state, and ideology. Despite the forced influence of tribal identity, there is flexibility in the use of other identities. It depends on the situation in which individuals operate. Because of the absence of state oversight/agencies and the ensuing chaos and collapse of standards, a new cultural mechanism has emerged to control collective identity by creating symbolic classifications as social identities. These symbolic classifications label some people and groups while excluding others. With multiple sources of these classifications, the inequalities and differences have emerged in Libyan society and led to the appearance of conflict to take advantage of power and influence. Alison Pargeter (2014)

demonstrated that there is a distinction between those who were fighting for and against the Gaddafi regime to one between those who were "clean" or "pure" versus those who were contaminated by their own personal histories. Indeed, inequality in the political context came to be "measured by degree of purity and impurity." Or, in local parlance, between the thuwar (revolutionaries) and Azlam Gaddafi (Gaddafi's men). This description of the current reality of Libya is a real reflection of what Lamont and Molnar (2002) argue that symbolic boundaries are a necessary but insufficient condition for the existence of social boundaries. They also argue that only when symbolic boundaries are widely agreed upon can they take on a constraining character and pattern social interaction in important ways. Symbolic boundary can be defined as the lines that include and define some people, groups, and things while excluding others.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

Sociologists' approach to the study of workplace power differs in various ways. Some use a macro view which focuses on the large social forces that influence people. Others take a micro view, focusing on the specific social situations in which people interact with one another. Reviewing the literature on workplace power, we can see that power grows incrementally through the accumulation of multiple resources at multiple levels, including position in the workplace, interpersonal relationships, and individual characteristics. Accordingly, I have developed a framework that unites history, culture, structure, and agency by providing multi- causal mechanisms that determine and define the forces which shape the decision-making process and influences the decision-makers, the way in which these mechanisms are culturally and structurally organized, how this process continues to support workplace power and the hierarchy, and how the transformation of historical contexts into social identities.

Two theories are the foundation for the study's theoretical framework and build upon each other to determine what factors determine workplace power in Libya, including systemic theory and expectation states theory. This begins with open and closed systems theory and argues that power encompasses open systems which are shaped and supported by internal and external environmental factors. I will apply Luhmann's (1995) idea that a workplace is not autopoietic system, which means that it isn't operationally closed. It can be affected in any way by the environment. It does mean that such a workplace is not blind to what happens beyond its boundaries, or in other words, it can receive information directly from or react to its environment in accordance with its own mode of operation (Crubellate, 2005). Thus, workplace power is defined not only as solely held in the grips of the decision-makers (Weber, 1976; Dahl, 1961), but also represents political and social structures and inequality in society. Consequently, power includes the legal-rational form (Weber, 1947) and meaning, ideas, acknowledgers' effect form (Lukes, 2005). I propose that workplace structure consists of the division of labor, formalization, and centralization, which affects the distribution of power. This will allow me to underscore the degree of standardization in the workplace and its effects on the distribution of power.

I conceive of workplace power in terms of structure, agency, and the transformation of historical situations. The study of the historical background of a society provides an interpretation of the role played by its cultural groups and their members' acceptance of the many complex cultural norms that confer power in their places of work. This study tries to examine the multi-causal mechanisms that determine and define that force which shapes the decision-making process and influences the decision-makers, and the way in which these mechanisms are culturally and structurally organized. To illustrate how this process continues to support workplace power and the hierarchy, I refer to the transformation of historical back-story. I operationalize these historical

contexts into social identities. Identity, as I am using the term here, refers to any group that shares a self or externally ascribed characteristic that sets it apart from other groups. This characteristic might be gender, political affiliation, socio-economic class, or kinship. Specifically, I discuss how a worker's identity affects his or her degree of power.

First, I use the ideal worker norm to explain how the workplace affected by gendered stereotypes undermine and devalue women's achievement of positions of power by producing expectations that favor men. The "ideal worker" is rational, is a strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities. Employers presume that men embody these expectations. In contrast, employers perceive that women are less rational, more expressive, unable to work long hours, and less committed to work, particularly if they are mothers. Consequently, women are funneled into positions with little decision-making capacity, fewer resources, and lower pay compared to men.

To support this line of reasoning, it must be understood that Libyan society is a tribal society despite the variety of political systems that have manifested from time to time. Its governance had been changed from a monarchy in 1952, Qawmiyya in 1969 "Libyan Arab Republic", Jamahiriya in 1973, and then to Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, which was a direct democracy without any political parties in 1977. After the revolution of February 2011, the country still needs to come to terms with an authoritarian legacy, and the collapse of a peculiar brand of informal despotic rule that deprived the central state of any stable, rule-governed institutions. In the immediate post-revolution period, Libyans bravely took on the tremendous challenge to build the state comprehensively and simultaneously embarked on the path towards democratization (Smits, et. al., 2013).

((Theoretical Model))

Formalization	
Legal-rational structure	**Workplace structure**
Specialization	
Commitment	Centralization

Decision making

"Authority"

POWER

| Treatment | Value | **Gender** |

Influence decision makers

	Social economic status	**Tribalism**
Support		
	Kinship and social relationships	
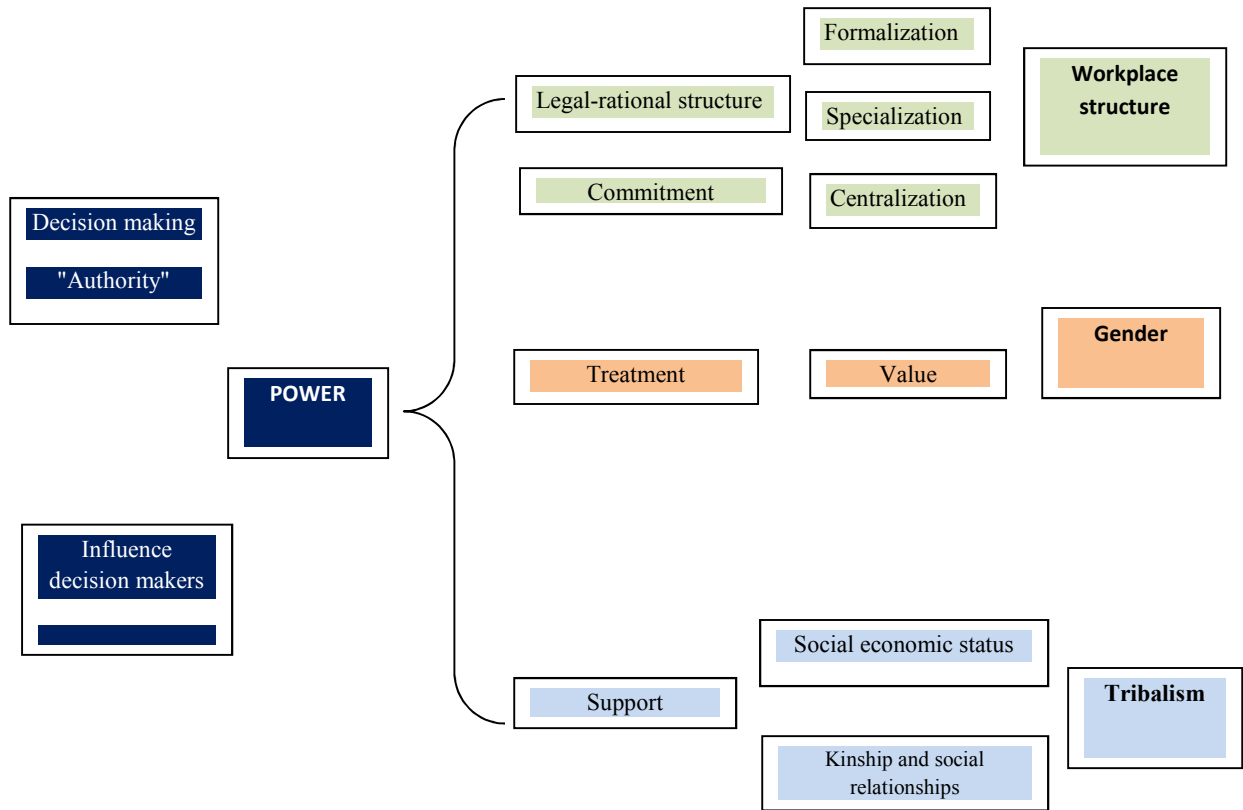
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology I use in this study. Specifically, I describe the research design, sampling technique, measurements, instrument procedures, and statistical analyses and techniques employed. The purpose of this study is to examine employee authority and influence within workplace. In particular, this study described the standardization of workplace power regarding structural characteristics, as defined by formalization, centralization, and specialization. Within this organizational structure, I investigated the relationship between employee characteristics and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making. I also explored work commitment and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making. Given the literature concerning how organizations are experienced distinctly by employees, I used the following research questions to guide the study:

-What is the nature of workplace power? Is the company bureaucratic structure organized around a rational-legal or traditional model, as defined by Weber?

-What is the relationship between gender and the distribution of workplace power?

-What is the relationship between tribalism identity and the distribution of workplace power?

-What is the relationship between having relationships with people in the high positions and the distribution of workplace power?

-What is the relationship between employee's commitment and the distribution of workplace power?

3.1 Research Design

In my dissertation proposal, I had planned a mixed methods study. The mixed-methods sequential explanatory design would have consisted of two distinct phases: quantitative followed by qualitative (Creswell 2009). The purpose of this mixed-methods sequential explanatory study

was to identify factors contributing to worker's power in Azzawiya Oil Refining Company by obtaining quantitative results from a survey of 344 workers and then following up with five purposefully selected women workers to explore those results in more depth through a qualitative research interview. However, during the data collection phase, I found it was difficult to apply the explanatory sequential design due to a lack of volunteers to participate in the study interview and surveys. Some employees refused to take the survey and do the interview. Others agree to participate in study and took the survey, but they never returned it or they returned it with a lot of missing answers. In addition, employees refused to recode their interview even with no name. Consequently, I limited this study to a cross-sectional quantitative design.

I chose the quantitative (survey) method because the method is based on objective data results from empirical observations and measures. The main instruments I used in the study have been previously established as valid and reliable; therefore, they could be used to generate meaningful data interpretations and findings that can be generalized or compared across workplace. The method uses survey design to observe, measure, and describe trends, attitudes, and opinions of a population sample to generalize back to the whole population so that inferences can be made about the characteristics, attitudes, or behaviors of the population (Creswell, 2009). I used cross-sectional research design because it involves measuring different variables in the population of interest at a single point in time (Lewin, 2005). The benefit of a cross-sectional study design is that it allows researchers to compare many different variables at the same time, less time-consuming, flexibility to occur which means their focus can be shifted while data is being collected, and inexpensive. However, looking for causal relationships using simple statistical tools may be difficult, but with sophisticated statistical tools such as regression analysis, causal relationships can be established. Also, cross-sectional studies would gather data that is not that

reliable because it offers a snapshot of a single moment in time and difficult to determine temporal relationship between reasons and outcome "lacks time element".

3.2 Setting

In this study, the research setting was the Azzawiya Oil Refining Company in Libya. I chose this company because in Libya it is widely considered as a good model of rational workplace that coexists with an environment still dominated by tribal social relations and political interests. Oil companies in Libya represent the strongest economic sector, and thus are organizations that must rely on a high degree of efficiency and significant training of its workforce to ensure continued success. Azzawiya Oil Refining Company is a company-owned by National Oil Corporation (NOC), which is a state-owned company that controls Libya's oil and gas production, and is the biggest oil producer in Africa. NOC played a major part in the Libyan government's new strategy of higher oil prices and production-sharing. Azzawiya Oil Refining Company (ARC) was established in 1974. According to ARC's website about the company: The main target of establishing the Company was to fulfill the increasing local demand for oil derivatives, besides exporting any surplus products to global markets. In designing this Refinery, international standards were adhered to. Safety and individual, as well as environmental, protection were taken into consideration. Azzawiya Oil Refining Company still abides by, and always will, international standards; therefore, it stands on equal footing with other oil refining companies both locally and globally. The Company exercises its utmost to perform its activities in the best manner possible. It also aspires to contribute to the welfare and prosperity of Libya as a whole.

The refinery of ARC is located northwest of Azzawiya City on a land area of approximately 200 hectares. This company has three production sites: the refinery, the factory of mixing and filling of motor oils, and the asphalt factory in Benghazi. Annual statistical report for Azzawiya Oil

Refining Company in 2014 shows the company consists of five major departments, and all the major departments group followed by sub-departments which are as follows:

1) Management Committee:
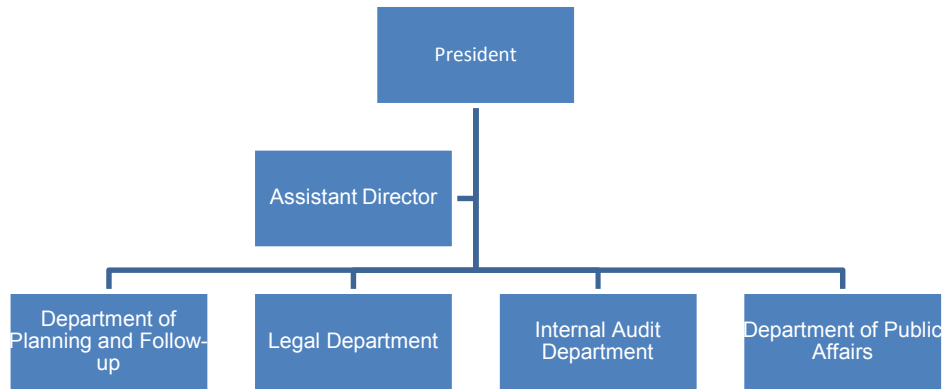
The Management Committee has 492 employees including six women: three were secretarial staff and responsible for day-to-day administrative tasks such as arranging meetings, assisting the chairperson to prepare the agenda, making sure all letters and other documents are properly filed, organizing activities and events, and maintaining custody of all books, documents, records and registers of the company. Two other women were lawyers, who were responsible for legal reviews of the decisions made by the committee and ensure that the company's legal decisions translated to a strong bottom line. They were also responsible for legal follow-up of commercial and transactions issues. One was engineer at department of planning and follow-up. She participates in setting the strategic plan, sets the annual goals for planning department which contributes to the company vision, and participates in the sales and operations planning process through monthly meeting.

2) Public Administration for financial and administrative affairs:

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │     Public      │
                    │ Administration  │
                    └────────┬────────┘
        ┌────────────┬───────┴───────┬──────────────┐
┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐
│     Port      │ │ Department of │ │ Department of │ │ Department of │
│  development  │ │Administration │ │Public Accounts│ │   Financial   │
│    project    │ │               │ │               │ │  Accounting   │
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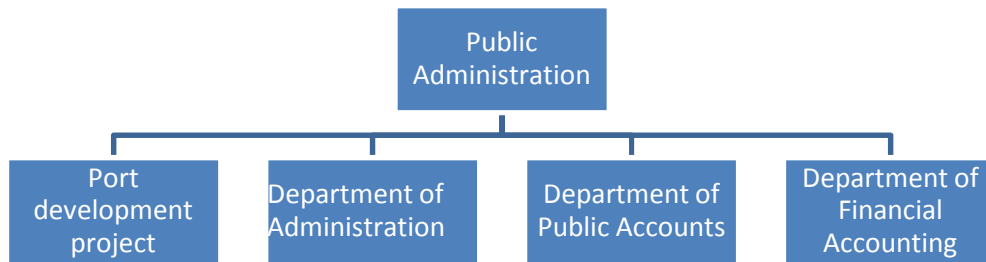
The public administration for financial and administrative affairs has 301 employees, including 82 women distributors in four major departments: port development project, department of administration, department of public accounts, and department of financial accounting.

3) Public Administration for Technical Affairs and projects:

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                              ┌─────────────────┐
                              │ Technical Affairs│
                              │   and projects   │
                              └────────┬─────────┘
     ┌──────────────┬─────────────────┼─────────────────┬──────────────┐
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│   Port   │ │The development│ │  Manage the  │ │Maintenance│ │   Service    │
│development│ │of the refinery│ │implementation│ │Management │ │ Management    │
│ project  │ │   project     │ │ of projects  │ │          │ │and Technical  │
│          │ │              │ │              │ │          │ │   Studies    │
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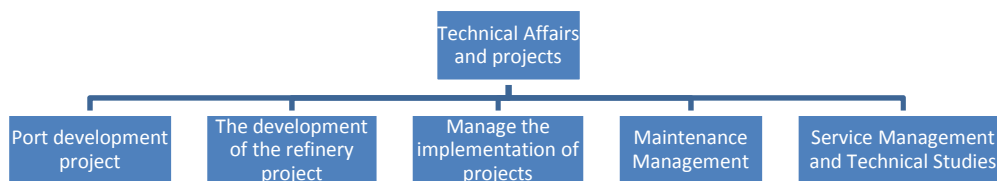
Public administration for technical affairs and projects has 352 employees, and include 35 women distributors in five departments.

4) General Administration of operations, production and maintenance:

General administration of operations, production and maintenance has 1053 employees, with 14 who are women distributors in five departments.

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                        Operations sector


Factory of Mixing    Monitor the Naval    Monitor the         Control facilities    Monitoring
     oils              Operations      movement of oil                              refining
                                       and production
                                          planning
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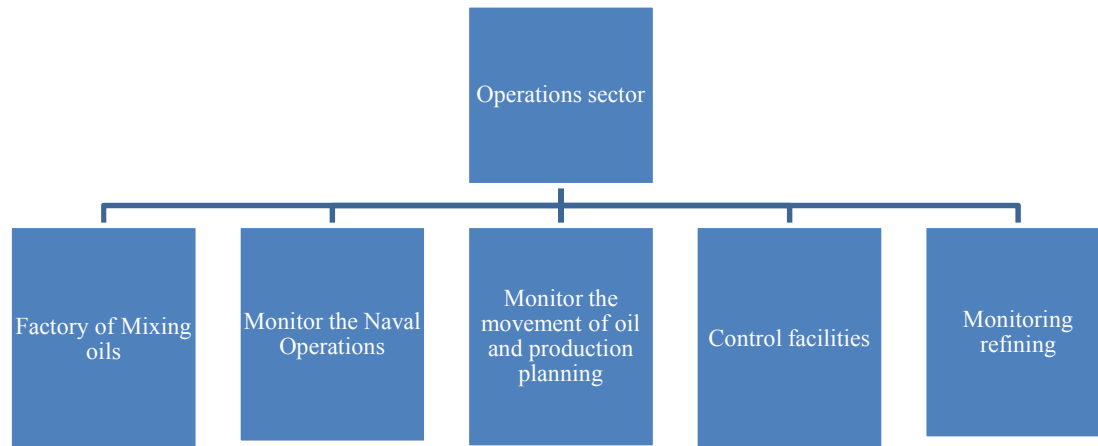
5) Services and Maintenance sector:

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                    Services and Maintenance sector


department of Training   Factory Asphalt in Benghazi   Department of Supply and   Management to prevent losses
                                                              Services
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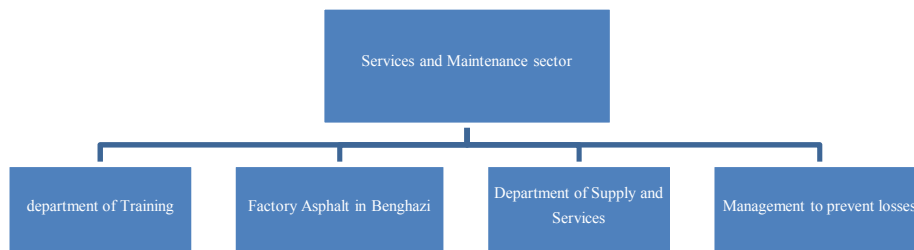
Services and maintenance sector has 1148 employees, including 10 women who work in the department of training and 4 women who are distributors.

