EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF NATIONAL CONTEXT IN THE ROLE AND WORK OF MANAGERS IN LIBYA

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بِسْمِك اللّٰهُمّ

In the name of Allah, we start

Declaration

The work in this thesis was fulfilled in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text.

No portion of this thesis has been submitted in support of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed …………………… (Candidate)   Date ……………………………….

DEDICATED TO

My Wife

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Praise is to Allah, the Almighty, on whom ultimately we depend for sustenance and guidance

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the nature of Libyan managerial work and the effects of external environment factors on it. It is interested in understanding managers' work and behaviour, and in exploring and investigating the impact of national context on the role and work of managers.

The study adopts an interpretive approach and uses qualitative methods to collect data on the perceptions of Libyan managers with regard to their work and behaviour. It seeks to understand the effect of the external environment on the work of these managers, which was considered to consist of economic, legal, political and regulatory constraints as well as cultural and social obligations and responsibilities.

The oil and banking industries were chosen based on a number of factors: these two sectors are the backbone of the Libyan economy and represent the nation's main source of income and the means of its disbursement; they are both affected by foreign partners and competitors; they provided ease of access for the researcher.

In the pilot study, a questionnaire survey of 111 Libyan executives as well as five interviews with key individuals within the banking and oil sectors were carried out in Libya in order to elicit their views about the main issues affecting the nature of Libyan managerial work in general and the influences of external environment on their work in particular.

The existing literature and the findings from the first phase (the pilot study) informed the second stage of the empirical work of this thesis (the main study) examining the managerial work of Libyan executive managers in four different organisations in Libya: two banks and two oil companies. The research collected qualitative data from 25 Libyan managers based on semi-structured interviews designed to investigate their attitudes to their managerial work. These data were supported by observations made by the interviewer during the data collection and by analysis of documentary evidence. Initially, grounded analysis of the individual interview data collected from the main study established 24 constructs of managerial work in Libya, which the researcher divided into five categories. Grounded analysis was adopted due to the shared cultural and language background of the researcher and interviewees, and because it enabled the organisation of large quantities of data into emerging constructs. Then, case study analysis was undertaken on and within each of the four companies and the constructs.

The most important findings of the study include: the work of Libyan managers is strongly affected by the external environment; these effects result in a division in Libyan managerial work between functions that fulfil the formal requirements of their roles and others that fulfil their informal (tribal, familial and social) obligations; managers devise individual strategies to balance their divided responsibilities; in terms of managerial work and job roles there is a lack of

structural clarity and designated responsibility within Libyan organisations that results in confused and inefficient allocation of workloads and resources.

The key contributions of the study lie in the findings outlined in the paragraph above; these findings are discussed in chapter 8 and result in a diagram of Libyan managerial work (see figure 8.2) that reflects the data captured in the study, and builds on previous models of managerial work derived from the literature, particularly that of Mintzberg (1973). This diagram reflects the findings that in Libya the external environment influences managers' work not only at a formal but at an informal level, and this has the effect of shaping managers' work activities in ways that may be at odds with the aims and intentions of their employers. As a further theoretical contribution, a diagram illustrating the impacts of the external environment upon the work of Libyan managers has been developed (see figure 8.3), which will enable Libyan managers to better understand the forces and constraints they operate under, and help other researchers to take account of the forces at work in their own national contexts and develop culturally sensitive management practices as a result.

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Chapter One

Introduction to the Research

This chapter is an introduction to the research entitled: 'Exploring the Impact of National Context in the Role and Work of Managers in Libya'. It is divided into the following parts: the background to the study; the problem description; the study aim and objectives; the research questions; the research methodology; the rationale and importance of the research; and the structure of the study.

1.1 Background

There has been extensive research conducted on the nature of managerial work and behaviour (Hales, 1999); the vast majority is in western literature. Indeed, the general picture of the management research literature shows that there has been a growing body of knowledge and research into the nature of managerial work (Rodham, 2000; Butcher & Clarke, 2003; Florén, 2006). Generally, studies of managerial work are connected with what managers do (or really do), why managers do what they do and even what they should do; that is, both the characteristics of managerial work and activities of managers have been subjects of studies (for example, Mintzberg, 1973; Kotter, 1982; Hales, 1986, 1999; Matthaei, 2010). The characteristics relate to several matters such as the extent of the variety, the fragmentation and the brevity in the managers' work; the quantity and the pace of their work performance; what media the managers use to do their work. The activities of managers indicate what the job, the role, and the skills of managers are. Moreover, a number of the studies of managerial work have explored several issues on the topic of the role and work of managers. One area on which some of the studies have focused is how managerial work is influenced by its societal environment. In other words, variables of the national context, such as the national culture, the level of technology and the development of the economy have gained importance in the literature of

managerial work - e.g. Boisot & Liang (1992); Luthans et al., (1993); Gibbs (1994); Pearson et al., (2003); Berson et al., (2004); Iguisi (2009).

The study of the societal environment and its impact on managerial work behaviour is more prevalent in management research related to the international dimensions of management than in the field of research that limits its focus to the study of managerial work in a domestic context. A review of the research into managerial work regarding the relationship between managerial behaviour and its societal environment reveals an inadequate understanding in knowledge about the nature of this relationship (Martinko & Gardner, 1990; Iguisi, 2009). Some fields of management research, however, have recognised that the nature of national context as an important variable to consider in dealing with their issues successfully. Specifically, those fields which consider the effects of national context on the management of organisations include cross-culture management; comparative management; and international business studies.

Cross-culture management studies concentrate on the behaviour of people from different cultures working together in organisations around the world in order to explain how to work in those organisations with people from dissimilar cultures. In other words, the main inquiries of cross-culture management studies seek to describe the organisational behaviour of people within countries and cultures; to compare organisational behaviour across national boundaries; and, perhaps of the greatest value, to understand and improve the managing of cross-cultural interaction (Adler, 2002). According to Jackson & Parry (2011), one of the most influential cross-cultural studies that have significantly contributed to the field of cross-cultural leadership research is Hofstede's study (1980) of IBM employees from 49 national cultures, which resulted in the creation of the well-known four value dimensions: individualism/collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance; and masculinity/femininity. Likewise, comparative management research has tended to focus on identifying similarities and differences between domestic organisations in two or more different countries. Similarly, international business studies deal with issues of multinational corporations at the macro and structural level. These three branches of research appear to be complementary fields in terms of studying organisational behaviour

across the world. Moreover, they could be a useful guide in assessing to what extent the work of a manager is influenced by his/her own societal environment.

The societal environment (the external milieu) of managerial work and behaviour consists of a number of environmental factors which impinge on managerial activities. Worthington & Britton (2006) highlight the fundamental external factors that affect the business environment. They refer to what are frequently known as the 'PESTLE' influences (political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, legal and ethical) as the major environmental influences on business activities. Skinner (1964) drew a detailed picture of four intermeshing systems that affect managerial philosophy and practice. He felt strongly that there are economic, political, cultural and technological systems within the work of managers and that every manager must realise the impact that each of these systems has on their decisions and behaviour. These intermeshing systems and their variables form the societal environment of managerial work. In terms of political system, for example, Skinner (1964) referred to government controls and legal requirements, the stability of government, business law, the system of justice, integrity of civil servants, government attitudes toward both business and labour, the locus of power, foreign policy, foreign investment policy, legislative procedures and the executive branch of the government as all being influences on managerial work. The influence of the economic system consisted of factors such as taxes, relative costs of labour, materials, overheads, capital and equipment, availability of credit, stability, inflation, growth, cyclical activity, foreign exchange, forecast ability, competition, distribution system, mass media for communications, and tariffs. Similarly, the culture system considered values, beliefs, assumptions, relationships, motivating factors, status symbols, customs, social institutions, social mobility, education, classes, castes, and literacy. It can be considered that the nature of societal environment, whether the socio-cultural context, the economic situation, or the political-legal milieu that affects managerial work and behaviour is subject to the significant variables analysed; for example, in cross-culture management, comparative management or international business studies, as mentioned by Skinner (1964).

1.2 Problem Description

Understanding the effect of societal environment on the nature of managerial work is a significant part of interpreting the similarities and the differences between the activities of managers in different settings. That is, a universality of managerial work depends on the characteristics of managers' own national milieu (Pearson & Chatterjee, 2003). However, the analysis of societal environment and therefore its impact upon managers' work activity is not a simple matter; it is related to certain variables including cultural, economic, technical and political factors. Furthermore, the nature of variations in the level of national context variables among societies may have a strong effect on the nature of managerial work, which might lead to the rejection of the assumption of the universality of managerial activities. For instance, what managers, who live in a non-western culture, do in terms of their managerial activities in their own society does not necessarily resemble western managerial work. This means that managers are influenced by their own cultures when they perform their jobs and roles, so the skills and techniques relating to the performance of managerial work that are suitable for one national culture are not inevitably suitable for another (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 2007; Jackson & Parry, 2011). Similarly, the other variables within the national surroundings, for example, the extent of the development in the economy and the level of technological knowledge, can affect managerial performance in the same way.

Previous research that pointed out the universal nature of managerial work was dismissed by Adler (1983, 1984). She argued, rather, that the findings of such studies could only be applied to the cultures in which the research was carried out. The difference, therefore, in managerial work and behaviour across countries and cultures should be assumed until similarity is proven, rather than vice versa (Adler, 1984). In this context, Laurent (1983) explored the philosophies and behaviours of managers from several different countries. His view suggested that the universality of management and practice was a highly questionable issue. More recent research by Jackson & Parry (2011) has gone further, and not only doubts the extent to which national and local cultural can

be investigated in terms of its influence on managerial work, but also questions the validity of culturally grounded investigative techniques being applied to a new culture with different values.

These doubts about the universality of managerial work demand an examination of national context and its impact on the nature of managerial work. Moreover, these concerns raise the critical question of how and to what extent the results of research conducted in developed-country environments are indeed feasible and fit to be adopted in entirely different environments such as developing countries - e.g. Libya. However, it can be argued that there are some similarities between managers' jobs in two or more different places. Theoretically, it might not be wrong to say that managers are more likely to imitate other managers who manage their organisations effectively and efficiently. This, consequently, will lead to the work of managers being more alike, and establish a universal managerial practice over time. Logically, on the other hand, since societal environments are markedly different across the world, their effects on the nature of managerial work from one country to another will therefore be different, causing the nature of managerial work itself to also differ. Hence, there is no reason to believe that by ignoring the societal environment and its impact on the work of managers, research into managerial work and behaviour has been able to capture the reality of managerial work across the whole world, and prove the supposition of universal managerial practice. As a result, the issue of to what extent managerial work is influenced by its own societal environment seems to be the key point in deciding whether or not the universality of managerial work hypothesis can be supported.

In addition to the underpinnings of the research problem, there has been extensive debate about the universality of managerial work since Mintzberg published his seminal study on the nature of managerial work in 1973 (Lubatkin et al., 1997; Pearson & Chatterjee, 2003). Consequently, the debate has encouraged a number of researchers to explore the nature of managerial work in different contexts. Although there are similarities among managers' activities the world over, there is not enough evidence to prove that the set of managerial activities is a universal practice. In other words, there is insufficient evidence to

support the universality of managerial work because such a hypothesis may be challenged given the results of several studies - e.g. Shenkar et al., (1998); Pearson & Chatterjee (2003). However, it is unsurprising that international organisations founded on principles primarily decided by western nations such as The United Nations, The International Monetary Fund and The World Bank, which are concerned with economic development, have supported managerial programmes in developing countries that are willing to adopt western management models (Lubatkin et al., 1997).

In brief, despite the fact that there has been comprehensive research on managerial work (Hales, 1986, 1999), studies of managers' work and behaviour are relatively few in developing and non-western countries. It is apparent that most studies have been researched in western contexts; however, there is a lack of research in other contexts. As a result, studies on managerial work, which are interested in the similarities between the western managerial pattern and non-western managerial practice, are required (Stewart, 1989). Indeed, there is still a call for more research in the area of managerial work, although this arena of research has been studied for a long time (Akella, 2006; Tengblad, 2006). Thus, there is a need for more empirical investigations in non-western managerial settings, such as African work organisations – including Libya, which is the subject of the current research (Vengroff, Belhaj & Ndiaye, 1991; Pearson & Chatterjee, 2003).

1.3 The Research Aim and Objectives

The current research addresses the question "*To what extent is the nature of Libyan managerial work influenced by its own national context*"? The aim is to contribute to the field of research that studies the nature of managerial work and behaviour. It has, therefore, the following objectives:

- To explore the features of the nature of managerial work in Libyan organisations.

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- To map and analyse the nature of the managerial work of Libyan managers.
- To determine how the nature of managerial work in Libyan organisations is influenced by its national context.
- To examine to what extent the assumption of universal managerial work is supported by the nature of Libyan managerial work.

1.4 Research Questions

In order to achieve the aim and objectives of the study, three research questions have been designed. The following are questions that will be answered by this research:

1. What are the fundamental characteristics of managerial work in Libyan organisations?
2. How do Libyan managers perceive their managerial work?
3. How does the national context make the managerial work of Libyan managers distinctive?

1.5 Research Methodology

The overriding goal of this research is to gain a sufficient understanding of the nature of Libyan managerial work as well as the impact of Libya's national context on it. For this purpose, the empirical work was designed to consist of two stages. The first phase, which was the pilot study, aimed at producing themes, patterns, and areas of study regarding the nature of managerial work, for further enquiry. A questionnaire survey of a number of executive managers and a limited number of interviews with key individuals in both the banking and oil sectors in Libya were the main data collection tools. The findings from the first phase as well as the existing literature informed the second stage of the field

work of this study, analysing the work of the executive managers in four selected organisations in Libya: two banks and two oil companies.

The current study adopts an interpretive position. It enquires into participants' perspectives across the four selected organisations with respect to their managerial work and the influences of the societal environment on it. A case study informed by grounded theory was considered to be the most appropriate research strategy. With regard to the approach of this research, it adopts inductive logic rather than deductive, attempting to generate theory and with no pre-existing hypothesis, rather than testing theory or a pre-existing hypothesis.

1.6 Rationale and Importance of the Research

The real features of managerial work will not emerge completely and correctly without putting that work into the context of the broader societal environment within which the manager functions in the workplace. In view of the fact that organisations do not exist and work in a vacuum, it can be assumed that there are surroundings in which each firm operates. Thus, the organisation, as an open system, is subject to the impact of environmental variables on its work and behaviour in certain ways. Regarding the influence of national context on managerial work and behaviour, managers will indeed find themselves having to cope with such an effect, whether they accept it or not, believe it or not, or care about it or not. Since the impact of the societal environment is more likely to be different from one society to another (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) the reality of managerial work and behaviour will become subject to the underlying effect of the national context.

Although there have been several studies that focus on the influences of national culture on the practice of management and leadership (e.g. House et al., 2004), research concerning the impact of societal environment on the nature of managerial work, at the micro-level in particular, is still inadequate in the literature of managerial work and behaviour. Establishing the universality of

managerial activities in the whole world therefore requires more empirical evidence. Accordingly, the current research will attempt to gather evidence to determine whether or not the universal practice assumption (e.g. Lubatkin et al., 1997) can be supported by the managerial work of Libyan managers, as well as determining whether the national context is significantly influential in managerial work. Besides, it will be the first study to the best of the author's knowledge that focuses on exploring and understanding the nature of Libyan managerial work and the impact of national context on it. The current research will attempt to contribute an original study relating to managerial work in Libya. Moreover, the results of the study could be used as a resource for the Libyan government and organisations. Furthermore, the findings will supplement the existing limited literature on the impact of national context on managers' work activity research in the developing as well as non-western environment (Iguisi, 2009).