3.3 The Sample

I used a cross-sectional quantitative survey design with a convenience sample to examine the relationship between the workplace organizational structure, gender, tribalism, and workplace power. In this study, I chose disproportionate stratified random sampling for two reasons. First, the worker's number is disproportionate between working levels within company. Second, the number of women workers is a small. If I insisted on using proportionate stratified random sampling, I would get biased data and skewed results.

Sample frame

Sample frame in this study is list of workers' names in each company's level.

Size of the sample

I used Steven K. Thompson's equation to determine the sample size:

$$n = \frac{N \times p(1-p)}{\left[N-1 \times \left(d^2 \div z^2\right)\right] + p(1-p)}$$

N= the population size "here the number of workers in Azzawiya Company in 2014 is 3346.

Z= 1.96% "Z-score corresponding to confidence level that 95%".

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

p= the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum

Sample size)

Sample size= 344

Employees	company's levels	sample size
492	Management Committee	70
301	Financial and Administrative Affairs	60
352	Engineering sector and projects	50
1148	Services and Maintenance sector	64
1053	Operations sector	100
3346		**344**

3.4 Data and measurement

Workplace Structure

The first research question was: What is the nature of the workplace structure? The purpose

of this question was to describe the current workplace structure, and identify if authority and power

are traditional bureaucratic, rational-legal, or some other form. The workplace structure is a system

used to define a hierarchy within an organization. It identifies each job, its function and where it

reports to within the organization. This structure is developed to establish how an organization

operates and assists an organization in obtaining its goals to allow for future growth. I use the

following set of indicators to measure workplace structure (Penning 1973):

1. Formalization

2. Specialization

3. Centralization

A)   Formalization

Formalization "Job codification" means the extent to which rules, procedures, instructions, and communications are written. I measured formalization by asking respondents to answer 17 statements (See Appendix B). The formalization is assigned numerical scores from 1 (low standard) to 7 (high standard), depending on whether they answer these statements which were on a 7-point Likert scale from "Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, or strongly disagree".

B) Specialization

Specialization includes the division of labor within the organization and the distribution of official duties among a number of positions. I measured specialization by asking respondents to answer 17 statements (See Appendix B). The specialization is assigned numerical scores from 1 (low specialization) to 7 (high specialization), depending on whether they answer these statements which were on a 7-point Likert scale from "Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, or strongly disagree". Statements (15, 16, and 17) were adapted from the Caldwell study (1990).

C) Centralization

The concept of centralization refers to the hierarchical level that has authority to make-decisions. If decisions are delegated to lower levels the organization is decentralized and if decision making power authority is kept at the top level it is centralized (Pugh, 1973). Centralization refers to the locus of decision-making authority lying in the higher levels of a

hierarchical relationship (Robbins & Decenzo, 2001). I used Pugh et al.'s (1968) measurement of centralization: the locus of authority to make decisions affecting the workplace. Responses to the questions in terms of the five hierarchical levels in the company have been converted into 32 items used for scale on centralization (See Appendix B). The employees were asked whether their company allowed employees even below the company's head to make decisions on such topics as hiring, job evaluation, wage level, punishment, etc. The workplace structure is assigned numerical scores from 1 (decentralization) to 6 (high centralization), depending on whether they answer 32 statements which were scored as follows:

Board of group 6

Managing director ……5

Production manager….4

Plant manager….3

Supervisors …2

Direct worker…1

Consultation with all …0

Dependent Variable: Workplace Power

Workplace power is the dependent variable in this study. It reflects actions of any individual or company system that controls the company member. This definition recognizes not only the formal power, but also the importance of informal individual power. The view that power is an ability that can "get others to do what they would not otherwise do despite their resistance" could apply to formal and individual power as well (Etzioni, 1978; Krausz, 1986; Tjosvold, 1989; Cangemi, 1992; Hardy & O'Sullivan, 1998; Katz, 1998; Smith, 2002; Burgoon and Dunbar, 2005;

Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Barksdale, 2008). Power in the workplace is characterized by the capacity to make effective decisions and their ability to influence employees' actions.

The procedural definition of power determines workplace power as exercise by using various formal and informal resources to influences decision-making processes and controls access to those processes. In this study, power is measured as representing:

-Decision making "Workplace Authority" "formal power"

-Influence decision makers "informal power"

1) **Workplace Authority**:

Authority is the right or power assigned to an executive or a manager in order to achieve certain company objectives. It is based on the employee's position in the company and is validated by the members of the company. The formal structure provides the framework to enact legitimate power because it defines the rights and responsibilities within the organization, and it establishes the hierarchy. The power associated with formal authority include the power to make certain decisions and the power to instruct another person to do something, but only within the context of the company's work (Weber,1954; Dahrendorf 1959; McGuire & Reskin, 1993; Smith, 2002; Akrani, 2010). I measured workplace authority by measuring the actual participation in decision making based on 42 statements (See Appendix B). Respondents are assigned numerical scores from 1 (low participation) to 7 (high participation), depending on how they answer these statements which were on a 7-point Likert scale from "strongly agree", "moderately agree", "slightly agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "slightly disagree", "moderately disagree", or "strongly disagree."

2) **Influence decision makers:**

Informal workplace power "Influence " refers to the ability to lead, direct or achieve without an official position title. It is derived from the relationships that employees build with each other. Informal power is described as effective relationships with peers, subordinates, and superiors within and outside the company (Kanter, 1993). The procedural definition of informal workplace power is the ability to influence decision makers, and I measured influence decision makers by asking respondents to answer 22 statements (See Appendix B). Respondents are assigned numerical scores from 1 (low influence) to 7 (high influence), depending on whether they answer these statements which were on a 7-point Likert scale from "strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, or strongly disagree." For the purpose of this study, all the negative statements in the decision-making scale (items 16 and 20 in the survey) [Appendix B] were reverse-coded first in order to reduce response bias.

Independent Variables

Gender inequality

My second question examined the relationship between gender and the distribution of power. In order to determine the effect of gender inequality on the distribution of workplace power, I selected variables that take into account factors which, according to human capital theorists and gender-based stereotypes theorists, are responsible for gender differences in positions of power.

In first part, according to human capital theorists, women may have less power than men because they have lower investments in factors such as training, education, and experience, or because they have less seniority. Therefore, I combined men and women employees in order to determine the effect of gender on measures of workplace power. A number of variables selected include sex, education, job experience as well as training. Sex was coded by dummy variable: male

(1) and female (0). Education was measured in years. Major "specialization" was recoded by employees' major by dummy variable: (1) specialist and (0) non-specialist. Continuous job experience was also calculated in years and was based on data collected on the length of continuous tenure in the present and two prior jobs held by each respondent. Training was measured by asking the question: Did you have the training courses? Yes (1) and No (0).

In the second part, according to gender-based stereotypes theorists, workplace creates gendered stereotypes that undermine and devalue women's achievement of positions of power by producing expectations that favor men. Stereotypes are characteristics imputed to the members of identifiable groups (Deaux and Wrightsman, 1984). In the company setting, if a model of successful management reflects masculine values, then making promotional decisions to evaluate potential managers is tied to traditional male managerial cultures and females do not fit into that executive mold (Hewlett, 2007). Here, I measured gendered stereotypes by characteristics that imputed to the members of identifiable groups (Deaux and Wrightsman, 1984). These characteristics included the ideal worker image which is rational, a strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities. To apply this argument, I combined women and men's employees with a number of variables that take into account factors which, according to gender-based stereotypes theory, are responsible for gender differences in positions of power. These include following variables:

-Working long hours is measured by hours of work.

-Marital status is macerated by a dummy variable coded (1) if the respondent is married and (0) if the respondent is unmarried.

- For the presence of children, a dummy variable is included and coded one if the respondent reports having children presently residing in the household.

-Committed to work was measured as an independent variable using a composite score of three elements described below. I also used the variable employee work commitment as a dependent variable to answer my fifth research question described earlier. Employees' commitment is a psychological state that binds an employee to an organization, and that it has three distinct components that affect how employees feel about the organization that they work for (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1979). The procedural definition of employees' commitment depends on three factors. Employees' commitment is characterized by (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the company's goals and values, which indicates affective commitment; (2) Fear of loss "continuance commitment" considers the idea that individuals do not leave a company for fear of losing their benefits, taking a pay cut, and not being able to find another job (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1991). Those who stay within their organization with a strong continuance commitment are there just because they need it. Continuance commitment reflects economic ties to the organization based on the costs associated with leaving the organization; (3) Sense of obligation to stay as "normative commitment" suggests that the employees with strong normative commitment will remain with an organization by virtue of their belief that it is the "right and moral" thing to do (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The normative component of commitment concerns the employee's belief about one's responsibility to the organization. Employees who are normatively committed to the organization remain because "they believe that it is the right and moral thing to do" (Wiener, 1982).

In this study, a total of three types of commitment measures were selected from established sources. These include the six-item versions of the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales (Allen and Meyer, 1990), and fifteen item of The Organization Commitment

Questionnaire (OCQ) by (Mowday et al, 1979) [See Appendix B]. Commitment scale was included 33 items. Respondents are assigned numerical scores from 1 (less commitment) to 7 (high commitment), depending on whether they answer these statements which were on a 7-point Likert scale from "Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, or strongly disagree." For the purpose of this study, all the negative statements in the commitment scale (items 3, 7, 9, 13, 16, 19, 20, and 21 in the survey) [Appendix B] were reverse-coded first in order to reduce response bias.

The last part measured gender inequality by combining men and women employees with the degree of treatment in company in order to determine which employees as group (men and women) are treated more favorable within the company and conclude the effect of gender inequality on measures of workplace power. I measured the degree of respondents' treatment in company by asking respondents to answer 16 items (See Appendix B). The scale is assigned numerical scores from 1 (less favorably) to 7 (much more favorably), depending on whether they answer these statements which were on a 7-point scale from "treated much less favorably" (1), "treated moderately less favorably (2)", "treated slightly less favorably (3)", "treated equally (4)", "treated slightly more favorably (5)", "treated moderately more favorably (6)", "treated much more favorably (7)".

Tribalism

My third research question examined the relationship between tribalism and the distribution of power. A significant body of literature links tribal association and workplace power. This study measured tribal association by employees' tribal identity, the role played by the tribe in their careers, and relationships with their relatives work in the company. Respondents were asked questions about:

A. The tribe to which the respondent belongs, measured by numeral variables including names of their tribes, which then are converted to dummy variables.

B. The respondent's relationship with their relatives who work in the company. This is measured by the number of relatives who work in the company, the gender of those relatives: male (1), women (0), and the positions those relatives occupy, including: managerial and professional (8), auditing and oversight (7), technical and administrative supervision (6), administrative and legal (5), finance (4), technical (3) secretarial (2), service/line worker (1).

C. Asking respondents if they have received assistance from their tribe in the 6 items including: their previous job, their current job, access to training courses abroad, privileges such as housing, car, and promotions. This index is assigned numerical scores from 1 (received assistance) to 0 (non-received assistance), depending on whether they answer the index items 1 (yes) 0 (no).

Relationships with people in the high positions

The fourth research questions analyzed the relationships employees had with other employees in high positions. This study measured employees' relationships with people in the high positions by asking respondents if they have relationship with people in the 7 high positions including, in the company's main administrative offices, workers' Union, one of the official security services, high-ranking governmental officer, congress, or revolutionary committees. For this index numerical scores were assigned from 1 (Have relationships) to 0 (Non- relationships), depending on whether they answer the index items 1 (yes) 0 (no).

3.5 Instrument and Procedures

The questionnaire had 97 questions and contained eight main sections: 1) Individual characteristics (15 items), (2) Workplace structure includes: Formalization (17 items), specialization (17 items), and centralization (31 items), (3) Work Commitment (34 items), (4) Decision making "Workplace Authority" (41 items), (5) Decision making influence (22 items), (6) family background information (6 questions), (7) tribalism (7 questions), and (8) gender (16 items) (See Appendix B-II for a copy of the survey instrument). The questionnaire was structured with closed-ended questions with responses set up on a Likert scale and yes/ no scale.

Because there was an access issue with Azzawiya Oil Refining Company to conduct this study and collect survey from its employees, I collected written permission to study potential participants (see Appendix C & CI). Also, ethical concerns that could affect the study include my personal bias about workplace power in Azzawiya Oil Refining Company in Libya. To obtain knowledge about the company, and garner their consent for the study, I had several conversations with employees. Due to the concern related to identity, I used pseudonyms for the names of employees I spoke with about the background of the work organization. The participant's statements or positions may not easily identify the information discussed within the dissertation. As a result of the potential risk that may still arise from using the selected methods, the researcher developed a consent form (see Appendix A& AI). A consent form was presented to all potential participants (see Appendix A& AI) to explain the purpose of the study, the procedures to be used in the data collection process, the confidentiality agreement, the known benefits and risk associated with participation, and their right to voluntarily withdraw from the study at any time. The consent form held a place for both the participants and the researcher to sign and date. In addition, the

institutional review board (IRB) application at Wayne state University was approved to conduct the research.

Prior to data collection, the questionnaire was pilot tested first on 10 employees to assess the study's measures for reliability and to establish validity before embarking on the full study. Employees were asked to evaluate appropriateness of response options, time to complete, and clarity of the questions in terms of language, wording, and meaning. Necessary corrections were considered accordingly. All measures and information sheets were then translated from English to Arabic language. Forward translation from English to Arabic was employed by a certified translator. Finally, the survey was pilot tested again on another ten employees to test the measures after two weeks. At that time, no corrections were made.

During data collection, because of unrest in Libya, complex US visa procedures, and the lack of funding, I was unable to travel to Libya and collect data myself. The survey was administered by a volunteer team of two assistant professors from Azzawiya University, Dr. Bahiya Albeshti and Dr. Kaled Alrahal. We discussed the best way to collect the survey that takes into account the lack of sufficient time for employees with a long survey. For that, we decided to administer the survey using the drop-and-pick method and hand out surveys to employees and give them a week to return the survey. The distribution of the 344 questionnaires took two months because of the lack of employees' response to participate in the study. As a result, the lack of security and safety, high cost of living, the banking crisis, and the inability to withdraw salaries created a state of frustration among Libyans as a whole. Employee (M.K) said "this is not best time for this study. It's doesn't matter to me to answer questions about power, and I am thinking how to go back home with roads closed by militias, and how to bring food to my family and get my salary with banking crisis and no money in banks".

The return of questionnaires lasted for seven months due to the absence of employees because of the security conditions of the area. The roads were closed to the refinery and caused the suspension of work at the refinery intermittently. The return rate for my study was 159 out of 344, which amounts to a 46% return rate of the 344-questionnaire returned. However, 144 questionnaires were returned without response to majority questions. Thus, I removed 144 questionnaires from the analysis. For this first attempt, I only had 15 completed questionnaires from 344 distributed questionnaires. According to Bowling (2005), low response rate could affect the quality of data and the precision or reliability of the survey's population estimates resulting in study bias and weakening the external validity as a biased sample is of little value in making estimates that represent the target population (Adanri, 2016). To cope with this problem, I decided to administer the survey through interviews with employees on their cell phones, mainly using the app named Viber. This app offers innovative ways to gather data regardless of time and location and the answers can be sent when it's convenient. Also, I decided to use a different strategy to access to employees through her relatives who work in company and asked them to help her to find volunteers who work in different departments and different levels in company to participate in the study. The phone-interviews started on January 2016 and ended on March 2016. The second attempt at data collection was successful; in total, the sample included154 completed questionnaires.

3.6 Issues of Trustworthiness

Validity

Validity is about the closeness of what we believe we are measuring to what we intended to measure (Frankfort,Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008; Adanri, 2016). There are a number of measures of validity that provide evidence of the quality of a study. First, content validity tests whether a

questionnaire appears to others to be measuring what it says it does. To assess content validity, researcher asked recognized experts in the area to give their opinion on the validity of the questionnaire. The survey revised by the expert team includes Dr. Altahar Algreed, sociology professor at Azzawiya university; Dr Younis Hammadi, sociology professor at Azzawiya university; Mahfoud Albeashti, executive director at Brega Marketing Company; and Abojila Rashad, director of legal administration at Brega Marketing Company. Their experiences enrich the survey questions. In addition, in the pilot test, the researchers asked employees to evaluate appropriateness of response options, time to complete, and clarity of the questions in terms of language, wording, and meaning.

Second, construct validity tests the link between a measure and the underlying theory. If a test has construct validity, you would expect to see a reasonable correlation with tests measuring related areas. Construct validity is usually measured using a correlation coefficient – when the correlation is high, the instrument can be considered valid (Knapp, 1998; Carter & Porter, 2000; Peat, 2002). To ensure construct validity, I measured the instrument against the theoretical framework of the study in order to determine whether the instrument is logically and empirically tied to the theoretical assumptions. The study demonstrated that there is a relationship between the measuring instrument and the theoretical framework of the research study.

Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which a measuring instrument contains variable errors; that is, errors that appear inconsistently between observations during any measurement procedure or each time a given variable is measured by the same instrument. Reliability is "defined as the ratio of the true-score variance to the total variance in the scores as measured (Adanri, 2016). It is the proportion of variability in a measured score that is due to variability in the true score. In this

study, reliability analysis was conducted to determine if the measurement's items measuring structure, gender, tribalism, and workplace power were measuring accurately and to determine if the internal consistency of the variables was acceptable by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb: "_ > .9 – Excellent, _ > .8 – Good, _ >.7 – Acceptable, _>.6 – Questionable, _>.5 – Poor, and _< .5 – Unacceptable" (Gliem, 2003). Reliability analysis showed the following results: (see Appendix D)

1) Seventeen items were used to assess formalization. Cronbach alpha value was (,56); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would be (.84) if six items were removed for the scale Gliem (2003). Therefore, the researcher removed six items from formalization measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

2) Seventeen items were used to assess specialization. Cronbach alpha value of specialization measure was (.72); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would be (.90) if two items were removed for the scale. Therefore, the researcher removed two items from specialization measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

3) Thirty items were used to assess centralization. Cronbach alpha value of centralization measure was (.59); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would be (.86) if 18 items were removed for the scale. Therefore, the researcher removed 21 items from centralization measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

4) Thirty-seven items were used to assess Commitment. Cronbach alpha value of Commitment measure as a whole was (.64); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would

be (.98) if 12 items were removed for the scale. Therefore, the researcher removed 12 items from Commitment measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

5) Twenty-four items were used to assess Authority. Cronbach alpha value of Authority measure was (.66); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would be (.87) if 3 items were removed for the scale. Therefore, the researcher removed 3 items from Authority measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

6) Twenty-two items were used to assess influence. Cronbach alpha value of influence measure was (.62); however, the scale's Cronbach's alpha would be (.89) if 9 items were removed for the scale. Therefore, the researcher removed 9 items from influence measure to get high internal consistency (reliability).

7) Sixteen items of gender treatment measurement were acceptable. The acceptable Cronbach alpha value (.90) which indicates that the scale has high internal consistency (reliability).

In addition, to make sure the Cronbach alpha results were correct, I applied another test that measure the structural honesty[*] to verify the extent of correlation scores by using Pearson correlation coefficient between the score of one statement and the total scores of the scale. The results were identical with Cronbach's alpha test.

3.7 Statistical Analysis

In this study, the strategy of data analysis includes three analyses: univariate analysis, followed by bivariate analysis, and multivariate analysis (multiple regression analysis). Initially,

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[*] An internal consistency is the extent to which tests or procedures assess the same characteristic, skill or quality. It is a measure of the precision between the observers or of the measuring instruments used in a study.

univariate statistics were used to assess the overall trends and patterns of the data. These statistics were composed of descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency and measure of central tendency, dispersions). Then, I used bivariate statistics, such as T test, and One-Way ANOVAs, were conducted to assess whether the dependent variables (authority and influence) differed significantly by gender and tribalism. Also, I used Pearson correlation to confirm t-test and ANOVA's results and to check the strength of the relationship between the variables and their direction. Finally, multivariate analysis, multiple regression was used to test the study research hypotheses and to predict the relationship that exists between gender, tribalism, commitment, and workplace power. Multiple regression technique allows identification of the best predictor of an outcome or dependent variable. It also allows control for other variables that may or may not have had an effect on the dependent variables.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of quantitative survey to examine the relationship between workplace structure, gender, tribalism, and workplace power through five sections. The first section of the chapter provides a univariate description of the workplace structure within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company (ZORC) and workers, as whole and a sample. Then I examine the relationship between respondents' characteristics and workplace power through a bivariate analysis using Pearson correlation. The second section looks at the relationship between gender and workplace power through a univariate description of gender inequality and bivariate analysis using Pearson correlation. The third section looks at the relationship between tribalism and workplace power, including the relationship between have personal relationships with individuals in high positions in society and workplace power, through a univariate description of employees' tribalism identity and bivariate analysis using Pearson correlation. The fourth section looks at the relationship between commitment and workplace power through a univariate description of employees' commitment and bivariate analysis using Pearson correlation. The last and fifth section deals with the multivariate analysis when statistical evidences warrant. A series of hierarchical linear multiple regressions were used to predict the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

4.1.1 Workplace Structure's Characteristics

The following is a descriptive account of workplace structure variables under examination includes the three components of formalization, specialization, and centralization. The analysis provides an assessment of the degree and pattern of the formalization, specialization, and centralization in order to determine the nature of workplace structure in Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

1) **Formalization**

According to findings in table 1, over 76% of the respondents were more likely to agree (moderately agree, slightly agree) that employees are constantly checked on for rule violations, and 1.9 % of the respondents strongly disagreed with this statement. Concerning the second measure, Employees felt as though they were constantly watched to see that they obeyed all the rules, 66.9% of respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this statement while 29.8% of respondents were more likely to agree (slightly agree, moderately agree). The majority of the respondents (65.6%) moderately agreed that there are written rules and procedures available for their job with slightly more than half (55.2%) stating there was written documentation that specified guidelines for workflows in their job, and about the same (54.5%) indicating that there was written documentation for specific job tasks. With regard to the sixth measure, "publications and posters that show company regulations are available, the majority of the respondents (94%) were more likely to agree (moderately agree, slightly agree) with this statement, and just 1.9% of the respondents slightly disagreed with this statement. The seventh measure asked if respondents were "agree" that regulations are communicated through official meetings. The bulk of the respondents (68.8%) were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this statement while 29.8% of respondents were more likely to agree (slightly agree, moderately agree).

The outcomes of the eight measures, I feel that I am well aware of my job responsibilities and obligations, revealed that more than 94% of the respondents were more likely to agree (moderately agree, slightly agree) with this statement. Hence, these results implied that the majority of respondents were fully aware of the job they do. The percent distribution of the ninth measure, "The company changes the regulations from time to time," 68.8% of the respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this

statement while 29.8% of respondents were more likely to agree (slightly agree, moderately agree).The results of the tenth measure, "There are very few instances when actions of management appear to violate the company's values," show that 83.7% of the respondents were more likely to agree (moderately agree, slightly agree) with this statement, and 4.5 % of the respondents slightly disagreed with this statement. By reviewing documents at the department of Legal Affairs, we found that there is a duality of the control and follow-up mechanism on workers. I noted that there were violations of the National Oil Corporation laws in the department of Legal Affairs, which consisted of assigning private lawyers instead of using the company's lawyers to follow the legal cases related to the company in a court. Ahamd, director of Legal Affairs, explained that:

"This related to the effect of nepotism and company's silence on the corruption of

some of its employees and to various acts of favoritism to some private lawyers.

Sometimes the company's lawyer refuses to waive their morals and accepting

bribes to pass the case in favor of the defendant; specifically, when a defendant is

an influential employee and has relationships with people in high positions within

the company and society"

The last measure dealt with the practice of law, "there is some law exceptions when applying laws on employees", as suggested by the majority of the respondents (57.7%) moderately agreeing, while only 12.9% of the respondents moderately disagreeing with this statement. Morad, an employee in the engineering sector and projects department, said:

"A large part of these exceptions do not lead to imbalance within company, WE

SEE IT AS kind of caring for each ".

In short, the descriptive statistics in table 1 showed that the computed mean of respondents' scores on formalization scale was (45.28). Since an arithmetic mean larger than the actual mean (38.5), we can indicate that workplace structure in Azzawiya Oil Company has stable level of the formalization.

Table 1: Percentages of Formalization Measures

	Statements	Strongly agree		Moderately agree		Slightly agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly disagree		moderately disagree		strongly disagree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	Employees are constantly checked on for rule violations.	-	-	117	76.0	29	18.8	5	3.2	-	-	-	-	3	1.9
2	Employees feel as though they are constantly watched to see that they obey all the rules.	1	.6	3	1.9	42	27.3	2	1.3	80	51.9	24	15.6	2	1.3
3	Written rules and procedures are available for my job	33	21.4	101	65.6	19	12.3	1	.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	There is written documentation that specifies guidelines for workflows in my job.	-	-	85	55.2	21	13.6	1	.6	13	8.4	10	6.5	24	15.6
5	There is written documentation for specific job tasks.	-	-	84	54.5	22	14.3	1	.6	13	8.4	10	6.5	24	15.6
6	Publications and posters that show company regulations are available.	-	-	117	76.0	29	18.8	5	3.2	3	1.9	-	-	-	-
7	Regulations are communicated through official meetings	1	.6	3	1.9	42	27.3	2	1.3	80	51.9	24	15.6	2	1.3
8	I feel that I am well aware of my job responsibilities and obligations.	-	-	117	76.0	29	18.8	5	3.2	3	1.9	-	-	-	-
9	The company changes the regulations from time to time	1	.6	3	1.9	42	27.3	2	1.3	80	51.9	24	15.6	2	1.3

10	There are very few instances when actions of management appear to violate the company's values.	-	-	100	64.9	29	18.8	5	3.2	7	4.5	-	-	3	1.9
11	There is some law exceptions when employees applying laws within the company	-	-	89	57.7	-	-	45	29.22	-	-	20	12.9		
	Mean= 45.28 Median= 44 SD= 3.67														

2) Specialization

According to findings in Table 2, 100% of the respondents agreed (strongly agree, moderately agree, and slightly agree) that the company benefits from employee specialty. The percent distribution of the ninth measure, "I feel that I am paid sufficiently for the amount of work that I do," 96.8% of the respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this statement while 3.2% of respondents slightly agreed. Concerning the second measure, my current job does not fit with my specialization and career, 91.6% of respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this statement while 8.4% of respondents slightly agreed. With regard to the third measure, "My current job needs administrative support," the majority of the respondents (90.2%) were more likely to disagree (moderately disagree, slightly disagree) with this statement, and just 9.8 % of the respondents slightly disagreed with this statement.

The fourth measure asked if respondents agreed that their current job needs administrative support, the bulk of the respondents (88.9%) were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly disagree) with this statement while 11.1% of respondents were more likely to disagree (slightly disagree, moderately disagree). The results of the fifth measure, "I feel that my daily work tasks are not important", show that 88.3% of the respondents were more likely to

disagree (moderately disagrees, slightly disagree) with this statement while 3.2 % of the respondents were slightly disagree with this statement.

The outcomes of the eighth measure, "My knowledge and skills in my current job are useful to other companies", revealed that more than 88.3% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree) with this statement, few respondents reported being in disagreement with this statement. The last measure, "I feel that I sometimes do more than one job", shows that although 60% of the respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree) with this statement, 36.4% of the respondents slightly agreed with this statement. Do these percentages lead to indications about the structure of the company, particularly with respect to specialization? Zaena, supervisor at the department of planning and follow-up, said:

> "Some employees do more than one job because they are assigned to perform
> official missions as a member of the follow-up committee, evaluate, and other
> emergency works within company".

Descriptive statistics in Table 2 show that the computed mean respondents' score of specialization on specialization scale is (70.20). Since the arithmetic mean is larger than the actual mean (49), we can indicate that workplace structure in Azzawiya Oil Company has high level of the specialization. Overall, what this analysis clearly demonstrates is that Azzawiya Oil Company's structure has a good level of the specialization

Table 2: Percentages of Specialization Measures:

	Statements	Strongly agree		Moderately agree		Slightly agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly disagree		moderately disagree		strongly disagree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	I think the company benefits from my specialty.	58	37.7	91	59.1	5	3.2								
2	I feel that I am paid sufficiently for the amount of work that I do.					13	8.4			5	3.2	80	51.9	56	36.4

No.	Statement	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3	My current job does not fit with my specialization and career.			9	5.8	6	3.9					61	39.6	78	50.6
4	My current job needs administrative support.			59	38.3	78	50.6					11	7.1	6	3.9
5	I feel that my daily work tasks are not important.							5	3.2	13	8.4	56	36.4	80	51.9
6	I receive sufficient administrative support in my current job.			59	38.3	6	3.9					11	7.1	78	50.6
7	I feel that my job is essential to the company.			59	38.3	6	3.9					11	7.1	78	50.6
8	My knowledge and skills in my current job are useful to other companies.	56	36.4	80	51.9			5	3.2	13	8.4				
9	I put in a lot of effort into performing my job	54	35.1	58	37.7	5	3.2	2	1.3	27	17.5	5	3.2	3	1.9
10	The career paths for employees have been relatively consistent over the last 5 to 10 years.			56	36.4			5	3.2	13	8.4			80	51.9
11	My ideas are likely to be implemented	56	36.4	80	51.9	5	3.2			13	8.4				
12	All employees begin in entry level positions regardless of prior experience or advanced degrees.	56	36.4	80	51.9	5	3.2			13	8.4				
13	Reward systems and promotion criteria require masterly of a core skills and knowledge as a precondition of advancement.	56	36.4	80	51.9	5	3.2			13	8.4				
14	I feel that I sometimes do more than one job			78	50.6	11	7.1					6	3.9	59	38.3
	Mean= 70.20 Median= 49 SD= 8.74														

3) **Centralization**

The findings in table 3 show that the majority of the respondents reported that decisions are made at high position in the company with a tendency to decentralize with certain decisions. According to table 87% of the respondents reported that decisions regarding promotion of supervisory staff are made by the managing director and board. 88% of the respondents reported that decisions about spending unbudgeted or unallocated money on raw materials and supplies are made by the managing director and board. 91.9% of the respondents reported that decisions regarding marketing territories to be covered are made by the managing director and board. 100% of the respondents reported that decisions to create new positions (specialist or line, of any status, probably signified by a new job title) are made by the production manager, managing director, and

board. 81.2% of the respondents reported that decisions pertaining to operational reviews are made by the board. 81.2% of the respondents reported that decisions about overtime to be worked are made by production manager.

On the other hand, 48.1% of the respondents reported that decisions about purchasing procedures are made in consultation with everyone [who is all or everyone?]. Also, 56.5% of the respondents reported that decisions about suppliers of materials to be used are made by consultation with all. 48.1% of the respondents reported that decisions related to the allocation of work among available workers are made by supervisors. These percentages may suggest there is some level of decentralized decision-making in the company.

Overall, descriptive statistics in Table 3 show the computed mean of respondents' scores on centralization scale is (69.64). Since an arithmetic mean larger than the actual mean (40), we can indicate that workplace structure in Azzawiya Oil Company has high level of the centralization.

Table 3: Percentages of centralization Measures:

	Statements	Consultation with all		I do not know		Direct worker		Supervisors		Plant manager		Production manager		Managing director		Board of group	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%
1	Selection of type or brand for new equipment	10	6.5	10	6.5							125	81.2			9	5.8
2	Overtime to be worked	10	6.5	10	6.5							125	81.2			9	5.8
3	Delivery dates or priority of orders							15	9.7	96	62.3	25	16.2	2	1.3	16	10.4
4	New product or service	10	6.5	10	6.5							125	81.2			9	5.8
5	Marketing territories to be covered	4	2.6	7	4.5							3	1.9	15	9.7	125	81.2
6	Extent and kind of investment for new operations	4	2.6	7	4.5							3	1.9	15	9.7	125	81.2
7	Operational reviews	4	2.6	7	4.5							3	1.9	15	9.7	125	81.2

#																	
8	Training methods	1	.6	9	5.8					5	3.2	84	54.5	45	29.2	10	6.5
9	Allocation of work among available workers	22	14.3	4	2.6			74	48.1	32	20.8	22	14.3				
10	Creation of a new job (specialist or line, of any status, probably signified by a new job title)											87	56.5	57	37.0	10	6.4
11	Purchasing procedures	74	48.1			22	14.3	32	20.8			26	16.8				
12	Suppliers of materials to be used	87	56.5			22	14.3	32	20.8					13	8.4		
	Mean= 69.64 - Median= 40 - SD= 10.36																

4) **Workplace Power:**

Decisions making "Workplace Authority"

In Table 4, 17 measures of authority were considered. 23.3% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that their job allows them the freedom to decide how they do their own work. 24% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "In my job, I get to make a lot of decisions on my own." 18.5% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with statement "In my job I get to take part in making decisions that affect me." 19.4% % of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "In my job I get to make decisions that affect other workers". These percentages express the degree of positional authority held by employees and clearly indicate that respondents have a lower level of authority within the company.

The measurement of authority also considers the degree of consultative authority held by employees. The following statements show that a small percentage of respondents held this kind of authority. 20.7% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "My boss consults with me about issues before making a

decision". 18.7% % of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "My boss asks my opinion on decisions made by him/her."

Executive authority was measured by the following statements that show the small amount of executive authority held by employees. 10.7% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "My boss delegates responsibility to me". 25.3% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with the statement "I am given the chance to try my own methods of doing this job".

Finally, descriptive statistics in Table 4 show that the computed mean of respondents' scores on authority scale is (43.5). Since an arithmetic mean less than the actual mean (59.5), we can indicate that few respondents have ability to make decision within the company.

Table 4: Percentages of Authority Measures:

	Statements	Strongly agree		Moderately agree		Slightly agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly disagree		moderately disagree		strongly disagree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	I have a lot of say over what happens in my job – the freedom to use my own judgment.	26	16.9	2	1.3	66	42.9	1	.6	48	31.2	11	7.1		
2	My job allows me the freedom to decide how I do my own work.	23	14.9	12	7.8	1	.6			53	34.4	62	40.3		
3	In my job, I get to make a lot of decisions on my own.	21	13.6	2	1.3	14	9.1	4	2.6	50	32.5			63	40.9
4	In my job I get to take part in making decisions that affect me.	22	14.3	1	.6	6	3.9	65	42.2	51	33.1	9	5.8		
5	In my job I get to make decisions that affect other workers.	19	12.3	2	1.3	9	5.8			24	15.6	95	61.7	5	3.2
6	Any decision I make has to have your boss's approval.	52	33.8			51	33.1	11	7.1	20	13.0	15	9.7	5	3.2
7	My job enables me to attend meetings with superiors	48	31.2	2	1.3	15	9.7	7	4.5	39	25.3	34	22.1	9	5.8
8	My boss consults with me about issues before making a decision.	19	12.3	13	8.4			3	1.9	26	16.9	64	41.6	29	18.8
9	My boss asks my opinion on decisions made by him/her	5	3.2	2	1.3	22	14.3			11	7.1	92	59.7	22	14.3
10	My boss performs everything by himself.	8	5.2	32	20.8	60	39.0	2	1.3	30	19.5			22	14.3
11	My boss delegates responsibility to me.	7	4.5	32	20.8			2	1.3	62	40.3	14	9.1		

#															
12	I am given the chance to try my own methods of doing this job.	14	9.1			4	2.6	2	1.3	32	20.8	2	1.3	100	64.9
13	I am able to keep busy all the time.	14	9.1	32	20.8	100	64.9	3	1.9			3	1.9	5	3.2
14	I am given the chance to work alone on the job.	8	5.2	32	20.8	62	40.3	2	1.3	23	14.9	7	4.5	20	13.0
15	I am given the chance to do different things from time to time.	14	9.1	32	20.8	101	65.6	2	1.3	5	3.2			3	1.9
16	I am given the chance to do things for other people.	14	9.1	32	20.8	101	65.6	2	1.3	5	3.2			3	1.9
17	I know my rights, duties, and requirements of my job	101	65.6	32	20.8	14	9.1	4	2.6	3	1.9				
Mean= 43.5 Median= 42.2 SD= 10.2															

2) Influence decision maker

The measures in Table 5 display the verity of influence between employees. The first and second measures of influence deal with respondents' formal position. 33.7% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that their position gives them influence on decision-makers. 21.3% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they can perform their job without reference to superiors. In short, some respondents' influence is based on their practices through formal position.

Third and fourth measures deal with respondents' charisma. 27.8% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they have diplomatic resources to implement tasks without any hindrance. 43.5% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they can talk informally with other employees. As a result, some respondents' influence is based on their practices through their personalities.

The results of the fifth measure, "Others turn to me to facilitate some administrative procedures" indicated that 53.9% of the respondents were more likely to agree (moderately disagree, slightly agree) that others turn to them to facilitate some administrative procedures. This suggested that these respondents have more influence within company than other employees. The

percent distribution of the sixth measure," I provide services in exchange for services from another employee", show that just 5.5% of the respondents moderately agreed that they provide services in exchange for services from another employee.

The following statements deal with privileges within company. 26.6% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they have some privileges such as a house, apartment, car, or assistance for private school education. 88.3% of the respondents answered, "slightly agree" that they have received financial support by the company for healthcare inside the country. 11.5% of the respondents were more likely to agree (moderately agree, slightly agree) that they have received financial support by the company for healthcare abroad.

Finally, descriptive statistics in table 5 show that the computed mean of respondents' scores on Influence scale is (45.92). Since an arithmetic mean larger than the actual mean (42), we can indicate that more than the half of respondents has ability to influence decision maker within company.

Table 5: Percentages of Influence Measures:

	Statements	Strongly agree		Moderately agree		Slightly agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly disagree		moderately disagree		strongly disagree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	My position gives me influence on decision-makers	12	7.8	7	4.5	33	21.4			66	42.9	36	23.4		
2	I can perform my job without reference to superiors	5	3.2	13	8.4	15	9.7			44	28.6	78	50.6		
3	I have diplomatic resources to implement tasks without any hindrance	15	9.7	7	4.5	21	13.6			111	72.0				
4	I can talk informally with other employees	44	28.6	23	14.9			11	7.1	58	37.7			18	11.7
5	Others turn to me to facilitate some administrative procedures			19	12.3	64	41.6	4	2.6	28	18.2	39	25.3		

No	Statement												
6	I provide services in exchange for services from another employee			8	5.2					43	27.9	103	66.9
7	I have received a number of training courses out of the country without any hindrance			33	21.4	12	7.8	3	1.9			106	68.8
8	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare inside the country					136	88.3			18	11.7		
9	I have some privileges such as a house, apartment, car, or assistance for private school education			24	15.6	17	11.0	113	73.4				
10	My job requires me to work very hard.					153	99.4	1	.6				
11	I am asked to do excessive amounts of work.					110	71.4	10	6.5	31	20.1	3	1.9
12	How hard I work for this company is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.			16	10.4	18	11.7			23	14.9	97	63.0
13	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare abroad			12	7.7	6	3.8	39	25.3	97	62.9		
	Mean=45.92 Median= 44 SD= 6.9												

Summary:

A rational-legal workplace structure relies on the standardization of work which is relatively more formalized (Weber, 1976; Pugh et al, 1969; Inkson, Pugh, and Hickson, 1970), complexity/ specialization (Reimann, 1973; Grinyer and Yasai-Ardekani, 1980), and highly centralized (Mintzberg, 1979; Menon and Varadarajan, 1992; Robbins & Decenzo, 2001). My findings showed that ZORC'S structure has a good standard level of formulation, specialization, and high level of the centralization. Respondents recognized that there is formal regulation within the company that controls employees' behavior through: 1) the process of formalization includes the specification of rules and procedures to be followed; 2) reinforcing the specialization which means that ZORC has more divisions and departments, each with a specialized task that differs from the specialized tasks of the other units; thus the workplace structure became horizontal differentiation; 3) the concentration of authority and decision-making at the top of the company.