Forty years ago, Mintzberg (1973) published his well-known study: T*he Nature of Managerial Work* and up to now the work of managers remains an active field of research. However, this was not the the first reason that motivated me to pursue this area of research. The main motivation was produced by a dislocation between two parts of my life: on the one hand I had my experience as a member of staff in the University of Benghazi (previously known as Garyounis University) teaching my students principles of management which were based on Western assumptions and models. On the other hand I was also a member of a research team working to evaluate the managerial performance for a number of organisations in Libya, using field research methods such as interviews, observation and document reviews in the organisations themselves. In addition, I was involved as a private consultant in several business research projects in Libya aimed at organisational reorganisation. In conducting these different roles it became apparent to me that the nature of managerial work as I was presenting it in the classroom did not always coincide with the managerial work I observed and researched in Libyan organisations, and that therefore the training that my students were being given might not be the best preparation they could receive for beginning work as managers in Libya. In addition my reading, particularly of Ali & Camp (1995), suggested that some scholars were attributing the failure of

management practices in the Arab world to advance to an over-reliance on Western modes of thought, and this was preventing more efficient and productive ways of working from emerging in these countries. My challenge was to develop my knowledge and teaching about management so that it reflected the way Libyan managers really get things done, which was not as prescribed in many of the textbooks I was using, but was also not altogether different from the patterns of work described by Mintzberg (1973).

This thesis was written at a time of truly momentous change in the history of Libya. When work on it began (2009), Libya was ruled by Muammar Qadhafi. When it ended (2013), Libya was ruled by The General National Congress (GNC), following the first free elections for more than forty years. It may therefore turn out to be a study which will be used as a benchmark for future studies of Libyan managerial work, which is likely to undergo many changes in line with the changes in Libyan economy and society that will result from the new political situation.

Therefore, a strong claim can be made that this indeed is a landmark study, representing a distillation of Libyan managerial work at a point of historical upheaval. It will be a study which benchmarks the nature of Libyan managerial work during the period of the previous regime (1969-2011) and will be of some significance to scholars who wish to gauge the extent to which Libyan managerial work has changed following the change of regime. The work is already unique due to this historical conjunction.

1.7 Thesis Structure

The thesis is divided into eight chapters; Figure 1.1 illustrates the thesis structure. A brief description of each chapter is given as follows.
The first chapter is an introductory chapter which aims at providing a general overview of the thesis in terms of the research area of investigation; the research

problem; the research aim, objectives and questions; the adopted methodology; and the rationale and importance of the research.

Chapters two and chapter three provide a review of the main literature relevant to research into managerial work and behaviour. In chapter two the work of managers is discussed, taking in classical management theory, work activity theory and cultural theories that significantly contribute to this discussion. Chapter three focuses on the Libyan managerial work context. It begins with an overview of Libya, in which Libya's society, political and legal settings and economic environment are outlined. After portraying Libyan banking and oil sectors (the subjects of the study), the major influences on the work environment of Libyan managers are considered.

In chapter four, the research methodology is presented and discussed. It firstly explains and justifies the approach to the methodology. The main related issues such as the adopted research philosophy, the research strategy and the data collection and analysis methods, reliability and validity and ethical considerations are discussed.

Chapter five deals exclusively with the pilot study and is divided into five main sections. First of all, the purpose of conducting the pilot study is outlined. The second section exhibits and analyses the pilot study questionnaire results. In the third section, the results of the pilot study's semi-structured interviews are presented and analysed. A summary of main findings that arose from both the questionnaire and the interviews as well as the role of the pilot study in informing the research strategy for the main study are discussed in the fourth section. The final section is a conclusion to the findings of the pilot study.

The sixth and seventh chapters outline the main study in terms of the data analysis and research findings. The main aim of chapter six is to create a ground of constructs that are intended to be used as a guide in conducting the case-study analysis in the next chapter – chapter seven. Using grounded analysis technique as an inductive approach based on interpretation, the raw data of 25 semi-structured interviews are analysed throughout the chapter. Chapter seven

delivers research findings and discussion of the companies at the case study level. It examines each case (within-case analysis) and then a comparison among them is conducted (cross-case analysis).

The final chapter (chapter eight) is a conclusion. In this chapter, the research questions as well as the research findings are revisited in order to draw final conclusions and the research contributions. It also sets out the limitations of the research, implications for research, implications for practice and suggestions for future research.

Figure 1.1: An Overview to the Research Chapters

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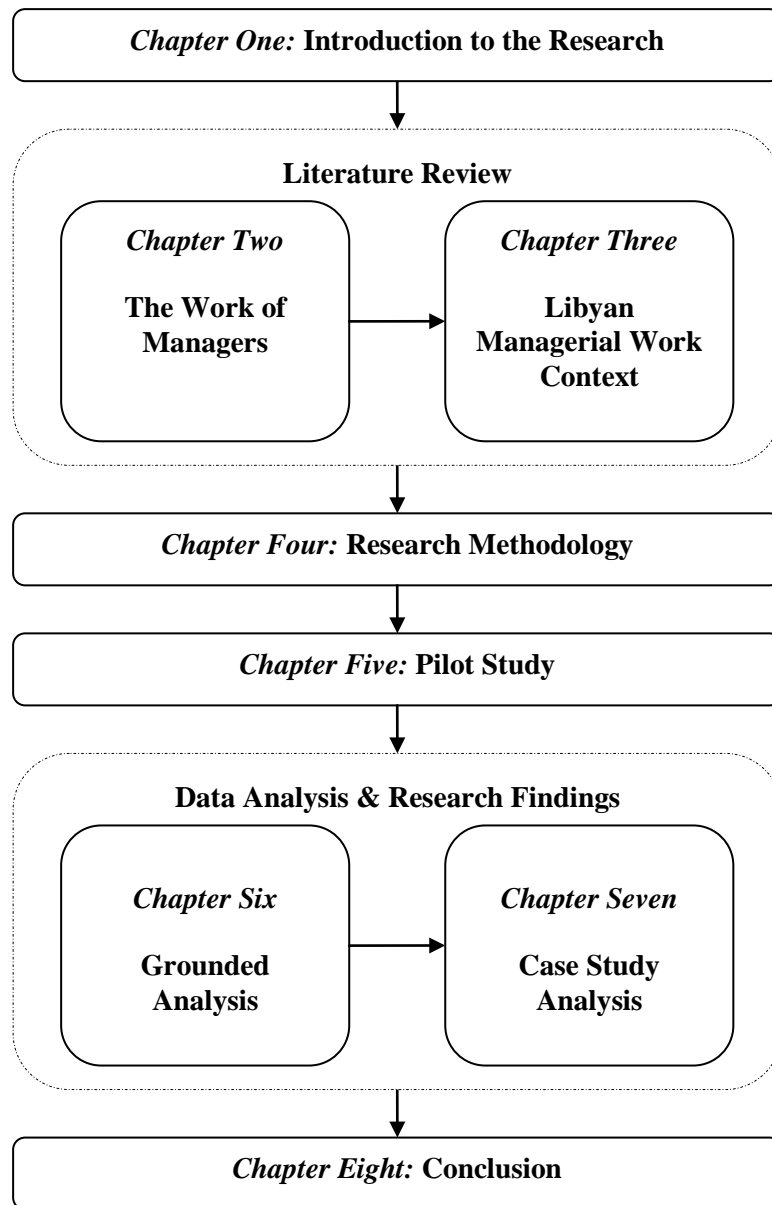
Chapter two
The work of Managers

This chapter introduces the reader to the basic premise of theories of the work of managers. No attempt is made in order to review all managerial work theories; rather, there will be selected studies that are considered to be relevant to the discussion of managers' work activity. In other words, what managers do and to what extent their managerial work can be considered as a universal practice will guide the discussion of the related literature throughout the chapter. To meet its purpose, the chapter is divided into six main sections: Introduction; Classical Management Theory; Work Activity Theory; Overview of the Findings of Managerial Work and Behaviour Research; Cultural Theories and Conclusion.

2.1 Introduction

Before considering the nature of managerial work and behaviour there are two key issues that require clarification: one is the conceptual distinction of leadership and management; and the other is concerned with the level of management seniority at which managers' work activity is conducted.