Findings on the authority measurement of "formal power" show that respondents' ability to make the decision was restricted by their job position. However, results showed that although the decision-making authority is concentrated in a few positions at the top, Leavitt (2005) found that centralization (or hierarchical structure) is here to stay due to its effective ability to deal with big and complicated tasks. Respondents recognized that there is some level of decentralized in company's decision-making; specifically, decisions about suppliers of materials and purchasing procedures. Findings also show that the authority structure and decision-making process in ZORC include executive and consultative authority held by employees at different levels.

Findings also showed that the decision-making process effected by influential employees through their practices of their formal position and personalities. Results showed that more than half of respondents have the ability to influence decision maker within company and facilitate some administrative procedures for others. These results indicated that there is social network within a formal structure of power. In next sections, I explain more on the nature of this influence.

4.1.2. Characteristics of ZORC'S Employees as a Whole

Table 6 presents descriptive statistics and personal characteristics of ZORC'S employees in 2016 include gender, age, years of education, and years of work in company. The company consists of strongly more men than women with 95.64% male and 4.54 % female. These percentages reflect the gender disparity in company. The mean age of the sample is 29.63 years. 29.88 % are between the ages of 19-24; 27.58% are between the ages of 25-34; 19.36% are between the ages of 35-44; 15.51 % are between the ages of 45-54; and 7.65% are between the ages of 55-64. These percentages reflect the low average age of employees in the company.

The mean years of the highest year of school completed are 14.80 years. 33.95% of employees have bachelors, 22.05% have diploma, 15.54% completed high school, 11.95%

completed elementary, 13.47% have Vocational training, 2.9% have MA degree, and 0.05% have

PhD.

Figure 1 Shows Sex of ZORC'S Employees in 2016
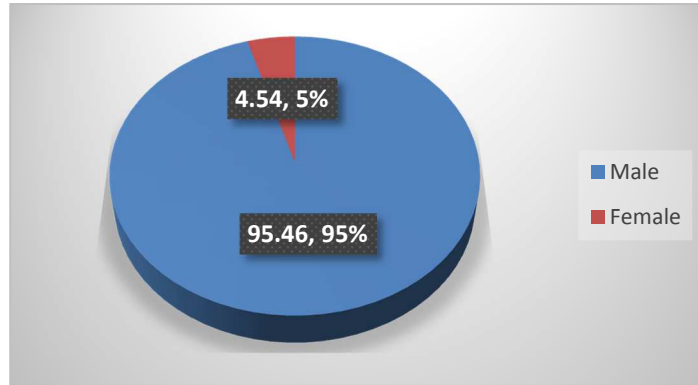
Figure 2 Shows Age of ZORC'S Employees in 2016
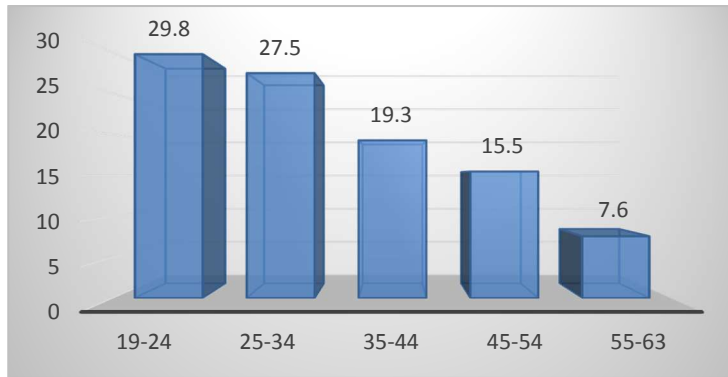
Figure 3 Shows Education Level of ZORC'S Employees
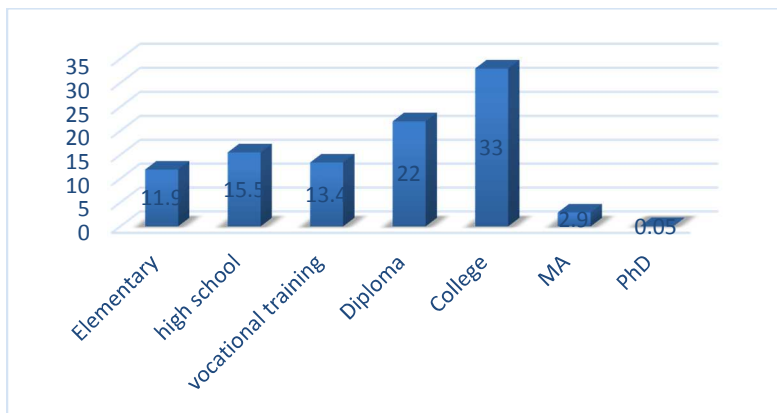
Table 6: Employees characteristics at Azzawiya Oil Refining Company in 2016:

Variables		Valid	Mean	Median	SD
Employees' Age		3346	29.63	30.40	9.08
Highest year of school completed		3346	14.80	12	9.64
Working's years at company		3346	9.03	10	10.43
			N		%
Sex	Male		3194		95.46
	Female		152		4.54
			3346		100
Age					
	19-24		1000		29.88
	25-34		923		27.58
	35-44		648		19.36
	45-54		519		15.51
	55-63		256		7.65
			3346		100
Education Level					
	Elementary		400		11.95
	high school		520		15.54
	vocational training		451		13.47
	Diploma		738		22.05
	College		1136		33.95
	MA		99		2.95
	PhD		2		0.05
			3346		100

4.1.3 Respondents' Characteristics

Table 7 presents descriptive statistics and personal characteristics of respondents' gender, age, years of education, job, educational major, and years of work in company. The sample consists of slightly more men than women with 65.6% male and 34.4 % female. These percentages reflect the reality of sex disparity in company. The mean age of the sample is 37.33 years. 34.4% are between the ages of 31-40; 27.3% are between the ages of 41-50; 19.5% 14.9% are between the ages of 21-30; and 3.9 % are Lowest thought 20 years.

Figure 4 Shows Age of ZORC'S Respondents
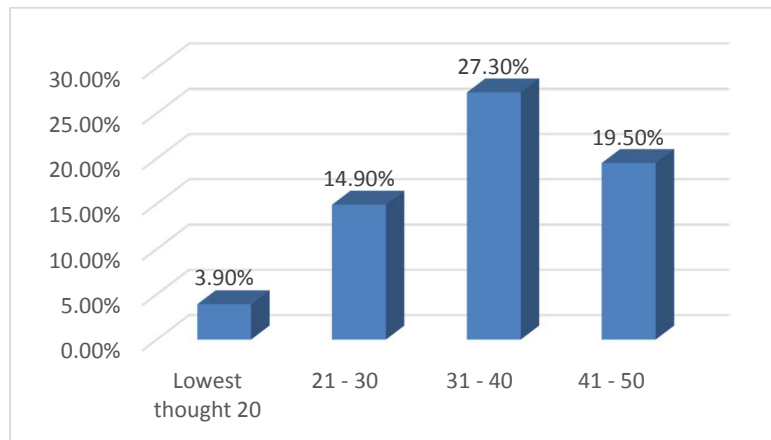
For the respondents' education, the mean years of the highest year of school completed are 13.59 years. The respondents of the study are, on average, bachelors (at 48.9%,) and roughly a third have a Technical School Diploma and Vocational training with 28.6%.

Figure 5 Shows Education Level of ZORC'S Respondents
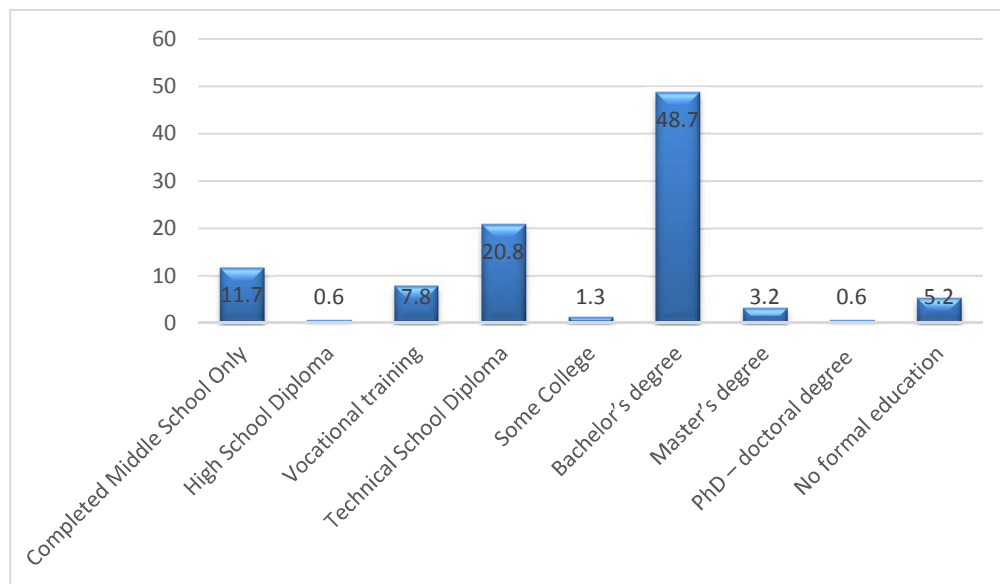
Following their specialties data, we find that engineering majors composed 33.8% of the respondents; Technician 17.5%; Administrative majors 16.9%; Accounting 12.3%, and Secretarial major 9.1%. According to the findings, 25.3% of the respondents working Technical jobs; 20.8%

Administrative and legal; 14.9% Finance; and respondents from a higher administrative or managerial background are about 1.3%.

Figure 6 Shows Specialization of ZORC'S Respondents
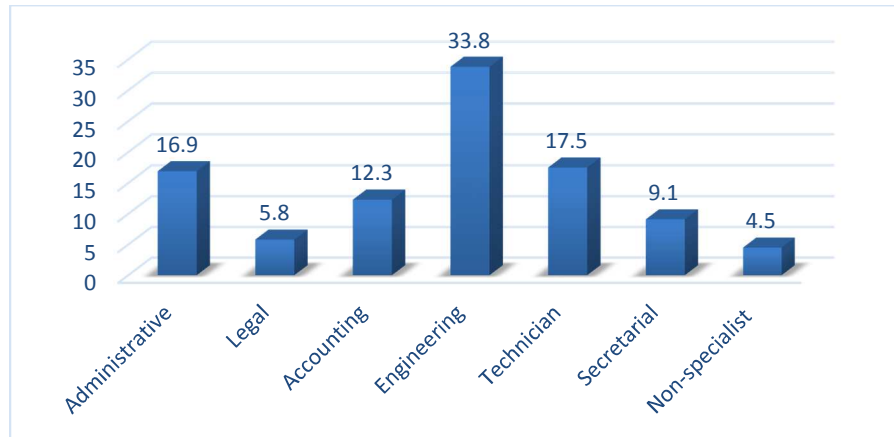
Moreover, the mean years of working in the company is 7.57 years which reflect the limited years of experience for respondents. Also, the occupation data shows that 25.3% of respondents have technical occupations while 20.8% of respondents have Administrative and legal occupations. For top occupations, 1.3% of respondents have Managerial and Professional occupations, 6.5% have Auditing and oversight occupations, and s8.4 3% of respondent art technical and administrative supervisors.

Table 7: Respondent characteristics at Azzawiya Oil Refining Company:

Variables	Valid	Mean	Median	SD	F	%
Respondent's Age	154	37.33	36.5	9.08		
Highest year of school completed	154	13.59	16	3.15		
Respondents' income	154	2111.03	2150	734.63		
Working's years at company	154	7.57	7	5.5		
Gender						
0= female					53	34.4
1= Male					101	65.6
					154	**100**
Education						
Completed Middle School Only					18	11.7
High School Diploma					1	0.6

Vocational training	12	7.8
Technical School Diploma	32	20.8
Some College	2	1.3
Bachelor's degree	75	48.7
Master's degree	5	3.2
PhD – doctoral degree	1	0.6
No formal education	8	5.2
	154	**100**
Specialization		
Administrative	26	16.9
Legal	9	5.8
Accounting	19	12.3
Engineering	52	33.8
Technician	27	17.5
Secretarial	14	9.1
Non-specialist	7	4.5
	154	**100**
Occupation		
Managerial and Professional	2	1.3
Auditing and oversight	10	6.5
Technical and administrative supervision	13	8.4
Administrative and legal	32	20.8
Finance	23	14.9
Technical	39	25.3
Secretarial	23	14.9
Service jobs	12	7.8
	154	**100**

Summary:

Comparing results of tables 6 and 7, I found that the result of respondents' characteristics in a sample support employee's characteristic in the company as a whole and can provide a clear idea about ZORC'S employees. Demographically, the sex distribution of ZORC'S employees show that the majority were males, just 4% were females. Age distribution indicates a decrease in average age of employees which explain the low average of working's years at company. The results indicate that although there are varieties of employees' educational levels and

specializations, 27% of ZORC'S employees have low level of education includes elementary and high school. Some employees highlight the issue of the declining level of employees' education. Recently, the company has hired new employees with low educational level. AlbuIssa, employee in department of human resources, said:

"In the last five years, employing rate has increased dramatically and fast, and it is not compatible with the company's need for such numbers. In 2013, the number of employees was 1687; in 2014, this number has increased to 3346 employees despite the fact that many of the company's facilities have closed and oil production has intermittently stopped. This related to employing persons based on family or kinship relations without consideration for factors such as skills, capabilities, success and education level etc."

Also, Ali Ben Essa, an employee in financial and administrative affairs, said:

"Filling the top positions with lower-educational employee associated with the existence of nepotism as factor for incumbency; in contrast, the more highly educated employee occupies the lower positions in the hierarchy." "The low number of employees holding high certification in specific majors give biggest opportunities for people with low certification to access top positions."

4.2 Gender and Workplace Power

This second section looks at the relationship between gender and workplace power through an investigation of the patterns of differences between men's and women's characteristics including job characteristics, employees' treatment within the company, family responsibilities, authority, and influence. By examining mean differences between women and men for the variables, I indicate if the workplace power is gendered or not.

4.2.1 Men and Women's Characteristics in Workplace Power:

Means and standard deviations for the analysis variables were reported separately for men (N = 101) and women (N = 53) in Table 8. These results indicated that, on average, men had more power in their jobs, consistent with previously published research. A pervasive pattern of differences between men's and women's characteristics is indicated in Table 8 each difference statistically significant at the .001 or .01 level. Significant gender differences in workplace power were exhibited in this sample. Men employees were more likely to be in more powerful positions (82.34%) than women employees (40.90%). The women in this sample had less authority and less power (overall) than the male workers in ZORC. These results supported Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch (1980), Smith (2002), Huffman and Cohen (2004), and Schieman and Reid (2008) results that emphasized on gendered workplace power in favor of men.

However, the results showed that women employees were more likely to be influential (mean= 66.16) than the men employees (mean= 45.78) in ZORC. This result was not consistent with Lucas's 2003 study that showed that men employees attained higher influence than did female employees. The statistical analysis of the variables listed in Table 8 showed that there no significant gender differences in education and work years in the company. The average completed years of education for men and women was (12) years, and the average work years in company is (8) years. Unlike these results, Amin and Kushnir (2012) found that "educational attainment and the number of years of experience that top female and male managers have are an invaluable component of overall human capital of a country and gender-based difference in job experience can have serious implications for gender inequality in income levels and employment opportunities." My findings do not support human capital theorists who believe that women may have less power than men because they have lower investments in factors such as education and

work years in company. For example, this result was consistent with Berger and Schaeck's (2012) findings that showed that women have less experience than the men. Conversely, my results showed that there is significant relationship between employees' specialization and employees' sex (t= 4.02*), in favor of men in this sample. Men were more specialized (mean= .74) than women (mean= .59). Dunn and Gov (2012) found that when firms with all-male boards decide to become gender diverse, they look for women who have important resources such as specialized knowledge and skills. This is the resource that is important in breaking the gender barrier. In addition, the results in Table 8 showed that significant relationship between training and employees' sex (t= 3.97*), in favor of men in this sample. Men had more training (mean= .91) than women (mean= .54). These results may be consistent with the theoretical analysis of human capital and support human capital theorists who believed that women may have less power than men because they have lower investments in factors such as specialization and training.

A significant gender differences in work hours was also indicated for this sample. The results showed that women worked, on average, fewer hours (54) than male workers (68) per week. Although the sample included just full-time workers, many women work less than full-time which should be 60 hours per week. In addition, significant gender differences in three components include, affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC), were also indicated for this sample. Men were, on average, likely to be more committed overall than women employees. Women had less affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment than men employees. Furthermore, significant gender differences in family responsibilities were also indicated for this sample. Men were more likely to be married (mean= 79) than women (mean=54). Married women in this sample reported having, on average, more children under 18 than the men workers; however, the t. test value of this difference (t=2.36)

was not significant. Krymkowski and Mintz (2005) asserted that we should include two additional variables derived from human capital theory as controls: marital status and the presence of children in the home "because gender-based differences in workplace equality are often located in the division of labor in the traditional family, and research on this question has found that family structure is relevant to authority attainment for both men (Wolf and Fligstein 1979) and women (Okamoto and England 1999; England et al. 2004). Moreover, we know that marital status operates differently according to gender (Smith and Elliott 2005) (p13).

These results showed us the importance of gendered stereotypes to understand how workplace power is gendered. The results in table 8 supported gender-based stereotypes theorists who believe that women may have less power than men because they are less commitment to the company, work hours, and have more familial responsibilities than men. The results showed that men employees, on average, are the ideal worker in ZORC. They are more committed to work and less encumbered by familial or other responsibilities. Overall, the "ideal worker" is characterized as a rational, strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities (Britton 2000; Collinson and Hearn 1996; Martin 2003; Williams 2000). Men, presumably, embody these expectations. Because women, especially mothers, are perceived as less rational, more expressive, unable to work long hours, and less committed to work, they are viewed as less than ideal workers (Benard and Correll 2010; Brumley 2014).