Initially, it is necessary to discuss the terms 'leadership' and 'management', since they are used separately within the literature, but not always in the same way. Dimmock and Walker (2000) acknowledge that there is no absolute agreement on what the terms mean even in the Anglo-American world, and recognise that neither term is entirely exclusive; in other words, even where such terms are employed there is widespread recognition that their activities overlap, and that the qualities required for each are often the same. According to Zaleznik, (1977, 2004 cited in Mintzberg, 2009) and Kotter (1990a and 1990b cited in Mintzberg, 2009) there is a conceptual necessity to separate leaders from managers in order to categorise managerial work; this is a tendency that Mintzberg (2009, p.8) rejects, stating that while a theoretical separation is possible, this distinction disappears when actually observing the work of

managers. He argues that in their day to day processes, it is impossible to say whether the action or decision of a manager is an example of management or leadership. This study will therefore follow Mintzberg (2009) in regarding leadership/management as a false dichotomy in practical terms.

In terms of the level of manager considered in a study of managerial work, the concern of this study was to be broadly comparable with previous studies conducted in this area, particularly Mintzberg (1973), in investigating the work of executive managers. As a result of this decision, certain theoretical perspectives become relevant, of which perhaps the most important is Upper Echelons Theory. This perspective is generally credited to Hambrick and Mason (1984), who themselves built on the work of March & Simon (1958) and Cyert and March (1963, both cited in Balta, 2008). According to this theory, senior executives are never wholly rational decision makers, and their work is influenced by the experiences they have had, the values they have developed and the personalities they have formed as a result of a combination of the first two factors. Furthermore, the theory holds that to some extent the nature of an organisation is a reflection of the personalities of the top executives leading it (Finkelstein and Hambrick, 1996, cited in Balta, 2008, p. 6). Therefore, the demographic information collected on executives when observing their managerial work becomes more relevant, and can, according to Knight et al. (1999 cited in Balta, 2008, p. 447), be used "as proxy measures of executive orientation". However, this is not to assume that managers are solely a product of the culture they are raised in, nor that an individual's personality is only shaped by culture; moreover, in most large organisations today there are a range of individuals from different cultural backgrounds and each individual may have a number of influences, domestic and foreign, that have formed his/her personality.

2.2 Classical Management Theory

Research on managerial work can be traced from the beginning of the twentieth century. During this long journey, it has gone through continuous development. The classical school of management categorised the work of managers as a "set of composite functions" (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 9). In this sense, classical theories are descriptive and concerned with what managers should do more than what they actually do (Gadsden, 2000). However, Carroll & Gillen (1987) claim that several empirical studies focusing on the classical managerial functions have investigated the time that managers spend on these functions. They also mention that a number of empirical studies "have gone beyond the recording of observable activities to show that managers at all levels participate in planning, coordination, control, and problem solving activities (Carroll & Gillen, 1987, p. 40).

Following the rationalisation of the elements of a modern industrial society in Classical Economics, theorists such as Taylor (1911) postulated a correlation between an improvement in management performance and an improvement in productivity (cited in Matthaei, 2010). Taylor devised an approach which he called 'Scientific Management', which claimed that for each task in a process of productivity there was an ideal way of performing this task, and that if managers directed workers to follow these ideal ways then productivity must necessarily rise. Subsequently, one of the most influential contributions to the management field in general and to the classical school was Fayol's (1916 [1949]) book; titled: *General and Industrial Management*. Fayol (1916 [1949]), who is known as the founding father of the classical school of management, developed one of the best known sets of management functions. He identified five managerial functions: planning; organising; coordinating; controlling; and commanding. Furthermore, Fayol's (1916 [1949]) contributions management theory also includes his classifications of organisations' activities into six groups: technical activities, commercial activities, financial activities, security activities, accounting activities, and managerial activities (Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

Building on Fayol's (1916 [1949]) work, Gulick and Urwick (1937) identified seven key management functions, they were: planning; organizing; staffing; directing; coordinating; reporting; and budgeting. These seven managerial functions (widely known as POSDCORB) were considered for long time as the basis of management research (Gadsden, 2000).

The classical school of management has encountered considerable criticism from contemporary management researchers (e.g. Mintzberg, 1973; Kotter, 1982; Stewart, 1976, 1984, 1997); for example, Stewart (1984) observes that if a manager is constantly obliged to redirect his or her attention to new tasks or demands, there is little likelihood that a logical pattern will emerge from their work or that time will be available to undertake the strategic thinking that is necessary for effective planning. Managerial work can therefore be thought of a primarily responsive rather than analytical, and Stewart (1984) questions the realism of the picture of managerial work envisaged by Fayol (1916 [1949]) and those he influenced.

Furthermore, Mintzberg (1973) criticised the functional approach for focusing on management ideals while presenting little evidence of how these contribute to specific organisational goals. However, Carroll & Gillen (1987) argue that

> The classical functions still represent the most useful way of conceptualizing the manager's job, especially for management education, and perhaps this is why it is still the most favoured description of managerial work in current management textbooks. The classical functions provide clear and discrete methods of classifying the thousands of different activities that managers carry out and the techniques they use in terms of the functions they perform for the achievement of organizational goals (p. 48).

However, more recently there has been criticism of Classical Management Theory on the grounds that it is too descriptive and prescriptive in its approach. At its heart is an assumption that managers are rational individuals who act in predictable, logical ways in response to the various stimuli that they encounter

in an average working day. Tengblad (2012) characterises this assumption as 'the rationalistic fallacy' and argues that managerial work is actually much more demanding, chaotic and affected by emotion than many theorist take account of. He suggests that the notion of "sequential and deliberate managerial control" (p.4) that is presented as the basis of many models and theories of management practice are fantasies that are quickly demolished in the face of the day-to-day reality of managerial work. Tengblad (2012) cites Kaulio (2008) as a researcher who has found a wide disparity between the rationalistic assumptions of Classical Management Theory and the reality of managerial work, suggesting that Kaulio's (2008) research into the challenges facing project managers include an "urgent need to focus on human issues, to reshape their projects in terms of emerging circumstances, to defend and promote their projects in a politicized milieu" (quoted in Tengblad, 2012, p. 6).

Dissatisfaction with the logical certainties of Classical Management Theory has been prevalent for some time; as researchers began to examine the work of managers, and particularly senior executives, it became clear to many that what they were observing on a daily basis and what managers were being told they should do were widely dissimilar (Mintzberg, 1973). In particular, there was a tendency within this approach to separate the work of managers into planning and decision making tasks on the one hand, and activities that are based on rational strategies derived from the planning/decision making tasks on the other (Matthaei, 2010). This ideal approach to management has been rejected by many researchers into the nature of managerial work, who see it as a false dualism; constraints of time, overlapping and conflicting demands and the vagaries of human nature make purely rational management impossible, and as Mintzberg (1973) observes, as organisations become ever more complex, so the role of executives becomes more fragmented and disparate, so that a manager "is driven to brevity, fragmentation, and superficiality in his tasks, yet he cannot easily delegate them because of the nature of his information" (p. 173). For the senior executive, the range of information available to him/her is much wider than subordinates see; therefore, the extent to which tasks or decisions that are dependent on information can be delegated is very limited. In the field of management research, the revelation that the work being undertaken by

managers bore only a tenuous relationship with the patterns of work prescribed in management schools led to a movement designed to more closely observe and attempt to categorise the work that was observable in real offices and factories around the world; this research came to be known as 'work activity theory'.

2.3 Work Activity Theory

Work Activity Theory arose out of a conviction among management researchers that the normative models being taught to young managers in their education and training bore little resemblance to and were little help in the work they undertook once they started managing in their organisations. These researchers therefore sought to change focus from telling managers what they ought to be doing to observing what they were actually doing, by recording and categorising the real nature of managerial work (Matthaei, 2010). For example, Work Activity theorists were interested in such information as the time managers spent on observed activities (in hours and as a proportion of their total time), type and purpose of activity, size and length of meetings, attendees at meetings, and the initiator of meetings or activities. As research of this kind developed the data collected began to be connected to contextual factors, such as the age, gender, educational background and specialism of the managers being observed, so that the work undertaken could be appreciated in the context in which it was undertaken – this was the development of a theory to fit alongside the data on management activity being collected (Matthaei, 2010).

Amongst researchers working within the Work Activity Theory there was a developing awareness that the function-based approach of Classical Management Theory was based on a deductive method that did not fully account for the fluidity of managerial work (Barnard, 1938; Drucker, 1954 cited in Matthaei, 2010); fundamentally, the classical approach developed theory, taught managers to apply it and then sought to measure the effects. Researchers such as Mintzberg (1973) perceived that an inductive approach was more appropriate, with emergent theory being based on a close observation of real managerial work combined with knowledge of the manager's personal characteristics and

the environment in which they function. Implicit in this approach was an appreciation that managers may not always work rationally, that decision making may not always be logical and that what managers do may be influenced by a number of (possible conflicting) factors including their personality, background, responsibilities and relationships (Kotter, 1982), which in turn may be affected by social, cultural, economic and legal-political forces outside the control of the organisation for which the manager works. In order to understand the contribution of Work Activity Theory to the field of research into managerial research, it is necessary to present and discuss some of the most influential studies conducted below.

During a four-week study and by using a diary method of study, Carlson (1951) – a Swedish scholar - studied the work behaviour of ten managing directors (CEOs). The directors were asked to fill in time diaries to record their daily activities; these diaries detailed where and when they worked and with what and whom they worked. In addition, the directors' telephone calls as well as incoming and outgoing mail were recorded by their secretaries. Carlson's study resulted in several important findings. Some of these findings were: the directors were working long hours; had a small amount of time working alone; had limited control and design of their work day; had little time for inspecting and overseeing their functions; and very little time for reading or for contemplation. Carlson's (1951) work has been subject to criticism as being "more concerned with general speculations regarding the functions of the executives than with the actual description of their work" (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 23). However, he was one of the few researchers to recognise the influence of the external environment on the managerial role (Phillips, 1993). As Carlson's (1951) study indicated that executive behaviour did not match what could be expected when looking at available management theory, the study was followed by several investigations of managerial behaviour in different settings during the 1950s and 1960s.

Burns' (1954) study was the first British study to be undertaken using the diary method in investigating the work of managers (Gadsden, 2000). This study was a pilot study of four middle managers conducted in order to study the time spent

on various activities, including where and with whom those managers interacted. An additional time study was undertaken in 1957 and "two of Burns' main findings were to be verified in virtually all of the subsequent studies - a high proportion of time spent in conversation and much horizontal and lateral communication" (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 204). This study of Burns was expanded to cover 76 middle and senior managers, who kept diaries of their activities similar to that of Carlson (1951), which chiefly dealt with different communications patterns shown by managers in different companies. Noticeably, the findings of the two studies of Burns and Carlson (1951) were similar in that both groups of managers spent long hours at work, and most of the time was spent in discussion with others.

Dalton's *Men Who Manage* (1959) was a differentiated step in researching managerial work in the 1950s. Dalton's (1959) research was remarkable because it focused on the unofficial side of managerial work whereas, at that time, research predominantly concentrated on the rational and formal aspects. Dalton (1959) provides an extensive picture of a variety of informal activities, mentioning power conflicts amongst 'cliques attempting to secure or defend resources, the informal 'interpretation', negotiation and 'implementation' of corporate policy at local level, the 'conflict-in-co-operation' between line and staff, the informal reward system and the informal influences upon career and promotions' (Hales, 1986, p. 99). Among the unofficial influences that Dalton (1959) identified as having an effect on promotions and careers were factors such as; managers' ethnicity, religion, club memberships, and political affiliations. Thus, in an American context, managers' private lives were found to impinge upon their work roles and prospects, and their individual talents as managers merged with considerations of who they were and what their role was in society, which Dalton (1959) considered to form a highly complex 'web of commitments' and 'workable arrangements' at work (cited in Tengblad, 2012).

In his book *Managerial Behaviour* (1964), Sayles noted a new management challenge that had appeared at that time. Sayles's (1964) writing was one of the early studies that proposed the notion that a manager had to fulfil a diverse range of managerial activities and interactions in order to be effective in a

complex environment. There are important implications to this perception of management as being fundamentally an interactive and interpersonal process, which include; firstly, Sayles (1964) demonstrated that planning and decision-making were activities that managers undertook insulated from their social context, and they were not exclusively managerial, but also likely to have been influenced and shaped by interaction with other individuals in the organisation and/or stakeholders outside it. Secondly, there is a web of interpersonal relationships that bind the organisation together, and it is these rather than the organisation's rules, standards, and procedures that determine managerial outcomes. Third, managers typically perceive that since the organisation's guiding policies are always imperfect, they have the latitude in some circumstances to act in their own interests (Tengblad, 2012). Stewart (1999 cited in Matthaei, 2010) observes that Sayles' work has not been widely influential and criticises it for not being easily replicated, noting that it is not popular with subsequent researchers because "its methods were not described and its findings do not lend themselves so easily to quantification in later studies; perhaps also because it describes a more complex picture and is less assertive about the findings" (p. 19).

Stewart (1982) conducted further research into managerial work and one of her most essential contributions in studying the work of managers was, perhaps, her model of demands, constraints, and choices for understanding managerial jobs and behaviour. According to Stewart (1982, p. 9), the model "can be pictured as consisting of an inner core of demands, an outer boundary of constraints, and in-between area of choices". Managers are therefore obliged to mediate between the demands and constraints of their organisation and job role, in order to make the choices that will meet organisational needs and further their own interests. Table 2.1 illustrates these demands, constraints, and choices as described by Stewart in 1982; however, it is noteworthy that Stewart (1982) mainly confines herself to detailing constraints and demands particular to the organisation's internal environment, or to organisation-specific external constraints such as trade unions and technological limitations. While it could be argued that Stewart (1982) does not give sufficient weight to the wider impact of the external environment, the thesis she proposes of managerial work consisting of a

continuous balancing act between organisational demands and constraints represents a persuasive explanation of how managers act and take decisions. Moreover, organisations do not operate in a vacuum; they exist in national and trans-national contexts with diverse cultural, economic and political-legal characteristics. Therefore, if the nature of managerial work can be seen as consisting of managers being required to balance competing forces, it is necessary to investigate and categorise these forces in a particular research context.

Table 2.1 Jobs, Demands, Constraints, and Choices

Summary of different kinds of demands, constraints, and choices in managerial jobs	
Demands	- Overall meeting of minimum criteria of performance - Doing certain kinds of work. Such work is determined by: The extent to which personal involvement is required in the unit's work; Who must be contacted and the difficulty of the work relationship; Contacts' power to enforce their expectations; Bureaucratic procedures that cannot be ignored or delegated; Meetings that must be attended.
Constraints	- Resource limitation - Legal and trade union constraints - Technological limitations - Physical location - Organisational, especially extent to which the work of the manager's unit is defined - Attitudes of other people to: Changes in the system, procedures, organisation; Pay and conditions; Changes in the goods or services produced; Work outside the unit.
Choices	- How the work is done - What work is done - Choices within a defined area: To emphasise certain aspects of the job; To select some tasks and to ignore or delegate others. - Choices in boundary management - Choices to change the area of work: To change the unit's domain; To develop a personal domain; To become an expert; To share work, especially with colleagues; To take part in organisational and public activities.

Source: Stewart (1982, p. 11)

An important contribution to the Work Activities Theory was made by Kotter, in particular through his book *The General Manager* (1982). Kotter observed the behaviour of a group of successful senior executives in a range of different organisations between 1976 and 1981, seeking to identify what tasks or activities managers undertook to achieve their aims. By giving himself the time and opportunity to observe managers in detail and at length Kotter was able to report what actually happened in a typical working day, and from these observations sought to draw conclusions about what makes managers successful. Kotter's findings stress the essentially social nature of managerial work (Gadsden, 2000); he observed that managers spend much of their time building alliances and networks of contacts through which they seek to influence events using persuasion and deal-making (Kotter, 1982). His research identifies that while the managers observed rarely appeared to make decisions or give orders, they devoted a great deal of time to persuading and convincing others of a point of view or course of action (Gadsden, 2000). Consequently, Kotter (1982) proposes that while the disparate and seemingly unconnected activities of a manager's day might seem unplanned and largely reactive, in successful managers there is an inter-connectedness that shapes all activities to the achievement of certain pre-determined aims (Phillips, 1993, p.166). Moreover, managers who wish to be successful need to take account of the environment in which they operate, and to shape their activities to the demands the environment places on them; as Matthaei (2010, p. 68) states

> Kotter's approach to job demands can be understood to be twofold: it is
> - Driven by a job-based view (responsibilities and relationships) and
> - Influenced by a context based view (organization and business).