Table 8: Men and Women Means and Standard Deviations for Analysis Variables:

Variables	Male (N=101)		Female (N=53)		Means difference (t. test)
	Mean	standard deviation	Mean	standard deviation	
Human Capital Variables "Job characteristics"					
Education (years)	12.62	3.43	12.7	2.91	-.270

Work years in ZORC	8.40	5.88	8.32	6.17	.084
Specialization	.74	.37	.59	.46	4.02*
Training	.91	.18	.54	.53	3.97*
Gender-Based Stereotypes Variables					
Work hours per week	68.31	12.70	54.05	10.48	12.09*
AC	54.57	8.16	48.37	11.32	3.90*
CC	34.63	5.68	30.22	8.40	3.85*
NC	40.40	6.63	35.26	9.80	3.85*
Commitment(Overall)	147.06	18.55	132.79	26.71	3.88*
Married	.79	.40	.54	.50	3.26*
Having children under 18	.52	.49	.57	.49	2.36
Dependent Variable "Workplace Power"					
Authority	76.56	16.31	40.73	11.60	9.64*
Influence	45.78	9.61	66.16	7.80	11.96*

4.2.2 Men and Women's Treatment and Workplace Power:

In table 9, employees' treatment measures were considered. The results of all measures clearly indicated that respondents were treated unequally in ZORC. 27.3% of the respondents treated slightly less favorably when they selected for the job; whereas 5.2% of respondents were treated slightly more favorably when they selected the job; 27.9% of the respondents treated slightly less favorably in their job evaluation; 72% of the respondents treated less favorably to get advancement opportunities; 30.4% of the respondents treated less favorably with company's family policies whereas and 11% of respondents treated more favorably with company's family policies; 16.3% of the respondents treated less favorably with company's workplace Facilities (e.g. sports and catering facilities); 73% of the respondents treated less favorably with gotten company's

house or apartment in company campus whereas and 13.7% of respondents treated more favorably by receiving a company house or apartment on the company campus; 31.2% of the respondents were treated less favorably with respect to departmental facilities and support whereas and 7% of respondents were treated more favorably with respect to departmental facilities and support; 26% of the respondents treated less favorably with policies & procedures (e.g. grievance & disciplinary policies) whereas and 16.2% of respondents treated more favorably with policies & procedures (e.g. grievance & disciplinary policies); just 3.6% of the respondents treated equally with availability of leadership opportunities; 38.3% of the respondents treated less favorably with opportunities to be supervisor; 55.6% of the respondents treated less favorably with opportunities to get training and development; 20.1% of the respondents treated less favorably with opportunities to get more number of hours worked; and 64.9% of the respondents treated less favorably with opportunities to provide childcare for their children

Table 9: Respondents' treatment measures in company:

	Statements	Treated much less favorably		Treated moderately less favorably Treated		Treated slightly less favorably		Treated equally		Treated slightly more favorably		Treated moderately more favorably		Treated much more favorably	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%
1	Recruitment & Selection					42	27.3	104	67.5	8	5.2				
2	Job Evaluation					43	27.9	111	72.1						
3	Advancement	1	.6	25	16.2	86	55.8	26	16.9	7	4.5	9	5.8		
4	Advice & Support					6	3.9	129	83.7	12	7.8			1	.6
5	Family-Friendly Policies	3	1.9	23	14.9	21	13.6	90	58.4	9	5.8	8	5.2		
6	Attendance Requirements			14	9.1	16	10.4	124	80.5						
7	Workplace Facilities (e.g. sports and catering facilities)					25	16.2	128	83.1	1	.6				
8	House or apartment in company Campus	1	.6	86	55.8	27	17.5	22	14.3	14	9.1			4	2.6
9	IT Services							154	100.0						
10	Departmental Facilities/Support					48	31.2	95	61.6	10	6.4			1	.6

#	Variable														
11	Policies & Procedures (e.g. grievance & disciplinary policies)					40	26.0	89	57.8	25	16.2				
12	Availability of leadership opportunities			40	26.0	90	58.4	6	3.9	18	11.6				
13	Supervision	25	16.2	34	22.1			58	37.7	13	8.4	24	15.6		
14	Training and development	4	2.6	6	3.9	76	49.4	46	29.9	14	9.1			8	5.2
15	Number of hours worked					31	20.1	103	66.9					20	13.0
16	Provided childcare	1	.6	11	7.1	89	57.8	46	29.9	7	4.5				

In table 10, the results of men and women means and standard deviations for the employees' treatment in the company and workplace power showed that a difference between men and women is indicated in the employees' treatment measures. Male employees were likely to be treated more favorably than women employees. The women in this sample had less authority, and were treated less favorably than the men workers in ZORC.

Table 10: Men and Women Employees Treatment in Company and Workplace Power:

Variables	Male (N=101)		Female (N=53)		Means difference (t. test)
	Mean	standard deviation	Mean	standard deviation	
The degree of employees' treatment in company	83.30	10.25	61.02	14.78	9.54*
Authority	76.56	16.31	40.73	11.60	9.64*
Influence	45.78	9.61	66.16	7.80	11.96*

Conclusion and Summary:

The findings presented in this section investigated the relationship between gender and workplace power. These findings illustrated that there is significant relationship between gender and workplace power, in favor of men. Although the results of this study support the part of the human capital theorists who believed that women may have less power than men because they have lower investments in factors such as specialization and training; however, other results don't

support other human capital predictors such as education, experience, and seniority which were not significant in this study.

The results of this study also supported the ideal worker image which is rational, a strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities. The results showed that women may have less power than men because they appear less committed to the company, work hours, and have more familial responsibilities than men. The results showed that men employees, on average, were the ideal worker in ZORC. Men appeared to be more committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities.

In addition, the findings showed that ZORC'S employees were treated differently in favor of men. Men employees who were treated more favorably within the company had more authority and power "overall" than women employees. However, the results showed that women employees who believed they were treated more favorable perceived they had more influence than men employees. Overall, we can confirm that gender inequality exists in ZORC and workplace power is gendered. The findings in this section were consistent with Aldrich and Yang (2014) findings. They found that "gender is still framed as differences between men and women; however, these differences result, not from socialization processes, but from differential structures of opportunity and power that block women's access and advancement. These include hiring, evaluation, and promotion processes that not only reflect sexist attitudes toward and expectations of women, but also reward men's structural position over women's. And, as Acker (2006) and Ridgway (2014) argue, the findings in this section indicated that gender remained a barrier to power for women, as gendered stereotypes undermined and devalued women's leadership abilities.

4.3 Tribalism and Workplace Power

4.3.1 Univariate Statistics of Employees' Social Background

The first exploration related to tribe and tribalism among the employees was based on questions asking the respondents what tribe they belonged to. The responses to the question illustrated that all respondents held a tribal attachment. The results in table 11 showed that the responses were mostly limited to the following tribes Al-Bulaazh with 36.4%, Abo-Hmirah with 35.1%, Alkaraghila with 24%. These tribes are the largest tribes in Azzawiya city.

Figure 7 Tribal Identity of ZORC'S Employees
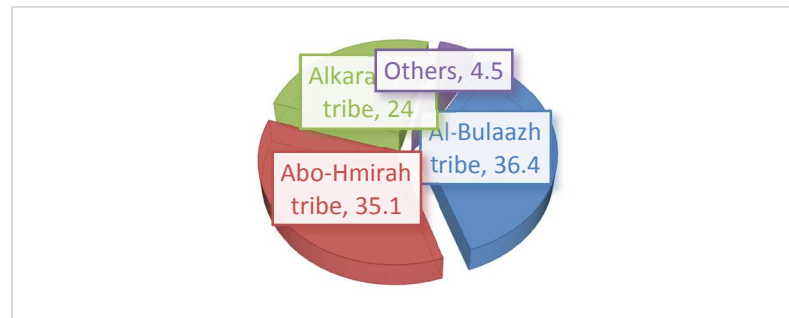
As reported by Table 11, the bulk of the respondents (76.6%) were more likely to agree that their tribal affiliation was important for their career, whereas few respondents (20.6%) were more likely to disagree with it.

Figure 8 Show If Tribal Affiliation is Important for Respondents' Career
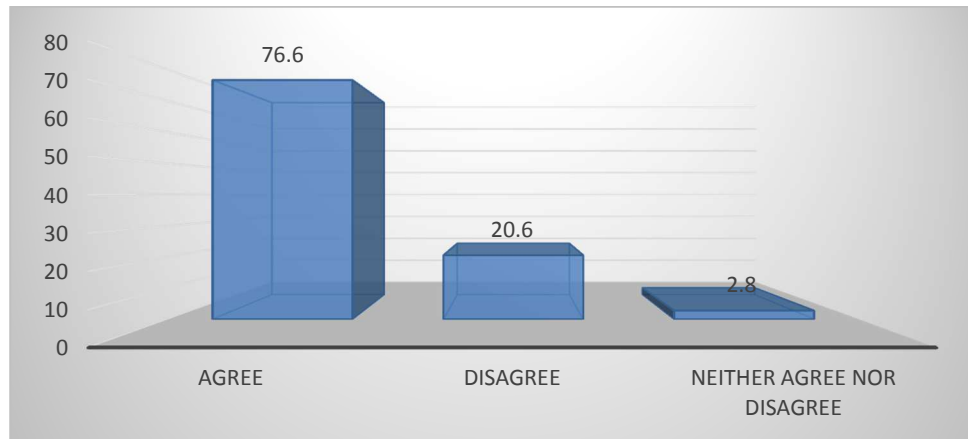
Actually, tribalism has increased in Libya since the fall of Gaddafi's regime. Cheratich (2014) argued that tribalism is growing stronger due to the legacy left by Qaddafi and the failure of the 'new' Libyan state to provide social security for its citizens. However, there have been many field studies that show the strong effect of the tribe on the social, political, and economic life in Libya during the rule of Gaddafi. Also, Obeidi (2013) proposed that tribal solidarity is not a static feature of Libyan culture, but rather a practical attempt to create a civil society in a country that, due to the institutional absence of its government, never had one.

According to the findings in table 11, the mean number of relatives also working in company was 2 and the mean number of respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions in society was 2.51. This led us to conclude that workers have social networks consisting of relatives who also working with him/her and personal relationship with powerful people in Libyan society. The results show in Table 12 that the majority of respondents (64.3%) reported that they had relationships with revolutionary committees: 36.3% with high-ranking governmental officer; 64.3% with revolutionary committees, and 10.4% with one of the official security services. Moreover, table 3 showed the 53.9% of the respondents have personal relationships with workers in high position in the company's main administrative offices and 59.7% with the workers' union.

Table 11: Descriptive statistics for social background characteristics:

Variables	Valid	Mean	Median	SD	F	%
Number of relative in company	154	2.51	2	1.6		
Number of Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions The tribes to which workers belongs	154	2.12	2	0.99		

Al-Bulaazh tribe		56	36.4
Abo-Hmirah tribe		54	35.1
Alkaraghila *tribe*		37	24.0
Others		7	4.5
Total		154	100.0

Statement	Agree		Disagree	
Your tribal affiliation is important for your career	F	%	F	%
	118	76.6	32	20.6

Note. The "slightly, moderately and strongly disagree" responses were combined to form "disagree," and the "slightly, moderately and strongly agree" responses were combined to form "agree." All responses to the "neither agree nor "disagree" category was ignored. N=154.

Table 12 Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions:

Position	YES		NO	
	F	%	F	%
In the company's main administrative offices	83	53.9	71	46.1
Workers' Union	92	59.7	62	40.3
One of the official security services	16	10.4	138	89.6
High-ranking governmental officer	56	38	90	62
Congress	3	1.9	151	98.1
Revolutionary committees	99	64.3	55	35.7

4.3.2 Bivariate Correlations Between Tribalism and Workplace Power:

The measurement was developed in response to the desire for understanding of the nature of tribes and tribalism as an influencing factor in Libyan workplace. Unfortunately, the respondents didn't answer most the questions that related to tribalism. Therefore, I limited the analysis to variables include, the name of tribe that they belong, number of relative working in company, and the relationships with people in high position in society.

A matrix of bivariate correlations is presented in table 13. It shows that that authority was positively correlated with the number of relatives in the company, relationships with people in high position in society, one of the tribes named Al-Bulaazh. The results confirmed that

respondents who had more relatives in the company had more authority and ability to make decisions within company then others with moderate to significant association of (r.421[**])

With (r.324[**]) we can point out that respondents who had relationships with people in high positions in society had more association with authority than employees who didn't have. The next significant variable was tribal identity. The result showed that Al-Bulaazh's respondents had more association with authority than other employees who belonging to other tribes with moderate-significant association of (r. 356[**]).

For influence, the results in table 13 also showed there was a positive significant relationship between number of relatives in the company and relationships with people in high position in society. The results illustrated that respondents who had more relatives in the company had more influence on decision makers within company than others with a weak- significant association of (r.471[**]); and Abo-Hmirah 's respondents had more association with influence than other employees who belonged to other tribes with positive significant association of (r.44[*]). Often the company's management committee turns to the Abo-Hmirah leaders to solve problems related to company safety such as workers' strikes or to protect them from militias that are trying to impose their demands by force. In many cases, some militias shut down the main gate of the company and prevented workers from entering and doing their work.

In addition, the results showed that the relationship between Alkaraghila*'s* employees and authority was significant (r .194[*]). with (r.166[*]) respondents who had relationships with people in high positions in society had more association with influence than employees who didn't have. To understand the variation in relationships between these tribes and respondents' authority and influence, it is necessary to provide some information about the nature of each tribe. Mohamed, researcher and writer in the genealogy, said:

"There are clear stereotypes that exist for each tribe. In fact, Al-Bulaazh, Abo-Hmirah, and Alkaraghila are the most influential tribes in the region. Abo-Hmirah tribe is characterized by religious character and closer to asceticism and mysticism than filling positions. Al-Bulaazh tribe is characterized by rigidity, cruelty, and physical strength of its members. It drives its power through solidarity between its members who have strong loyalty to the tribe. Unlike Abo-Hmirah tribe, Al-Bulaazh is always seeking to strengthen its influence and power by pressure on decision-makers to employ its members in important positions, regardless of their skills or not. Alkaraghila is a clan includes more than five major tribes, which has Turkish origins. It has power of power of splendor and prestige. Alkaraghila derives its power and influence through the power of the number- number of its members- and highly efficient in local and broad business."

Table 13: Correlation between social background variables and depended variables:

	Number of relative	Number of Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions	Al-Bulaazh tribe	Alkaraghila tribe	Abo-Hmirah tribe
Number of Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions	.168*				
Al-Bulaazh tribe	.531**	.042			
Alkaraghila tribe	.019	.215**	-.233**		
Abo-Hmirah tribe	.46**	.25*	-.261**	-.207*	
Authority	.421**	.324**	.356**	.145	.241*
Influence	.471**	.166*	.358*	.194*	.44*

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In an effort to further analyze this hypothesis, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if statistically significant differences in means exist between the four tribal groups toward workplace power. The purpose of ANOVA was to compares the variance (variability in scores) between different groups with the variability within each of the groups. In looking at tribal identity, the results in Table 15 showed that there was a statistically significant difference between four tribal groups, which include: Al-Bulaazh, Alkaraghila, Abo-Hmirah, and other tribes towards making decision within company (authority) (p=.001). Further analysis of the mean scores for each tribal group in Table 14 revealed that the Al-Bulaazh tribe (mean score =101.46) had the highest mean, followed by Abo-Hmirah tribe (mean score = 91.90) and Alkaraghila tribe (mean score = 71.86). Therefore, employees who belonged to the Al-Bulaazh tribe had more authority when compared to the other tribal groups.

In addition, the results in table 15 showed that there was a statistically significant difference between four tribal groups of the Al-Bulaazh, Alkaraghila, Abo-Hmirah, and other tribes towards their ability to influence decision makers within company (p=.000). Further analysis of the mean scores for each tribal group in table 14 revealed that Abo-Hmirah tribe (mean score =76.64) had the highest mean, followed by Alkaraghila tribe (mean score = 68.67) and Al-Bulaazh tribe (mean score = 54.96). Therefore, employees who belonged to Abo-Hmirah tribe had more influence on decision makers within company when compared to the other tribal groups.

The results of ANOVA analyses support a correlation of results that showed there was a statistically significant relationship between employees' tribal identity and workplace power (authority & influence).

Table 14: One-way ANOVA descriptive statistics for employees' workplace power by TI:

Variable	Tribal Categories	N	Mean	SD
Authority	Al-Bulaazh tribe	56	101.46	20.34

	Abo-Hmirah tribe	54	91.90	21.56
	Alkaraghila tribe	37	71.86	23.44
	Others	7	70.28	10.12
	Total	154	94.38	22.17
Influence	Al-Bulaazh tribe	56	54.96	20.28
	Abo-Hmirah tribe	54	76.64	26.67
	Alkaraghila tribe	37	68.67	23.17
	Others	7	53	8.42
	Total	154	65.77	24.84

Table 15: One-Way Analysis of Variance of employee's workplace power by their TI:

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Authority	Between Groups	7438.405	3	2479.468	5.484	.001
	Within Groups	67822.219	150	452.148		
	Total	75260.623	153			
Influence	Between Groups	14382.694	3	4794.231	8.979	.000
	Within Groups	80090.351	150	533.936		
	Total	94473.045	153			

Conclusion and Summary:

The main aim of this section was to explore the workplace power's respondents towards the tribalism. The analyses showed that there were significant relationships between employees' tribal identity and their ability to make decisions and influence decision makers. Also, this study showed that tribe was still a major source of personal identification in Libyan society. These results showed that there was a tribal solidarity among ZORC's employees. The number of employee's relatives in the company had a large impact on employee's authority and influence. The employee who belonged to the stronger tribe had more tribal solidarity and thus more authority and influence in ZORC. Moreover, these results seemed quite like the result of Ibn Khaldun (1977), Al-Wardi (1978), Obeidi (1996), and Hannoum (2003) which found that the bigger the tribe, the stronger its tribal solidarity; the stronger the tribal solidarity, the more powerful the tribe. Furthermore, in an

earlier study by El-Fathaly and Palmer (1973) about tribe and tribalism, they showed that tribalism was still part of Libyan society. In general, as Obeidi (1996) concluded, the findings of this study demonstrate that Libyan society is still a tribal society. The tribe is one of the strongest social organizations, and tribalism still plays a significant social role. It may be an invisible work sphere, but it has emerged as one of the main sources of legitimacy of the Libyan regime in the last years.

4.4 Commitment and Workplace Power

This section investigates the relationship between commitment and workplace power through a univariate description of employees' commitment and bivariate analysis using Pearson correlation.

4.4.1 Univariate Description of Employees' Commitment:

In Table 16, 25 measures of variable commitment were considered. The results of all measures of commitment clearly indicated that respondents have a strong sense of commitment to the company. The majority of respondents reported positive and high commitment within the company.

The measures that dealt with the affective commitment clearly indicated that the majority of respondents reported emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization.100% of the respondents strongly agreed that they really cared about the fate of this company, and that this is the best of all possible companies to work for. Also, 100% of respondents "strongly disagreed" that the company's problems were their own. 84.4% of respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they would be very happy to spend the rest of their career with this company. 100% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they were proud to tell others

that they are part of this company. 100% of respondents strongly agreed that they were extremely glad that they had chosen this company to work for over others at the time I joined.

89% of respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) that they could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work was similar. 84.4% of respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that this company had a great deal of personal meaning for them. And, finally affective commitment measure, "I feel a sense of "ownership" for this company rather than just being an employee," and 84.4% of respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) with this statement.

For continuance commitment, the measures in table 16 demonstrated that the majority of respondents reported that they preferred to continue to work with this company. 84.4% of respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that right now, staying with this company was a matter of necessity as much as desire. 97.6% of respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that "It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to." 84.4% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my company now." 100% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company. 70.1% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that "One of the few negative consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives." Thus, although there was very strong commitment to continue, these results should be read through the lens of few alternate work sources.

For normative commitment, the measures in table 16 display that the bulk of respondents reported that they have feelings of obligation to remain with the company. 84.4% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that they would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with this company. 91.5% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that "The reason I prefer this company to others is because of what it stand for, that is, its values". 75.5% of the respondents were more likely to disagree (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree) that their private views about this company are different from those I express publicly. 84.4% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that "If the values of this company were different, I would not be as attached to this company".

With respect to personal commitment to the company, "I am not absent from work; only in extreme cases." the majority of the respondents (68.2%) were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree) with this statement, although 13.6% of the respondents strongly disagree with this statement. 71.4% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree) that they abide by decisions made by the company. 84.4% of the respondents were more likely to agree (strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree) that during work hours, it is important that their appearance is professional.