Matthaei's (2010) employment of the word 'business' in the passage above can be taken to mean the whole business environment in which an organisation operates, including competitors, suppliers, and markets. However, other researchers go further and widen the contextual perspective of the environment in which managers operate to include the whole of the society the organisation operates within. In fact, Phillips (1993) suggests that in seeking to explain how the seemingly unconnected activities of managers are actually part of a pattern of behaviour, Kotter acknowledges that it is not only the organisational

environment that has an influence on the demands faced by managers, but also the impact of society.

Mintzberg (1973) in his seminal study on the nature of managerial work (based on structured observation) observed and studied five chief executives for one week each in order to answer the question of "what do managers do?" Some researchers have criticised the study for basing its findings on so small a sample (e.g. Gadsden, 2000; Chareanpunsirikul and Wood, 2002); however, other researchers have conducted similar studies with similar and larger samples and obtained similar results to those of Mintzberg (1973) (e.g. Kurke & Aldrich, 1983; Chareanpunsirikul and Wood, 2002; Tengblad, 2006). Similarities were found to exist in the work of these five managers, allowing six sets of characteristics of managerial work to be identified.

First of all, a great quantity of the managers' work proceeds at an unrelenting pace. Second, managerial activity is characterised by variety, fragmentation, and brevity. However, the study did not identify any patterns in the executives' activities. Moreover, he argued that the manager must be prepared to shift moods quickly and frequently. Mintzberg (1973) noted that "half of the observed activities were completed in less than nine minutes, and only one-tenth took more than an hour" (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 33). What is noteworthy here is that "there was evidence that (the executives) chose not to free themselves of interruption or to give themselves much free time. To a large extent, it was the chief executives themselves who determined the duration of their activities" (p. 34). Third, executives preferred issues that were current, specific, ad hoc and non-routine, which indicated to Mintzberg that "the classic view of the manager as a planner is not in accord with reality" (p. 37). Fourth, managers were found to be attracted to the verbal media of communication. The manager, according to Mintzberg, used five basic media: mail, telephone, unscheduled meetings, scheduled meetings, and tour. Fifth, managers maintained communication relationships with superiors, outsiders and subordinates and maintained a network of contacts with people outside their organisation. They sat between their organisations and its networks of contacts. Sixth, a manager's job reflected a blend of duties and rights.

Mintzberg in his study to know what the manager really does, summarised the manager's work and behaviour into a set of ten managerial roles. These roles can be grouped into three behavioural categories: interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decisional roles. Each category as well as each role is described below.

Table 2.2 Interpersonal Roles

Roles	Description	Identifiable Activities
Figurehead	Symbolic head: obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature	Ceremony, status request, solicitation
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties	Virtually all managerial activities involving subordinates
Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informs who provide favours and information	Acknowledgements of mail; external board work; other activities involving outsiders

Source: Mintzberg, 1973, p. 92.

Table 2.3 Informational Roles

Roles	Description	Identifiable Activities
Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organisation and environment; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information of the organisation	Handing all mail and contacts categorised as concerned primarily with receiving information (e.g. periodical news, observational tours
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from subordinates to members of the organisation; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of value diverse positions of organisational influencers	Forwarding mail into organisation for informational purposes, verbal contacts, information flow to subordinates (e.g. review sessions, instant communication flows)
Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organisation's plan policies, actions, results, etc; serves expert on organisation's industry	Board meeting; handing mail and contacts involving transmission of information to outsiders

Source: Mintzberg, 1973, p. 92-93.

Table 2.4 Decisional Roles

Roles	Description	Identifiable Activities
Entrepreneur	Searches organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates improvement projects to bring about change; supervises design of certain projects as well	Strategy and review sessions involving initiation or design of improvement projects
Disturbance Handler	Responsible for corrective action when organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances	Strategy and review sessions involving disturbances and crises
Resource Allocator	Responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds – in effect the making or approval of all significant organisational decisions	Scheduling; requests for authorisation; any activity involving budgeting and the programming of subordinates' work
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations	Negotiations

Source: Mintzberg, 1973, p. 93.

The three categories as well as the ten roles are connected together as shown in Figure 2.1 below. Mintzberg (1973) mentions that these roles are not segmented or isolated roles. In Mintzberg's (1973) work roles model, the interpersonal roles are derived from formal authority and status, which leads to access to information, and decisional roles are built from informational roles.

Figure 2.1: Mintzberg's Managerial Work Roles Model

Formal Authority and Status

Interpersonal Roles:
Figurehead, Leader, and Liaison

Informational Roles:
Monitor, Disseminator, and Spokesman

Decisional Roles:
Entrepreneur, Disturbance Handler, Resource Allocator, and Negotiator
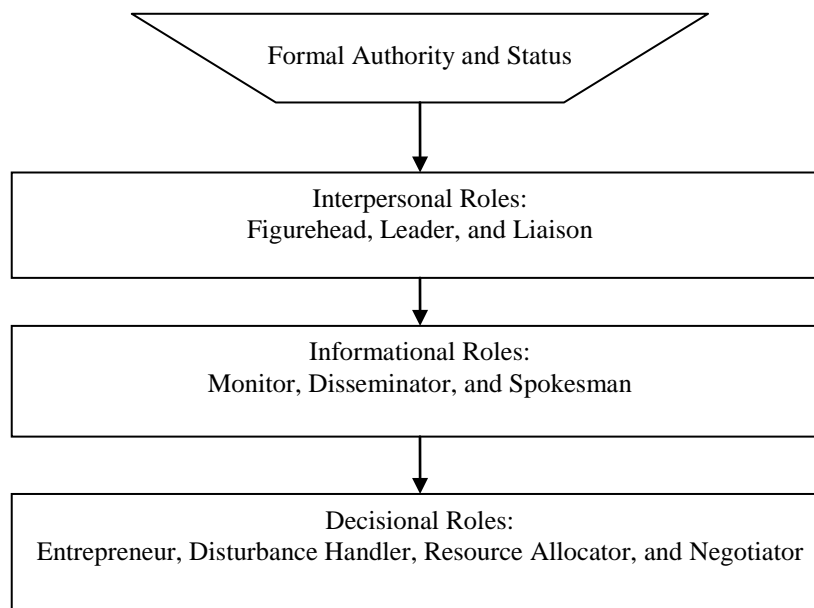
Source: Mintzberg (1973, p. 59)

Mintzberg's (1973) work created a great deal of discussion in the field of management studies but it was not until the early 1980s that an attempt was made to replicate his methods in order to compare findings (Needle, 2010). Kurke and Aldrich (1983) attempted to follow structured observation method with a set of executives in a similar setting to Mintzberg's but in a different region. Their study found an almost identical set of results and initially Kurke and Aldrich (1983) were so convinced of the value of Mintzberg's (1973) method that they entitled the publication of their own study *Mintzberg was Right!* (1983). However, following publication they were subjected to some significant criticism by fellow researchers, who claimed that amongst other weaknesses they had failed to consider the classification of managerial work in terms of the validity and usefulness of Mintzberg's ten work role activities (Phillips, 1993). Subsequently Kurke and Aldrich softened their support for Mintzberg and conceded that while they had been able to replicate results in most particulars, "they were unable to use Mintzberg's definitions of the ten roles and three broad categories of management to code their data because of the ambiguous manner in which some of the roles were defined" (Lubatkin et al., 1997, p. 715). The debate over the validity of Kurke and Aldrich's (1983) attempt to replicate Mintzberg's (1973) study ten years later suggests that when methodologies are closely replicated similar results can be found, but also that each researcher has a conception of what their own research means that may be culturally as well as intellectually bound.

Tengblad (2006) made another attempt to replicate Mintzberg's (1973) work with observations of four executives in a Sweden. In eight of Mintzberg's 13 propositions Tengblad's (2006) findings were very similar; however, in terms of work roles he observed some differences from the roles identified by Mintzberg (1973). For example, the executives he observed travelled more, were involved in more and longer meetings, and spent more time with subordinates communicating strategy. He felt these changes were partly attributable to cultural differences between the USA and Sweden, but mostly cited a change in the nature of business, with a much more international focus than existed in 1973 and a greater degree of decentralisation (Needle, 2010). However, other researchers working in environments more culturally diverse from the US

context have found a greater degree of dissimilarity in their findings; for example, Zabid (1987) found that the work roles of Malaysian managers could be categorized into 15 roles and three main categories: internal; external; and internal-external. Zabid (1987) concluded that roles identified by Mintzberg (1973) and others who have followed his method are only generalizeable to a limited extent and that this extent narrows when the nature of the organisation is very different and when the national context it is situated in varies significantly from Mintzberg's US milieu (Matthaei, 2010). Moreover, Luthans (1988) argues that while classifications such as those of Mintzberg and Stewart help researchers to understand what it is that managers do, they do not explain how it can be done better. Given that even the nature of work seems to vary considerably across organisations and particularly across national contexts, it is important that the impact of national culture and environment is included in a consideration of managerial work (Needle, 2010).

In 2009 Mintzberg returned to the issues considered in his 1973 work in the publication entitled *Managing.* Drawing on single-day observations of 29 managers from a wide range of different organisations Mintzberg concludes that the nature of managerial work is "highly complex, fragmented, hectic, and often chaotic" (Tengblad, 2012, p. 37) and is critical of the duality often proposed in management books between leadership and management. Mintzberg (2009) suggests that while this distinction is easy to make in theory, it is much more difficult to identify in practical situations, where a researcher is required to classify a decision or an activity as being either leadership or management (Tengblad, 2012).

Mintzberg's (1973) influence on the study of managerial work roles continues and can be seen in the work of researchers such as Matthaei (2010) in his book *The Nature of Executive Work.* Matthaei concerns himself with the study of senior managers and with answering the questions: *What does the executive do today? What perceived factors influence executive work? What new directions and underlying nature can be proposed about executive work?* His study offers little support for the notion of the stability of the nature of top managerial work; in fact, Matthaei (2010) proposes that managerial work at the most senior levels

is becoming even more intensive and chaotic than Mintzberg (1973) found, and that factors from the external environment are contributing to this, particularly technology. Managers now have access to so much information (and are available to be contacted at all times) thanks to technology (Tengblad, 2012); as a result, the nature of the managerial roles they undertake is changing, and there is a greater emphasis on consultation as a means of developing coherent pictures from the range of opinions and data that surround managers.

The work of Watson (1994; revised in 2001) in studying managerial work at one UK based company in the early 1990s offers further reflection on the relationship between the nature of managerial work as it was envisaged by the 'classical school' of managerial work (e.g. Fayol, 1916 [1949]; Gulick, 1937) and subsequent researchers who have focused on what managers actually do (e.g. Carlson, 1951; Mintzberg, 1973; Stewart, 1976; Kotter, 1982). Watson (2001) criticises the rejection of the classification of managerial functions offered by the classical school, arguing that they still provide a valuable template for understanding managerial activity (Needle, 2010) while also acknowledging that when observed, managerial work is altogether more hectic and complicated than a set of clearly defined work roles would suggest. Like previous researchers who have used observations as their primary research tool Watson (2001) was concerned to capture the reality of managerial work and the multitude of factors and issues with which managers have to contend. He contends that the manager's chief concerns are the protection of his/her own position and interests and those of the organisation, while also situating management as a social role, since managers cannot achieve their goals without assistance and cooperation. Moreover, Watson (2001) goes further with this line of thinking, suggesting that managerial roles are shaped by the interactions between individuals and groups that result from their "need to cope with environmental challenges" (quoted in Tengblad, 2012, p. 35), suggesting that managers can only function effectively if their networks of support and assistance are strong.

2.4 Overview of the Findings of Managerial Work and Behaviour Research

Hales (1986) is somewhat critical of research into managerial work that relies upon observation or the interrogation of work activities through research such as minute examination of executives' diaries. He feels that examining the daily work of managers researchers using Work Activities Theory have been too quick to dismiss the work functions identified by classical researchers such as Fayol (1916 [1949]). Given the passage of time these functions would require a reclassification; therefore, he conducted a thorough review of the literature on managerial work and was critical of the lack of real, comprehensive evidence on what it is that managers do (Needle, 2010).

 Hales (1986), after his critical review of the evidence regarding studies about managers' work activities during the period (1900-1986), expressed the essence of what managers do as follows: Acting as a figurehead and leader of an organisational unit; Liaison, i.e. the formation and maintenance of contacts; Monitoring, filtering and disseminating information; Allocating resources; Handling disturbances and maintaining work flows; Negotiating; Innovating; Planning; Controlling and directing subordinates. In a more recent examination, Hales (1999) identifies two additional activities that all managers to varying degrees engage in, namely, human resource management (in the form of recruitment, selection, training and appraisal) and technical work (relating to the managers' professional or functional specialties and the work of their units).

Hales (1986, p. 104; 2001, p. 50-51) summarised the whole evidence of managerial work as being characterised by specialist/professional elements as well as general 'managerial' elements. The essential elements include liaison, man management and responsibility for work processes. The characters of work elements are different in terms of their duration, frequency, unexpectedness and source. A lot of time is spent in day-to-day troubleshooting and responding to ad hoc problems of organisation and regulation, and involves verbal face-to-face communication of limited duration. Patterns of communication differ according to what the subject of communication and with whom it is made. In terms of the

time that is spent on one particular activity, it tends to be little; planning as well as decision-making seems to be conducted during the course of other activities. Hales suggested that the manager spent a considerable amount of time accounting for and explaining what s/he does, and in informal relationships, while much managerial work involves coping with and reconciling both social and technical conflict. As such, there is substantial choice in terms of what is done and how in regard to the work of managers.

In more recent summarising, Tengblad (2012) summed up the findings of managerial work and behaviour research (1951-2010) and concluded:

- Managerial work is generally very demanding with intense time pressures and heavy workload.
- Managerial work is varied, complex, and often conducted in a rather fragmented manner (especially close to the 'ground level').
- Work outcomes in managerial work are often uncertain and difficult to measure because of the frequent open-endedness of such work.
- Managers mostly work though verbal interactions in different kinds of meeting with subordinates, colleagues, superiors, and outsiders.
- Because of environmental pressures and ambiguity, managerial work is often more about 'looking good' than 'doing right' since many activities are of a symbolic character. The most successful managers master the informal, symbolic, and emotional aspects of managerial work as well as the formal administrative procedures.
- Managers, despite being trained to work deliberately and systematically according to 'textbook models', typically work much more intuitively and inductively. They often need to prioritise on the spot between several ongoing tasks and problems, relying heavily on their own work experience and on intuition.
- Rational management models may help managers work in a more structured way, but these models are often poorly adapted to practical work situations.

2.5 Cultural Theories

2.5.1 Key Issues

In cross-cultural management studies, there is an emphasis on the important role of environmental variables in general and those related to the socio-cultural environment in particular on the organisations' effectiveness within a given culture and across cultures (Iguisi, 2009). Deresky (2011) offers the following observation of the influence of national culture on workplaces within individual societies:

> the culture of a society comprises the shared values, understandings, assumptions, and goals that are passed down through generations and imposed by members of the society. These unique sets of cultural and national differences strongly influence the attitudes and expectations and therefore the on-the-job behavior of individuals and groups (p. 132).

In attempting to understand and assess the influence of national culture on an element of economic activity such as managerial work, two contrasting approaches have emerged (Needle, 2010). According to Koen (2005) these two approaches could be described as the opposing concepts of universalistic theories and particularistic theories. In a universalistic theory it is assumed that conclusions about the nature of managerial work apply to managers in all national contexts, regardless of cultural influence; these theories might be described a 'culture free' (Needle, 2010). Conversely, particularistic theories assume that practice (such as managerial work) in national contexts is rooted in national culture and strongly influenced by the mores and traditions of the society in which it is situated – such theories are 'culture specific' (Needle, 2010). In terms of theories regarding the nature of managerial work, it could be argued that Mintzberg (1973) is a universalistic theorist and Hofstede (1980) is a particularistic theorist.