Table 16: Percentages of Commitment Measures

	Statements	Strongly agree		Moderately agree		Slightly agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly disagree		moderately disagree		strongly disagree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
2	I could just as well be working for a different company as					32	20.8	3	1.9	25	16.2	85	55.2	9	5.8

#	Statement														
	long as the type of work was similar.														
3	This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
4	I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	154	100.0												
5	I really care about the fate of this company.	154	100.0												
6	For me, this is the best of all possible company for which to work.	154	100.0												
7	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
8	I really feel as if this company's problems are my own.													154	100.0
9	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
10	Right now, staying with this company is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
11	It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to.	80	51.9	56	36.4	13	8.4			5	3.2				
12	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my company now.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
13	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company.	58	37.7	91	59.1	5	3.2								
14	If I had not already put so much of myself into this company, I might consider working elsewhere.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
15	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					25	16.2	21	13.6	20	13.0	85	55.2	3	1.9
16	I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with this company.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
17	I feel a sense of "ownership" for this company rather than just being an employee.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
18	Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this company.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
19	The reason I prefer this company to others is because of what it stand for, that is, its values.	56	36.4	80	51.9	5	3.2			13	8.4				
20	My private views about this company are different from those I express publicly.					3	1.9	7	4.5	14	9.1	32	20.8	101	65.6

#	Statement														
21	If the values of this company were different, I would not be as attached to this company.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
22	I am not absent from work; only in extreme cases.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6
23	I abide by decisions made by the company.	25	16.2	85	55.2	20	13.0	3	1.9					21	13.6
24	When I abide by company policies, I feel like this negatively impacts my relationships with other coworkers.					25	16.2	21	13.6	3	1.9	20	13.0	85	55.2
25	During work hours, it is important that my appearance is professional.	20	13.0	85	55.2	25	16.2	3	1.9					21	13.6

	AC	CC	NC	Commitment as (Overall)
Mean	52.44	33.11	38.63	142.15
Median	56	36	42	151
Std. Deviation	9.79	7.03	8.20	22.66

4.4.2 Relationship Between Respondents' Commitment and Workplace Power

Bivariate Correlations Analysis

A matrix of bivariate correlations presented in Table 17 shows three central findings. First, I examined the correlation among the commitment measures themselves. The results showed that affective, normative, and continuance commitments were correlated quite strongly with each other. Like previous studies, affective and normative commitments have been found to correlate quite strongly with each other. Second, employee commitment "overall" is positively correlated with authority. The results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company had more authority and ability to make decision within company than others with a weaker association of $(r.170^{**})$. Affective commitment had a weak- significant association of $(r.270^{**})$ with authority. Continuance commitment also had a weak- significant association of $(r.255^{**})$ with authority. Likewise, the results showed that normative commitment had a weak- significant association of $(r.255^{**})$ with authority. Third, employee commitment "overall" was positively correlated with influence. The results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company had more influence and ability to influence decisions within company than others with moderate -

significant association of (r.43**). Similarly, affective commitment had moderate - significant association (r.42**), continuance commitment had moderate - significant association (r.43**), and normative commitment had moderate - significant association of (r.43**) with authority.

Table 17: Matrix of bivariate correlations between commitment and workplace power

	CC	NC	Commitment (Overall)	Authority	Influence
AC	.995**	.995**	.998**	.270**	.425**
CC		.992**	.999**	.255**	.437**
NC			.999**	.255**	.437**
Commitment (Overall)				.261**	.432**
Authority					.170*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Conclusion and Summary

The goal of this section was to examine the impact of employee's commitment include, there component models of organizational commitment, on workplace power. The findings in this section showed that there was high level of conviction and acceptance of employees in embracing the goals and values of the company, a strong desire to strive for the goals of the company, and to remain employed with the company. These results supported Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) definition of organizational commitment. The finding showed that employees have high level of affective commitment. Employees chose to remain in the organization as a result of the affection and care felt towards the company, denoting a display of employee integration within the organization. In fact, identification with the company goals is the reason for wishing to remain. Also, the results showed that there was a high level of continuance commitment which was dictated by a necessity to remain in the workplace when considering the negative aspects of quitting. For normative commitment, employees felt bound to the company by an ethical sense of duty,

preventing them from leaving. A general valuation of these three compounds revealed that affective commitment which is the first dimension of organizational commitment was based on the desire to remain in the organization; continuance commitment was based on necessity, while normative commitment was based on a sense of obligation. These findings are consistent with previous studies by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) and Elbeyi Pelit (2015).

In addition, the above findings are completely consistent with the hypotheses of the relationship between the degree of employees' commitment and their workplace power in ZORC. The results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, had more authority and ability to make decision within company than others with a weak- significant association. While the results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, had more influence and ability to influence decisions within company than others with moderate - significant association. These positive significant relationships indicated that the higher the employees' commitments, the higher degree of workplace power he/she had. This result validated Parsons' theory that views all roles, whatever the degree of importance, involve power. Workers with less power perform roles through obedience to commands and instructions that are issued from the most powerful roles.

4.5 Multivariate Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

I used a multivariate statistical technique (multiple regressions) to analyze the relationship between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables and to determine which independent variable or subset of variable(s) were the best predictors for a particular outcome. This allowed me to control for confounding factors and evaluate their contribution, find structural relationships, and provide explanations (Ho, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To test the

research hypotheses in this study, a series of incremental linear regression models were estimated to independently assess the dynamic of the relationship between individual characteristics, social background characteristics, and workplace structure on the degree of authority and influence. In this study, eighth hypotheses were tested, using multiple regression analysis.

The first hypothesis: Employees' different human capital returns will significantly predict he degree of respondents' perceptions of authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company

The second hypothesis: Gender differences in human capital returns will significantly predict for the degree of respondents' perceptions of authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

The third hypothesis: Employee's commitment to the ZORC including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, will significantly predicts for the degree of perceptions of respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

The fourth hypothesis: Social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society will significantly predicts for the degree of perception of respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company

The fifth hypothesis: Employees' different in human capital returns will significantly predict for the degree of respondents' perception of authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company

The sixth hypothesis: Gender differences in human capital returns will significantly predict for the degree of respondents' perception of influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

The seventh hypothesis: Employee's commitment to the ZORC including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, will significantly predict for the degree of respondents' perception of influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

The eighth hypothesis: Social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society will significantly predicts for the degree of respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

1) **Predictors of Authority**

The multiple linear regression analysis was further employed to examine which independent variables were the best predictors for the distribution of authority and which variable has more on the degree of authority. As shown in table 18, four models were estimated incrementally. The first set of regression results appears in Table 18 includes sex as a dummy variable (male = 1), establishing the total gender gap in workplace authority. Predictably, the total gender gap suggests that men have a significantly higher probability of workplace authority than women. In the early period, Model 1 demonstrates that although human capital variables had an impact on authority levels, they did not explain the gender effects. This suggests that differential investment in skills and training does little to explain the gendered nature of authority.

According to the findings in Table 18, a significant linear regression model has been determined between the variables (p<0.01). To exam the effect of gender differences in human capital returns as predictor for the degree of perceived respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Company, we should determine the main effect of human capital variables.

The results of multiple regressions in model 1 show that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.248) calculated between human capital variables and authority indicates that 24% of the changes in the degree of authority are explained by human capital variables include by sex, occupation, specialization, training, Work hours per week, and employees' treatment.

The results showed that for every unit increase in men, we expect a (b= 10.04) unit increase in the authority (1=male, 0=female): for men, the predicted authority score would be 10 points higher than for women. The coefficient for years of education was (b 1.92). For employees

who have higher education, the predicted authority score would be 1.92 points higher than for low education.

The coefficient for specialization was (b 2.78). For specialized employee, the predicted authority score would be 2.78 points higher than for employee's who didn't have academic major. Also, the results show. The coefficient for occupation was (b 3.252). So, for every unit increase of occupation in the career ladder, we expect a 3.252-point increase in the authority score. The coefficient for work years in ZORC is (b 1.61). For employee who has more years working in ZORC, the predicted authority score would be 1.61 points higher than for employee who has less.

Training has impact on respondents' authority. For every unit increase in training employee, we expect a (b 3.45) unit increase in the authority because training employee coded (1) and non-training employee (0), the interpretation is easy: for training employee, the predicted authority score would be 3.45 points higher than for non- training. Then, the results in model reveal that an increase of one unit in work hours causes an increase of 2.95 units in the distribution of authority. The final impact was the attitude of respondents on how ZORC treated them. The results in model 1 show that for employee who treated more favorably, the predicted authority score would be 4.04 points higher than for employee who treated less favorably in ZORC.

The results in model 1 showed that there were main effects of human capital variables on the degree of respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company. These results were consistent with the first hypothesis (H1), which states that employees' different in human capital returns will significantly predict for the degree of perceived respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company and allowed me to exam the hypothesis 2.

By adding employee's commitment in Model 2, the results of multiple regressions in model 3 showed that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.401) which has increased on model 1 and

2 and indicates that 40% of the changes in the degree of perceived respondents' authority are explained when added the effect of employees' commitment to ZORC. Also, we can see that the coefficient for interactions between 1) gender & education (b=0.036); 2) gender & work years in ZORC (b=.167) became non- significant. In addition, the result in model 3 show that the coefficient for employee's commitment overall is significant (b= 12.36). For committed employee, the predicted authority score would be 12.36 points higher than for non-committed.

The results in model 2 showed that the coefficients for employee's commitment (b 12.36*) was significant. For committed employee, the predicted authority score would be 0.171 points higher than for non-committed. Thus, I concluded these results in model 2 were consistent with our hypothesis (H3), which states that employee's commitment to the ZORC including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, will significantly predict for the degree of perceived respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

On the other hand, the effect of social backgrounds variable including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society, was adding in model 3. The results of multiple regressions in model 4 show that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.46) which, has increased on model 1, 2, and 3, indicates that 46% of the changes in the degree of perceived respondents' authority are explained when added the effect of employees' social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society and ZORC.

The results showed that the coefficients for number of relative working in company (b3.416*) is significant. For employees who have a relative working in ZORC, the predicted authority score would be 3.416 points higher than employees who don't have a relative working in ZORC. In additions, the coefficients for respondents' personal relationships with individuals in

high positions (b4.818*) is significant. For employees who have personal relationships with individuals in high positions within society and ZORC, the predicted authority score would be 4.818 points higher than employee who don't.

For tribal identity, the coefficients for employees who belong to Al-Bulaazh tribe (b3.654*) is significant. For employees who belong to Al-Bulaazh tribe, the predicted authority score would be 3.654 points higher than employees who belong to other tribes. Also, the coefficients for employees who belong to Abo-Hmirah tribe (b3.45*) is significant. For employees who belong to Abo-Hmirah tribe, the predicted authority score would be 3.45 points higher than employee who belong to other tribes. In sum, our results in model 3 are consistent with hypothesis (H4), which states that social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society and ZORC will significantly predict for the degree of perceived respondents' authority within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

Table 18: Regression Coefficient of Independent Variables on Authority

	Model 1		Model 2		Model3	
	B	BETA	B	BETA	B	BETA
Intercept	82.46*		86.76*		40.967*	
Sex (Male=1, female=0)	10.04*	0.39		0.40	9.531*	0.289
Education	1.92*	.135	0.049	0.042	0.098	0.009
Work years in ZORC	1.615*	.165	2.78*	0.109	2.89*	0.113
Job	3.252*	0.341	3.11*	0.331	-3.823*	-0.35
Specialization "Have academic major=1 Non=0"	2.78*	0.36	2.720*	0.43	2.06*	0.31
Marital status I= married. 0= non-married	2.195*	.204	0.271	0.007	0.397	0.065
Having children Yes=1, no=0	-5.26	-.168	-2.65*	0.127	-2.89*	0.13
Training trained =1, non-trained =0	3.45*	0.33	3.11*	0.33	2.97*	-0.23
Work hours per week	2.95*	0.31	2.69*	0.21	2.92*	0.31

Employees' treatment more favorably=1, less favorably=0	4.04*	0.26	3.98*	0.271	4.591*	0.28
Commitment			12.36*	0.171	10.23*	0.108
Number of relative					3.416*	0.308
Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions					4.818*	0.297
Al-Bulaazh tribe					3.654*	0.179
Abo-Hmirah tribe					3.45*	0.14
R	0.498*		0.634*		0.68*	
R Square	0.248		0.401		0.4628	
Adjusted R Square	0.228		0.246		0.487	
F	12.27*		7.070*		13.12*	

2) Predictors of the Influence:

The multiple linear regression analysis was further employed to examine which independent variables were the best predictors for the distribution of respondents' influence and which variable has more on the degree of influence. As shown in table 19, four models were estimated incrementally. The first set of regression results appears in Table 19 includes sex as a dummy variable (male = 1), establishing the total gender gap in workplace influence. Predictably, the total gender gap suggests that women have a significantly high probability of workplace influence than men. Model 1 demonstrates that although human capital variables had an impact on influence levels, they did not explain the gender effects. This suggests that differential investment in skills and training does little to explain the gendered nature of influence.

According to the findings in Table 19, a significant linear regression model has been determined between the variables (p<0.01). To exam the effect of gender differences in human capital returns as predictor for the degree of respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Company, we should determine the main effect of human capital variables.

The results of multiple regressions in model 1 show that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.26) calculated between human capital variables and respondents' influence indicates that 26% of the changes in the degree of influence are explained by human capital variables include by sex, occupation, specialization, training, Work hours per week, and employees' treatment.

The results of multiple regressions in model 1 show that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.26) calculated between human capital variables and respondents' influence indicates that 26% of the changes in the degree of influence are explained by human capital variables include by sex, occupation, specialization, training, work hours per week, and employees' treatment.

The results showed that for every unit increase in women, we expect a (b= -4.52) unit increase in the influence (1=male, 0=female): for women, the predicted influence score would be 4 points higher than for men. The coefficient for years of education was (b 1.92).

The coefficient for specialization was (b .652). For specialized employees, the predicted influence score would be .65 points higher than for employees who didn't have academic major. Also, the results show that the coefficient for job was (b 1.342). So, for every unit increase of a job in the career ladder, we expect a 1.34-point increase in the influence score.

Training has impact on respondents' influence. For every unit increase in employee training, we expect a (b 4.45) unit increase in an influence because trained employees coded (1) and non-trained employees (0), the interpretation is easy: for trained employees, the predicted influence score would be 4.45 points higher than for non- trained. Then, the results in the model reveal that an increase of one unit in work hours causes an increase of 1.14 units in the distribution of influence. The final impact was the attitude of respondents on how ZORC treated them. The results in model 1 show for employee who treated more favorably, the predicted influence score would be 1.14 points higher than for employee who treated less favorably in ZORC. However, the

results in model 1 showed that education, work years in company, marital status, and having children have no significant coefficient to predict the effect on the degree of perceived respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

The results in model 1 showed that there were main effects of human capital variables on the degree of respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company. In sum, the results in model 1 consistent with the hypothesizes (H5), which states that employees' different in human capital returns will significantly predict for the degree of perceived respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company, and they allowed me to exam the hypothesis sixth.

By adding employee's commitment in Model 2, the results of multiple regressions in model 3 showed that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.49) which has increased on model 1 and 2 and indicates that 49% of the changes in the degree of perceived respondents' influence are explained when added the effect of employees' commitment to ZORC. Also, we can see that the coefficient for education (b.139*) and work years in ZORC (b=.,738*) became significant. In addition, the result in model 2 show that the coefficient for employee's commitment over all is significant (b= .804*). For committed employee, the predicted influence score would be .804 points higher than for non-committed.

The results in model 2 showed that the coefficients for commitment (1.382*) was significant. For committed employee, the predicted influence score would be 0.20 points higher than for non- committed. Thus, I concluded these results in model 3 were consistent with hypothesis (H7), which states that employee's commitment to the ZORC including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, will significantly predicts for the degree of perceived respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

On the other hand, the effect of social backgrounds variable including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society, was adding in model 4. The results of multiple regressions in model 3 show that the explanation ratio of the model of R^2 (0.73) which, has increased on model 1, 2, and 3, indicates that 73% of the changes in the degree of perceived respondents' influence are explained when added the effect of employees' social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society and ZORC.

The results showed that the coefficients for number of relatives working in the company (b1.869*) is significant. For employees who have a relative working in ZORC, the predicted influence score would be 1.869 points higher than an employee who does not have a relative working in ZORC. In additions, the coefficients for respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions (b2.425*) is significant. For employees who have personal relationships with individuals in high positions within society and ZORC, the predicted influence score would be 2.425 points higher than employees who do not.

For tribal identity, the coefficients for employee who belong to Al-Bulaazh tribe (b3.654*) is significant. For employees who belong to Al-Bulaazh tribe, the predicted authority score would be 3.654 points higher than employees who belong to other tribes. Also, the coefficients for employees who belong to Abo-Hmirah tribe (2.863*) is significant. For employees who belong to the Abo-Hmirah tribe, the predicted influence score would be 2.863 points higher than employee who belong to other tribes. In sum, results in model 3 are consistent with hypothesis (H8), which states that social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society and ZORC will significantly

predicts for the degree of perceived respondents' influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

Table 19: Regression Coefficient of Independent Variables on Influence:

	Model 1		Model 2		Model3	
	B	BETA	B	BETA	B	BETA
Intercept	61.73		73.25		74.90	
Sex (Male=1, female=0)	-4.52*	-0.55	-5.354*	-.637	-3.957*	-.531
Education	0.085	0.027	.139*	.116	1.274*	.185
Work years in ZORC	0.069	0.031	,738*	.130	1.026*	.169
Job	1.342*	-0.28	1,327*	.238	2.891*	.231
Specialization "Have academic major=1 Non=0"	.652*	0.147	.1.034*	.330	.928*	.114
Marital status 1= married, 0= non-married	-0.069	-0.031	-.0375	-.002	-.015	.001
Having children	0.029	0.023	.059	.004	.002	.000
Training trained =1, non- trained =0	4.45*	0.38	4.054*	.404	1.482*	.229
Work hours per week	1.14*	0.214	2.876*	.472	.837*	.197
Employees' treatment more favorably=1, less favorably=0	1.34*	0.251	.856*	.125	2.081*	.286
Commitment (Overall)			1.382*	.205	1.436*	.201
Number of relative					1.869*	.292
Respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions					2.425*	.308
Al-Bulaazh tribe					2.863*	.361
Abo-Hmirah tribe					1.958*	.201
R	0.507*		0.701*		0.854*	
R Square	0.26		0.49		0.73	
Adjusted R Square	0.24		0.46		0.71	
F	48.220*		45.279*		49.426*	

Summary

In this section, I tested eight hypotheses to determine which independent variable or were the best predictors for the degree of perceived respondent's authority and influence within Azzawiya Oil Company. The results of multiple regressions in Table (18) & (19) showed that the

results in models 1, 2, 3, 4 are consistent with all hypothesis. Social backgrounds including, tribal identity, number of relative working in company, and personal relationships with high position people in society were best predicts for the degree of respondents' authority and influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company. Then, gender differences in human capital returns were significant predict for the degree of respondents' authority and influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company. Last, respondents' commitment to the ZORC, including affective, continuance, and normative commitment, was significantly predicts for the degree of perceived respondent's authority and influence within Azzawiya Oil Refining Company.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

It is generally accepted among sociological researchers that workplace power derives its legitimacy through formal positions indicated by the importance of expertise and commitment. Therefore, the ideal structure of power should be characterized by the standard comprised of rules and regulations, which are based on the legitimacy of the law and the ideals of rightness, duty, and loyalty, all of which create the connections between superior and subordinate positions in the hierarchy. Thus, an individual's power is subject to legal standards and governed by those determinants stemming from structural workplace characteristics. Researchers have started to challenge this generalized thinking by examining how power is unevenly distributed by gender. Research to date has discovered that there is a gender gap in workplace power. The current study agrees with this generalized understanding of how structure and gender impose restrictions on the distribution of workplace power. In addition, this study challenges this generalized thinking by examining how workplace power is unevenly distributed in Libya by structure, gender, and tribalism. Libya provides a unique context to examine what factors affect decision making. The Libyan context also offers an important way to study how gender and tribalism in the workplace carry a different meaning that is characterized by the power of inherited custom and tradition. Two perspectives, including systemic theory and expectation states theory, formed the study's research questions which are mainly concerned with how work structure, gender, and tribalism form workplace power.

The first research question asked: what is the nature of workplace power? Is the company bureaucratic structure organized around a rational-legal or traditional model? It was found that ZORC'S structure has a good standard level of formalization, specialization, and high level of the centralization. Respondents recognized that there is formal regulation within the company that

controls employees' behavior through: 1) the process of formalization includes the specification of rules and procedures to be followed; 2) reinforcing the specialization which means that ZORC has more divisions and departments, each with a specialized task that differs from the specialized tasks of the other units thus the workplace structure became horizontal differentiation; 3) the concentration of authority and decision-making at the top of the company. Findings of the authority measurement "formal power" show that respondents' ability to make the decision was restricted by their status "job position". Also, the results showed that although the decision-making authority is concentrated in a few positions at the top, respondents recognized that there is kind of decentralized organization of the company's decision-making; specifically, with decisions like there is kind of decentralized in company's decision-making such as decisions of suppliers of materials and purchasing procedures. And, authority structure and decision-making process in ZORC include executive and consultative authority held by employees at different levels. Therefore, these findings can show that ZORC has standard structure "rational structure". It relies on the standardization of work which is relatively more formalized, complexity/ specialization, and highly centralized.

However, the results showed that the decision-making process is affected by influential employees through their practices of their formal position and personalities. Results showed that more than half of respondents believe they have the ability to influence decision maker within company and facilitate some administrative procedures for others. These results indicated that there is social network within a formal structure of power. Therefore, the distinction between workplace power and formal structure is based not only on legal base and the dissimilar way in which work is organized in the many settings, but also on differing sets of expectations about the right of power "authority & influence." This social network formed organizational barriers as

unwritten rules or informal codes of conduct. Powell (1987) called it "hybrid structure" which is a structure adopting both a rational-legal and traditional model. Powell explains emerged this kind of structure:

> " bureaucracies are remarkably efficient tools for accomplishing certain kinds of activities; but once in place, bureaucracy is highly resistant to change. Hence the natural tendency for large organizations to become ends in themselves, stripped of their intended purpose. The strength of bureaucratic organization is its reliability (its capacity for producing collective products of a given quality repeatedly) and its accountability (its ability to document how resources have been used). But these very features result in organizational routines that display substantial rigidity^" or lead to structural inertia. The larger the organization, the more behaviors will repeat themselves; as a result, the more predictable they become and thus the greater is the propensity to formalize them. For certain activities this is useful, but for others it can result in a serious mismatch between organizational outcomes and the demands of clients and customers in changing environments." (Powell, 1987, p.79)

The second research question asked: what is the relationship between gender and the distribution of workplace power? Findings illustrated that there is relationship between gender and workplace power, in favor of men. The analyses showed results that associated the ideal worker image with what is rational, a strong leader, committed to work and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities. The results showed that male employees, on average, were the ideal worker in ZORC. They showed higher levels of work commitment and unencumbered by familial or other responsibilities; women may have less power than men because they were less committed to the company, work hours, and have more familial responsibilities than men.

In addition, the findings showed that ZORC's employees were treated differently in favor of men. Male employees who were treated more favorably within the company had more authority and power "overall" than female employees. However, the results showed that women employees who were treated more favorable had more influence than men employees. This is interesting findings, and one that seemly contradicts the literature on gender and work. Overall, we can confirm that gender inequality exists in ZORC and workplace power is gendered. The findings are consistent with Aldrich and Yang (2014) findings. They found that "gender is still framed as differences between men and women; however, these differences result, not from socialization processes, but from differential structures of opportunity and power that block women's access and advancement. These include hiring, evaluation, and promotion processes that not only reflect sexist attitudes toward and expectations of women, but also reward men's structural position over women's. And, as Acker (2006) and Ridgway (2014) argue, the findings indicates that gender remained a barrier to power for women, as gendered stereotypes undermined and devalued women's leadership abilities.

The third research question asked: what is the relationship between tribal identity and the distribution of workplace power? The analyses showed that there are relationships between employees' tribal identity and their ability to make decision and influence decision maker. Also, this study showed that tribe is still a major source of personal identification in Libyan society, and there is a tribal solidarity between ZORC'S employees. The number of an employee's relatives in company has a large impact on that employee's authority and influence. The employee who belonged to the stronger tribe has more tribal solidarity and thus more authority and influence in ZORC. Moreover, these results seemed quite like the result of Ibn Khaldun (1977), Al-Wardi (1978), Obeidi (1996), and Hannoum (2003), which found that the bigger the tribe, the stronger its

tribal solidarity; the stronger the tribal solidarity, the more powerful the society. Furthermore, in an earlier study by El-Fathaly and Palmer (1973) about tribe and tribalism, they showed that tribalism is still part of Libyan society. In general, as Obeidi (1996) concluded, the findings of this study demonstrate that Libyan society is still a tribal society. The tribe is one of the strongest social organizations, and tribalism still plays a significant social role. It may be an invisible work sphere, but it has emerged as one of the main sources of legitimacy of the Libyan regime in the last years.

The fourth research question asked: what is the relationship between having relationships with people in the high positions and the distribution of workplace power? The findings determined that respondents who had relationships with people in high positions in society had more association with authority and influence than employees who didn't have within Azzawiya Oil Company. Also, the results showed that respondents' personal relationships with individuals in high positions is significant and predicted the respondents' degree of authority and influence. For employees who have personal relationships with individuals in high positions within society and ZRC, the predicted authority score would be higher than employees who do not.

The fifth research question asked: what is the relationship between employee's commitment and the distribution of workplace power? The results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company including, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, had more authority within company than others with a weak significant association. While the results confirmed that respondents who had a high commitment to company had more influence and ability to influence decisions within company than others, it was a moderate - significant association. These positive significant relationships indicated that the higher the employees' commitments, the higher degree of workplace power he/her had. This result validated Parsons' theory that views all roles, whatever the degree of importance, involve power. Workers with less

power perform roles through obedience to commands and instructions that are issued from the most powerful roles.

Finally, the results as a whole validated the study's theoretical framework that view power encompasses as open system, which is shaped and supported by internal and external environmental factors. Structure, gender, and tribalism have culturally and structurally shaped the decision-making process and influences the decision-makers into social identities. You may see that legal-rational and traditional authorities co-exist in Libyan workplaces as an indicator of the collapse of the company; however, it should consider as a kind of resistance to the changes and challenges that company facing. Thus, workplace power defines not only as solely held in the grip of the decision-makers, but also represents political and social structures and inequality in society.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

This study makes several important contributions to the body of current literature on the Libyan's workplace power. It is one of the few to measure employees' authority and influence in Libya. This study also expands previous research by looking at the multi- causal variables that determine the decision-making process and influences the decision-makers (e.g., gender differences in human capital returns, employees' commitment to the ZORC, and employees' treatment). Also, the innovative ways in which the gender has been analyzed in this study have advanced our conceptualizations and understanding of the impact of gender on Libyan's workplace power.

Although many significant contributions have been made by this study, there are also some very important limitations. First, the study of power reflects an inequality in society, which requires quantitative and qualitative design to collect realistic data reflecting reality in broad dimensions. Unfortunately, the study was unable to apply the qualitative aspect of the design of

the study and conduct the interview with women work at ZORC. For example, a qualitative interview would have been able to probe the finding that women who perceived they were treated well, believed they had the ability to influence decision makers. Thus, the quantitative results still need more details to explain the study's theoretical framework.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research could be done involving a sample from other government sectors like education and health care organizations or from the private sector. Also, I recommend employing a qualitative method, using in depth face-to-face interviews in order to enhance the knowledge about the relationship between gender, tribalism, and workplace power.

APPENDIX A

Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study
Wayne State University
Structure, Gender, Tribalism, and Workplace Power in Libya

Dear participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Rajia Rashed, a doctoral student at Wayne state university in sociology department. You can decide
not to participate. The following information is provided in order to help you make an informed decision whether or not you would like to participate. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

Project: Structure, Gender, Tribalism, and Workplace Power in Libya

Purpose of the Project: This study will investigate the relationships between structure, gender, tribalism, and power in the workplace. Specifically, I will attempt to describe those who have rights to make decisions and those who have the ability to influence the decision makers.

Risks and/or Discomforts: There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. All participants pledge to keep all names, companies of other participants and information shared confidential. Participants agree not to discuss experiences, or any other content information shared by other members.

Compensation: You will not receive any type of compensation for participating in this study. Participant acknowledge that your involvement with this study is completely
voluntary, and that you may refuse to answer certain questions or withdraw from the
study at any time, and all information collected from you up to that full point will be
destroyed. Participant acknowledge that you are able to withdraw from the study at
anytime, for any reason.

Opportunity to Ask Questions: If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact (Rajia Rashed) at 0014803195592 or email ee7153@wayne.edu.

Consent: If you wish to participate in this study, you will be interviewed. You are voluntary making a decision whether or not to participate in this research study. Your signature certifies that you have decided to participate having read and understood the information presented. You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give my consent to participate in this study.

Participant's signature_____ Date:_____

A copy of this consent form should be given to you.

APPENDIX A I

Consent Form in Arabic

نموذج الموافقة على المشاركة في دراسة بحثية
جامعة واين ستايت
البناء النوع القبيلة والقوة في ليبيا

عزيزي المبحوث،

أنا راجية راشد، طالبة دكتوراه بجامعة واين ستيت الامريكية بقسم علم الاجتماع. انتي مدعوة للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية اجرتها الطالبة لنيل درجة الدكتوراه.

موضوع الدراسة: البناء، النوع، القبيلة. والقوة بليبيا.

الغرض من الدراسة: الغرض من هذه الدراسة التحقيق في العلاقات بين البنية التنظيمية للمؤسسة، النوع، القبلية، والقوة في مكان العمل. على وجه التحديد، سأحاول وصف أولئك الذين لديهم الحق لاتخاذ القرارات وأولئك الذين لديهم القدرة على التأثير على صناع القرار.

اختي المبحوثة مشاركتك في الدراسة هو تماما طوعية ويمكنك رفض الاجابة على اسئلة معينة او الانسحاب من الدراسة في اي وقت ولأي سبب. كما تتعهد الباحثة بالحفاظ على المعلومات الواردة في الاستمارات وعدم مناقشتها مع المشاركات الاخريات في الدراسة.

واخير: إذا لديك اي اسئلة او استفسارات حول الدراسة الاتصال على الرقم التالي: 0011480319559

او على الايميل الاتي:

ee7153@wayne.edu

موافقة

لقد قرأت هذا النموذج واعطي موافقتي على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

توقيع المشارك_____ التاريخ: _____

.وينبغي اخذ نسخة من هذا النموذج لك

APPENDIX B
Survey

Individual characteristics

	Sex
1	Male
2	Female
	What is your age? _____
	How many years of schooling have you completed? (Education level)
1	Completed Elementary Only
2	Completed Middle School Only
3	High School Diploma
4	Vocational training
5	Technical School Diploma
6	Some College
7	Bachelor's degree
8	Master's degree
9	PhD – doctoral degree or another professional degree (medicine, law)
10	No formal education
	Place of residence
1	Azzawiya ( )
2	Outside Azzawiya ( )
	How much is your monthly income? _____
	What year did you begin at this company? _____
	What was your first job at any workplace?
1	Managerial and Professional ( )
2	Auditing and oversight ( )
3	Technical and administrative supervision ( ) (some level of management)
4	Administrative and legal ( )
5	Finance ( )
6	Technical ( ) (e.g., engineers)
7	Secretarial ( ) (clerical)
8	Service jobs ( ) (factory positions)
	What was your first job in this company?
1	Managerial and Professional ( )
2	Auditing and oversight ( )
3	Technical and administrative supervision ( ) (some level of management)
4	Administrative and legal ( )

5	Finance ( )	
6	Technical ( ) (e.g., engineers)	
7	Secretarial ( ) (clerical)	
8	Service jobs ( ) (factory positions)	

	What is your current job in this company?
1	Managerial and Professional ( )
2	Auditing and oversight ( )
3	Technical and administrative supervision ( ) (some level of management)
4	Administrative and legal ( )
5	Finance ( )
6	Technical ( ) (e.g., engineers)
7	Secretarial ( ) (clerical)
8	Service jobs ( ) (factory positions)
	How would you classify your specialization?
1	Administrative ( )
2	Legal ( )
3	Accounting ( )
4	Engineering ( )
5	Technician ( )
6	Secretarial ( )
7	Non-specialist( )
	How did you obtain your current job?
1	I was promoted into this position ( )
2	I was offered this position when I started at the company ( )
3	I was hired into this position from another company ( )
4	Temporary position – I was recruited from another company ( )
	What are the duties and responsibilities required by your job? (check all that apply)
1	Regulatory ( )
2	Executive ( )
3	Consulting ( )
4	Technical and productivity ( )
5	Administrative and office ( )
6	Supervisory Evaluative ( )
7	Supervisory ( )
8	Service ( )
	In which company department is your job located?
	Management Committee ( )

	Administrative affairs, legal and financial ( )
	Internal audit and oversight ( )
	Body art and engineering projects and training ( )
	Operations and Maintenance ( )
	Marketing and Sales ( )

Workplace structure: Formalization

	Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Employees are constantly checked on for rule violations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Employees feel as though they are constantly watched to see that they obey all the rules.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Written rules and procedures are available for my job	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	There is written documentation that specifies guidelines for workflows in my job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	There is written documentation for specific job tasks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	The company's organizational chart is available.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Publications and posters that show company regulations are available.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Regulations are communicated through official meetings	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	I feel that I am well aware of my job responsibilities and obligations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	The company changes the regulations from time to time	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	When the company changes regulations, there is information as to why the change has been made.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	There are very few instances when actions of management appear to violate the company's values.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	I feel that I am boss in most matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	A person can make his own decisions without checking with anybody else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	People here are allowed to do almost anything as they please.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Most people here make their own rules on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Workplace structure: specialization

	Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I feel that I often do more than one job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel that I sometimes do more than one job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I feel that I never have to do more than one job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I think the company benefits from my specialty.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I feel that I am paid sufficiently for the amount of work that I do.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	My current job does not fit with my specialization and career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My current job needs administrative support.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I feel that my daily work tasks are not important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I receive sufficient administrative support in my current job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	I feel that my job is essential to the company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	My knowledge and skills in my current job are useful to other companies.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	I put in a lot of effort into performing my job	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	I think of better ways of performing my job	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	My ideas are likely to be implemented	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	All employees begin in entry level positions regardless of prior experience or advanced degrees.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	Reward systems and promotion criteria require masterly of a core skills and knowledge as a precondition of advancement.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	The career paths for employees have been relatively consistent over the last 5 to 10 years.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Workplace structure: centralization:
Listed below are different kinds of decisions made at the company. Using the corresponding number to indicate the position, indicate who you think makes the decision for each task.

Board of group …..7
Managing director ……6
Production manager….5
Plant manager….4
Supervisors …3
Direct worker…2
I do not know…1
Consultation with all …0

	Types of Decisions	
1	Promotion of supervisory staff	

2	Salaries of supervisory staff	
3	Spending of unbudgeted or unallocated money on raw materials and supplies	
4	Spending of unbudgeted or unallocated money on investment	
5	Selection of type or brand for new equipment	
6	Overtime to be worked	
7	Delivery dates or priority of orders	
8	New product or service	
9	Marketing territories to be covered	
10	Extent and kind of investment for new operations	
11	Product pricing	
12	Inspection of processes	
13	Operational reviews	
14	Analyzing and redevelopment of processes	
15	Outputs to be scheduled against current financial holdings (risk-asset analysis)	
16	Dismissal of operative	
17	Dismissal of supervisor	
18	Methods of personnel selection	
19	Training methods	
20	Purchasing procedures	
21	Suppliers of materials to be used	
22	Methods of work to be used (not involving expenditure); i.e., how a job is to be done	
23	Machinery or equipment to be used for a job	
23	Allocation of work among available workers	
24	Employee well-being facilities to be provided (e.g., daycare, healthcare, disability access)	
25	Employee benefits (e.g., healthcare insurance, life insurance, housing, car, and education loans, retirement wages)	
26	Altering responsibilities or areas of work of specialist departments	
27	Altering responsibilities or areas of work of line department (operations)	
28	Creation of a new department (specialist or line)	
29	Creation of a new job (specialist or line, of any status, probably signified by a new job title)	
30	Who takes over in the chief executive's absence	

Work Commitment

Below is a list of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company for which they work. With respect to your own feeling about this company, please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven options.

	Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally is expected in order to help this company be successful.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I tell my friends that this is a great company to work for.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I feel very little loyalty to this company. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I would accept almost any job in order to keep working for this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	My values and the values of the company are very similar.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work was similar. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10								
12	I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this company indefinitely.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	Often, I find it difficult to agree with the company's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I really care about the fate of this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	For me, this is the best of all possible company for which to work.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	Deciding to work for this company was a definite mistake on my part. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	I really feel as if this company's problems are my own.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this company. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I do not feel emotionally attached to this company. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Statements							
22	I do not feel like part of the family at this company. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	Right now, staying with this company is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25	It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
26	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my company now.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
28	If I had not already put so much of myself into this company, I might consider working elsewhere.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30	I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31	I feel a sense of "ownership" for this company rather than just being an employee.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32	Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33	The reason I prefer this company to others is because of what it stand for, that is, its values.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34	My private views about this company are different from those I express publicly.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
35	If the values of this company were different, I would not be as attached to this company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
36	I am not absent from work; only in extreme cases.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37	I abide by decisions made by the company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
38	When I abide by company policies, I feel like this negatively impacts my relationships with other coworkers.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
39	During work hours, it is important that my appearance is professional.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

R: denotes a negatively phrased and reversed scored item

Decision making "Workplace Authority"

	Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
1	There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.	1						
2	A person who wants to make his own decisions would be quickly discouraged here.	1						
3	Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	1						
4	I have a lot of say over what happens in my job – the freedom to use my own judgment.	7						
5	My job allows me the freedom to decide how I do my own work.	7						

6	In my job, I get to make a lot of decisions on my own.	7						
7	In my job I get to take part in making decisions that affect me.	7						
8	In my job I get to make decisions that affect other workers.	7						
9	Any decision I make has to have your boss's approval.	1						
10	My job gives me the ability to direct or supervise others	7						
11	My job enables me to attend meetings with superiors	7						
12	My boss consults with me about issues before making a decision.	7						
13	My boss asks my opinion on decisions made by him/her	7						
14	My boss performs everything by himself.	1						
15	My boss delegates responsibility to me.	7						
16	I can express my ideas and opinions without risk.	7						
17	My decisions are always accepted by superiors.	7						
18	I feel like I have the experience and knowledge to make decisions in this job.	7						
19	I am given the chance to try my own methods of doing this job.	7						
20	I am able to keep busy all the time.	7						
21	I am given the chance to work alone on the job.	7						
22	I am given the chance to do different things from time to time.	7						
23	I am given the chance to do things for other people.	7						
24	I know your rights, duties, and requirements of your job	7						
	COWORKERS SUPPORT							
	When I need assistance in completing a job task, my coworkers pitch in and help.	7						
	My coworkers are able to give me useful advices on how to solve my job-related problems.	7						
	I can rely on my coworkers when things get tough at work.	7						
	When I am faced with an unusual problem at work, I can turn to my coworkers for assistance.	7						
	My coworkers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	7						
	ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT							
	My employer is concerned with taking care of employees' needs well beyond their paychecks.	7						
	Supervisors are very concerned about the welfare of those who work under them.	7						
	My employer makes sure that all the employees feel like one big happy family.	7						

		Strongly agree							
	My employer has a real interest in the welfare and happiness of people who work here.	7							
	I have my coworkers' confidence	7							
	My boss supports my decisions	7							
	My boss tells me important things that affect him/her personally	7							
	My boss informs me of the reasons for any requests he asks	7							
	I participate in the decision to hire new staff	7							
	I participate in promotion decisions of the staff	7							
	I participate in decisions for the adoption of new policies	7							
	I participate in the decisions for the adoption of new programs	7							

Decision making influence:

	Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
1	My skills give me influence over my boss' opinions	7						
2	My position gives me influence on decision-makers	7						
3	I can perform my job without reference to superiors	7						
4	I have diplomatic resources to implement tasks without any hindrance	7						
5	I can talk informally with other employees	7						
6	Others turn to me to facilitate some administrative procedures	7						
7	I provide services in exchange for services from another employee	7						
8	I have received a number of training courses out of the country without any hindrance	7						
9	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare abroad	7						
10	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare inside the country	7						
11	I have had training courses inside the country	7						
12	I have some privileges such as a house, apartment, car, or assistance for private school education	7						
13	I am able to influence my boss to give me some privileges at work	7						
14	My personal relationships have no effect on my boss	1						
15	My interaction with the staff gives me the power of persuasion	7						
16	I am free from conflicting demands on my job. (R)	1						

17	My job requires me to work at a fast pace.	7				
18	My job requires me to work very hard.	7				
19	I am asked to do excessive amounts of work.	7				
20	I have enough time to get the job done. (R)	1				
21	How hard I work for this company is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.	7				
22	In order for me to get rewarded around here, it is necessary to express the right attitude.	7				

Family Characteristics:

	How many years of schooling did your father complete?
1	Completed Elementary Only
2	Completed Middle School Only
3	High School Diploma
4	Vocational training
5	Technical School Diploma
6	Some College
7	Bachelor's degree
8	Master's degree
9	PhD – doctoral degree or another professional degree (medicine, law)
10	No formal education
	What is your father's current job?
1	Managerial and Professional ( )
2	Auditing and oversight ( )
3	Technical and administrative supervision ( )
4	Administrative and legal ( )
5	Finance ( )
6	Technical ( )
7	Secretarial ( )
8	Service jobs ( )
9	Education
10	Regulatory
11	Desk-?? I think you mean administration? But this doesn't really mean much.
12	Purchasing or buying
13	Agribusiness
14	Military
15	Social work or other human services like healthcare
16	Unemployed
17	Other: _____
	How much is your father's monthly income? _____

	What tribe does your father belong to?
	_____
	How many years of schooling did your mother complete?
1	Completed Elementary Only
2	Completed Middle School Only
3	High School Diploma
4	Vocational training
5	Technical School Diploma
6	Some College
7	Bachelor's degree
8	Master's degree
9	PhD – doctoral degree or another professional degree (medicine, law)
10	No formal education

	What is your mother's current job?
1	Managerial and Professional ( )
2	Auditing and oversight ( )
3	Technical and administrative supervision ( )
4	Administrative and legal ( )
5	Finance ( )
6	Technical ( )
7	Secretarial ( )
8	Service jobs ( )
9	Education
10	Regulatory
11	Desk-?? I think you mean administration? But this doesn't really mean much.
12	Purchasing or buying
13	Agribusiness
14	Military
15	Social work or other human services like healthcare
16	Unemployed
17	Other: _____
	How much is your mother's monthly income?
	_____
	What tribe does your mother belong to?
	_____
	How many relatives do you have that work at the company?
	None (if none, skip to question x)
	1

	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	More than 7

Where do your relatives work in the company?

Relatives who work at the company	Sex – Male or Female	Position in company (indicate corresponding number from list below)
Relative 1		
Relative 2		
Relative 3		
Relative 4		
Relative 5		
Relative 6		
Relative 7		

1. Managerial and professional; 2. Auditing and oversight; 3. Technical and administrative supervision; 4. Administrative and legal; 5. Finance; 6. Technical; 7. Secretarial; 8. Service/line workers

Statements	Strongly agree	Moderately agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
My tribal affiliation is important for my career.							
I feel supported and protected by the tribe in my career.							
It is important for me to have a boss that has the same sex as me.							
Women are treated just like men are at this company							
Women have a lower salary than men, even if in the same job.							
I have been treated equally at work place when I compared myself to someone of the opposite sex.							
I feel that I must take shorter lunch hours than other coworkers.							
Women feel like they have to work shorter lunch hours than men.							
The women's washroom is located in an inconvenient area of the company.							
Less chance of promotion							
Sexual harassment							

Have you received assistance from your tribe in the following?		
	YES	**NO**
Previous job		
Current job		
Access to training courses abroad		
Privileges such as housing, car		
Promotion		

Do you have any personal relationships with individuals in the following positions?		
	YES	**NO**
In the company's main administrative offices		
Workers' Union		
One of the official security services		
High-ranking governmental officer		
Congress		
Revolutionary committees		

For the next set of questions, I would like you to think about your situation at the company in comparison to other employees. For each element, indicate how equally you feel as though you have been treated.

	Treated much less favorably	Treated moderately less favorably	Treated slightly less favorably	Treated equally	Treated slightly more favorably	Treated moderately more favorably	Treated much more favorably
Recruitment & Selection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Job Evaluation							
Advancement							
Advice & Support							
Family-Friendly Policies							
Attendance Requirements							
Workplace Facilities (e.g. sports and catering facilities)							
House or apartment in company Campus							
IT Services							
Departmental Facilities/Support							
Policies & Procedures (e.g. grievance & disciplinary policies)							
Availability of leadership opportunities							
Supervision							
Training and development							

Number of hours worked							
Provided childcare							

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.

APPENDIX C

Written Permission in Arabic

مذكرة داخلية

إلـــــى :	السيد / مدير إدارة شؤون العاملين	التاريـــــخ	2014/4/09م
	السيد / مدير إدارة الاتصالات وتقنية المعلومات		
مـــــن :	مدير الإدارة	الرقم الإشاري	
الإدارة :	التدريب والتطويــــــر	عدد الصفحات	
الموضوع :	مشروع دراسة لنيل درجة الإجازة الدقيقة ـ الدكتوراه		

بعد التحية :ـ

بالإشارة إلى مراسلة إدارة جامعة الزاوية إدارة الدراسات العليا والتدريب المؤرخة في 2014/4/01م بخصوص تمكين الطالبة : راجيه عبدالله عزالدين أحدى طالبات الجامعة وهى بصدد أعداد الدراسة الميدانية بعنوان / توزيع القوة العاملة في ليبيا وهى عبارة عن إحصائية لغرض الدراسة والتقييم وذلك خلال الفترة من 2014/4/07م وحتى 2014/4/14م .
عليه نأمل تقديم المساعدة الممكنة وذلك للحصول على بعض الإحصائيات للسنوات2013م — 2014م وهى :

- التقرير السنوي بخصوص الموظفين في الشركة .
- عدد الموظفين ذكور — إناث
- المستوى التعليمي
- مستوى الدخل للفرد
- تخصص الوظائف
- أعمار الموظفين من والى .

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

مدير إدارة التدريب والتطوير

صورة لملف التدريب الداخلي 2014   م .الشريف

APPENDIX C I

Written Permission

AZZAWYA OIL REFINING COMPANY INC
Subsidiary of National Oil Corporation

شركة الزاوية لتكرير النفط
إحدى شركات المؤسسة الوطنية للنفط

Date:...............................
Corr :...............................
Reg No:...............................

التاريخ : ....
الموافق : ....
التسجيل : ....

17/8/2014

To who this may concern:

With reference to the correspondence of Azzawia university Higher study
& training Dep`t Libya dated 01/04/2014 regarding allowing RAJIA
RASHED who is studying her phD In Sociology at Wayne state
Universite USA to conduct the field study at Azzawiya oil Refining
company – Azzawia- libya .
We stable that we are prepared to provide statistics about our employees .

Mohamed Salem Bashr
Training Manager

هـ الزاوية	هـ طرابلس	بريد مصور	العنوان البرقي	صندوق البريد	المقر الرئيسي
Azzawia	**Tel: Tripoli**	**Fax**	**Cable**	**P.O.Box**	**Head quarter**
(023) 7625003 - 07	(021) 3610539 - 42	(023) 7620092	Arcly	Azzawia 15715 الزاوية:	مصفاة الزاوية
(023) 7620125 - 27		(021) 3610538		Tripoli 6451 طرابلس:	**Azzawia Oil Refinery**

WWW.Arc.com.ly

APPENDIX D
Reliability analysis results:

formalization

	Statements	R
1	Employees are constantly checked on for rule violations.	-.129
2	Employees feel as though they are constantly watched to see that they obey all the rules.	-.091
3	Written rules and procedures are available for my job	.005
4	There is written documentation that specifies guidelines for workflows in my job.	$.247^{**}$
5	There is written documentation for specific job tasks.	$.250^{**}$
6	The company's organizational chart is available.	$.^{a}$
7	Publications and posters that show company regulations are available.	-.129
8	Regulations are communicated through official meetings	-.091
9	I feel that I am well aware of my job responsibilities and obligations.	-.129
10	The company changes the regulations from time to time	-.091
11	When the company changes regulations, there is information as to why the change has been made.	-.134
12	There are very few instances when actions of management appear to violate the company's values.	-.129
13	I feel that I am boss in most matters.	.129
14	A person can make his own decisions without checking with anybody else.	$.254^{**}$
15	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work.	.091
16	People here are allowed to do almost anything as they please.	$.254^{**}$
17	Most people here make their own rules on the job.	$-.254^{**}$

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.751	.781	11

specialization

	Statements	R
1	I feel that I often do more than one job.	-.360**
2	I feel that I sometimes do more than one job.	-.360**
3	I feel that I never have to do more than one job.	-.419**
4	I think the company benefits from my specialty.	.665**
5	I feel that I am paid sufficiently for the amount of work that I do.	-.910**
6	My current job does not fit with my specialization and career.	.419**
7	My current job needs administrative support.	.910**
8	I feel that my daily work tasks are not important.	.419**
9	I receive sufficient administrative support in my current job.	.419**
10	I feel that my job is essential to the company.	.910**
11	My knowledge and skills in my current job are useful to other companies.	.742**
12	I put in a lot of effort into performing my job	.910**
13	I think of better ways of performing my job	.910**
14	My ideas are likely to be implemented	.910**
15	All employees begin in entry level positions regardless of prior experience or advanced degrees.	.910**
16	Reward systems and promotion criteria require masterly of a core skills and knowledge as a precondition of advancement.	.910**
17	The career paths for employees have been relatively consistent over the last 5 to 10 years.	.419**

centralization

	Types of Decisions	R
1	Promotion of supervisory staff	.203*
2	Salaries of supervisory staff	-.009
3	Spending of unbudgeted or unallocated money on raw materials and supplies	.044
4	Spending of unbudgeted or unallocated money on investment	.044
5	Selection of type or brand for new equipment	.310**
6	Overtime to be worked	.621**
7	Delivery dates or priority of orders	.621**
8	New product or service	.358**
9	Marketing territories to be covered	.358**
10	Extent and kind of investment for new operations	.358**
11	Product pricing	-.138
12	Inspection of processes	.017
13	Operational reviews	.275**
14	Analyzing and redevelopment of processes	-.007
15	Outputs to be scheduled against current financial holdings (risk-asset analysis)	-.084
16	Dismissal of operative	.024

17	Dismissal of supervisor	.024
18	Methods of personnel selection	-.002
19	Training methods	.540**
20	Purchasing procedures	.553**
21	Suppliers of materials to be used	-.014
22	Methods of work to be used (not involving expenditure); i.e., how a job is to be done	-.371**
23	Machinery or equipment to be used for a job	-.101
23	Allocation of work among available workers	.096
24	Employee well-being facilities to be provided (e.g., daycare, healthcare, disability access)	.c
25	Employee benefits (e.g., healthcare insurance, life insurance, housing, car, and education loans, retirement wages)	.c
26	Altering responsibilities or areas of work of specialist departments	.c
27	Altering responsibilities or areas of work of line department (operations)	.c
28	Creation of a new department (specialist or line)	.633**
29	Creation of a new job (specialist or line, of any status, probably signified by a new job title)	.322**
30	Who takes over in the chief executive's absence	.c

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.717	.694	8

Commitment

	Statements	R
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally is expected in order to help this company be successful.	-.026
2	I tell my friends that this is a great company to work for.	-.026
3	I feel very little loyalty to this company. (R)	.b
4	I would accept almost any job in order to keep working for this company.	.078
5	My values and the values of the company are very similar.	-.096
6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company. AC	.996**

7	I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work was similar. (R AC)	-.593**
8	This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.AC	.996**
9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company. (R)	.b
10	I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. AC	.996**
11	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this company indefinitely.	.b
12	Often, I find it difficult to agree with the company's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)	.b
13	I really care about the fate of this company. AC	.996**
14	For me, this is the best of all possible company for which to work.AC	.996**
15	Deciding to work for this company was a definite mistake on my part. (R)	.b
16	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company. AC	.996**
17	I really feel as if this company's problems are my own. AC	.996**
18	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this company. (R)	.b
19	I do not feel emotionally attached to this company. (R)	.b
20	I do not feel like part of the family at this company. (R)	.b
21	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. AC	.996**
24	Right now, staying with this company is a matter of necessity as much as desire. CC	.996**
25	It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to.CC	.996**
26	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my company now.CC	.996**
27	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company.CC	.996**
28	If I had not already put so much of myself into this company, I might consider working elsewhere.CC	.996**
29	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives.CC	.996**
30	I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with this company. R NC	.996**
31	I feel a sense of "ownership" for this company rather than just being an employee. NC	.996**
32	Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this company. NC	.996**

33	The reason I prefer this company to others is because of what it stand for, that is, its values. NC	.996**
34	My private views about this company are different from those I express publicly. NC	.996**
35	If the values of this company were different, I would not be as attached to this company. NC	.996**
36	I am not absent from work; only in extreme cases.	.996**
37	I abide by decisions made by the company.AC	.996**
38	When I abide by company policies, I feel like this negatively impacts my relationships with other coworkers R. NC	.996**
39	During work hours, it is important that my appearance is professional.	.996**

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.986	.983	28

Authority

Functional Authority;

	Statements	R
1	There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.	-.396**
2	A person who wants to make his own decisions would be quickly discouraged here.	.112
3	Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	.387**
4	I have a lot of say over what happens in my job – the freedom to use my own judgment.	.665**
5	My job allows me the freedom to decide how I do my own work.	.686**
6	In my job, I get to make a lot of decisions on my own.	.636**
7	In my job I get to take part in making decisions that affect me.	.674**
8	In my job I get to make decisions that affect other workers.	.627**
9	Any decision I make has to have your boss's approval.	.551**
10	My job gives me the ability to direct or supervise others	.316**
11	My job enables me to attend meetings with superiors	.624**
12	My boss consults with me about issues before making a decision.	.554**

13	My boss asks my opinion on decisions made by him/her	.645**
14	My boss performs everything by himself.	-.598**
15	My boss delegates responsibility to me.	-.043
16	I can express my ideas and opinions without risk.	.107
17	My decisions are always accepted by superiors.	.496**
18	I feel like I have the experience and know	.745**
19	I am given the chance to try my own methods of doing this job.	.745**
20	I am able to keep busy all the time.	.705**
21	I am given the chance to work alone on the job.	.727**
22	I am given the chance to do different things from time to time.	.705**
23	I am given the chance to do things for other people.	.716**
24	I know your rights, duties, and requirements of your job	.748**

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.841	.872	23

influence

	Statements	Influence
1	My skills give me influence over my boss' opinions	.065
2	My position gives me influence on decision-makers	.511**
3	I can perform my job without reference to superiors	.622**
4	I have diplomatic resources to implement tasks without any hindrance	.269**
5	I can talk informally with other employees	.783**
6	Others turn to me to facilitate some administrative procedures	.376**
7	I provide services in exchange for services from another employee	.590**
8	I have received a number of training courses out of the country without any hindrance	.789**
9	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare abroad	.b
10	I have received financial support by the company for healthcare inside the country	-.323**
11	I have had training courses inside the country	-.663**
12	I have some privileges such as a house, apartment, car, or assistance for private school education	.557**
13	I am able to influence my boss to give me some privileges at work	-.009
14	My personal relationships have no effect on my boss	.b

15	My interaction with the staff gives me the power of persuasion	.^b
16	I am free from conflicting demands on my job. (R)	.^b
17	My job requires me to work at a fast pace.	.^b
18	My job requires me to work very hard.	-.096
19	I am asked to do excessive amounts of work.	.563**
20	I have enough time to get the job done. (R)	.^b
21	How hard I work for this company is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.	.699**
22	In order for me to get rewarded around here, it is necessary to express the right attitude.	-.096

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.751	.704	13

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ABSTRACT

STRUCTURE, GENDER, TRIBALISM, AND WORKPLACE POWER IN LIBYA

by

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Advisors: Dr. Heather Dillaway and Dr. Krista Brumley

Major: Sociology

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

The study examines the nature of workplace power in a Libyan oil company and how is power distributed, managed, and maintained within the structure of this workplace. I also examine how gender and tribal identities affect who has power in the workplace setting. I also look at the types of decisions workers have control over, depending on their rank and status within the organization, time with company, gender and tribal identity. In this proposal, I argue that workplace power is not only about decision making within the company, but it also mirrors larger social and political inequalities in the society at large. The goal of this quantitative study is to examine employee authority and influence within workplace. Specifically, the research objectives are: 1) to describe the standardization of workplace power regarding structural characteristics, as defined by formalization, centralization, and specialization; 2) to investigate the relationship between gender and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making; 3) to examine the relationship between tribalism identification and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making, and 4) to explore work commitment and the ability to make decisions and influence decision making. This study intends to determine which variables explain the most variance in the distribution of workplace power. Data was gathered using a self-administered

questionnaire given to a disproportionate stratified random sampling of employees working at Azzawiya Oil Refining Company. The findings show that power is unevenly distributed by gender and women's power in the workplace remains constrained. Also, workplace power affected by tribal identities. Workers who belong to a powerful tribe can be involved in the process of decision making.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Rajia Rashed holds a M.A. and BA in Sociology from Azzawiya University, Libya. She is a former faculty member at Azzawiya University where she taught undergraduate sociology courses to include: Introduction of the Social Sciences, Introduction to Sociology, Conclusive Statistics, Descriptive Statistics, Data Analysis, Sociology of Population, Questionnaire Design, and Social Change. Her dissertation research was supported by four years Scholarship from Libyan Ministry of Education (2010-2014). She was Graduate Research Assistant in department of sociology at Wayne State University in 2015. Her master research was supported by 2 years scholarship from Libyan Azzawiya University, Libya in 2003. She was awarded for Human Service from Azzawiya Community, Libya in 2006. She was research member in The National Organization for Scientific Research at Tripoli, Libya (2004-2007). Her professional affiliations include Sociologists Without Borders and Golden Key National Honor Society.