Needle (2010, p.135) built on the conceptual model of universalistic and particularistic theories by suggesting a 'convergence/divergence model', which outlines the forces considered by some researchers to be forcing managerial practices to converge, and those held by other researchers to be keeping practices separate. In the former category are forces such as globalisation and technology, which bring about convergence in areas such as strategy, product design and organisational structure. In terms of divergence, the forces acting in this direction include historical development, institutional frameworks and cultural norms. In terms of the relevance of Needle's (2010) model to an investigation of managerial work in a specific context, a researcher needs to be aware that the forces of convergence and diversity may be working simultaneously, and that their relative effect may differ across nations.

2.5.2 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Although there are many of cross-culture studies that investigate the relationship between culture and management, the most referenced is perhaps that of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) study (Iguisi, 2009). To a large extent, Hofstede's (1980) study has been the benchmark for the subsequent research related to cross-cultures issues. The four dimensions of culture that Hofstede's (1980) created has been of particular influence in the study of cross-cultural management, and is relevant to the current research as a part of its investigation regarding the universality of managers' work activity across cultures.

Hofstede's (1980) study consisted of more than 100,000 attitude survey questionnaires carried out at IBM between 1967 and 1973. The survey aimed to measure cultural variables in order to discover the extent to which business activities could be considered as culturally defined (Needle, 2010). From his seminal work, Hofstede's (1980) created four value dimensions, namely; individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity. Hundred of cross-cultural studies were conducted following Hofstede's (1980) work aimed to replicate, extend or refute as well as to compare leadership differences/similarities using these dimensions as the basis (Jackson and Parry, 2011).

2.5.2.1 Power Distance

This dimension, according to Hofstede (1980), can be defined as the extent to which members of a society accept that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally. It is connected to human inequality matters and based on the hierarchical boss-subordinate relationship in a given group/society (Hofstede 1980). Within any given society, there is inequality between its members, which could be based upon physical, intellectual, economic or social characteristics (Needle, 2010). In high power distance societies such as France, Mexico and Hong Kong, the authoritarian leadership is more likely to be expected and accepted (Jackson and Parry, 2011). In discussing the dimension of power distance, it may be worthwhile mentioning to the question of whether status in a particular culture can be accorded based on what people have achieved (an achievement-oriented culture) or based on the individual which the case in an ascribing society (Jackson and Parry, 2011). Jackson and Parry (2011) exemplify this point; they note:

> Within many of the Pacific Islands we can see the tension between ascribed and achievement-oriented norms manifests itself in the frustration that many formally educated younger leaders feel. They are anxious to be given the opportunity to lead so that they can apply their new-found knowledge and skills, yet have to defer to the traditional ascribed leadership of the tribal chiefs and elders (p. 79).

2.5.2.2 Uncertainty Avoidance

This dimension can be seen as the extent to which people of a given society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty (Needle, 2010). In other words, it "describes a society's reliance on social norms and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of the future" (Jackson and Parry, 2011, p. 79). People in countries characterised by strong uncertainty avoidance, such as Argentina and Japan, are concerned about security in life and feel threatened by ambiguity. They therefore adhere to strict laws and rules to avoid or minimise such situations. Within the work organisations that belong to this type of culture,

uncertainty avoidance will be reflected in the establishment of formal rules (Jackson and Parry, 2011) and detailed decision-making procedures (Needle, 2010). A manager in a given society that is characterised by weak uncertainty avoidance, such as USA and Thailand, by contrast, has to be more flexible and willing to accept ideas as well as to champion change with relaxed attitude to organisational rules and regulations.

2.5.2.3 Individualism/Collectivism

According to Hofstede (1980), individualistic societies such as Canada, the US, and the UK expect individuals to look after themselves and take care of their own interests and those of their immediate families only. Collectivistic societies, on the other hand, are characterised by a tight social framework in which people are members of groups who are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty. Collectivist cultures "show concern for much wider group and emphasise belongingness, which can extend to organizations" (Needle, 2010, p. 143). Examples of collectivistic countries are Latin America nations. Leaders in collectivist cultures are expected to play a major role in protecting and maintaining the interests of their followers, who are typically a closely defined 'in-group', while by contrast followers are expected to tolerate the leader who takes care of his/her own interests in individualist cultures (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Schwartz (1999) described these differences in terms of autonomy; for example, members of collectivist and individualistic cultures have different expectations of the degree of autonomy leaders will permit them. In individualistic cultures individuals expect to be given intellectual freedom (free thought) and the freedom to maximise their own potential through economic activity; they therefore require leaders who will provide this freedom to operate and in return tolerate a degree of self-interest in the leader. Members of more collectivist society expect to be more embedded in groups, and to have their interests protected by a leader who provides an environment of continuity and cohesion. In return they are prepared to tolerate leaders who constrain their followers' personal freedoms in the interests of the group. It is therefore entirely possible that within organisations operating in collectivist or individualistic societies, employees will adopt a similar attitude to their managers as they do to their national leaders.

2.5.2.4 Masculinity/Femininity

Broadly speaking, this dimension is concerned with the distribution of roles between the sexes. Hofstede (1980) argues that masculine societies have a tendency to display a preference for achievement, the virtues of assertiveness, money and material success. In feminine societies, on the other hand, the dominant social values stressed warm social relationship, caring for others and the quality of life.

Based on substantial criticism of his work, Hofstede later added a fifth dimension to his framework, particularly as a response to the work of Bond and colleagues (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). Essentially, much criticism centred on the failure of Hofstede's dimensions to account for anomalous behaviour amongst individuals and groups within societies (Jackson and Parry, 2011), and as a result Hofstede returned to his data and developed a new dimension that he called long-term versus short-term orientation. Hofstede (1991, pp. 261-263) refers to this dimension as concerned with the difference between societies that are concerned with the "fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift", which he describes as a long-term orientation, and societies that are more concerned with "the fostering of virtues related to the past and present, in particular respect for tradition, preservation of 'face', and fulfilling social obligations", which have a short-term orientation. However, this dimension is not included in table 2.5 below because there was insufficient data for it from Arab countries.

Table 2.5: Index Scores and Ranks of Hofstede's dimensions for Selected Countries and Regions

Country/ Regions	Power Distance		Uncertainty Avoidance		Individualism/ Collectivism		Masculinity Femininity	
	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank
France	68	15-16	86	10-15	71	10-11	43	35-36
Great Britain	35	42-44	35	47-48	89	3	66	9-10
Italy	50	34	75	23	76	7	70	4-5
Turkey	66	18-19	85	16-17	37	28	45	32-33
United States	40	38	46	43	91	1	62	15
Arab countries*	80	7	68	27	38	26-27	53	23

Source: Hofstede (2001), p. 500.
* Egypt, Lebanon, Libya, Kuwait, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Republic.

Criticism of Hofstede

As well as inspiring a huge amount of similar research in the field of national culture, Hofstede's work has faced considerable criticism over the years since its initial publication. These criticisms address both empirical and methodological issues (Koen, 2005). In particular, Hunt (1981) questions whether the characteristics of national cultures can be deduced from the responses of employees of only one company, which is itself a multi-national enterprise. Furthermore, the original survey used by Hofstede to extract his dimensions from was not specifically designed for the task of identifying cultural dimensions, and therefore is questioned for its face validity, with Koen (2005) describing it as a example of 'survey archaeology'. Moreover, Hofstede's sample is disproportionately male and can be regarded as atypical due to the recruitment requirements of a company like IBM (Koen, 2005).

Perhaps Hofstede's most persistent critic has been McSweeney (2002), who raised many of the concerns later taken up by Koen (2005) and furthermore questions how Hofstede's data can be capable of describing an entire national culture while being divorced from any other conceptual context to support its findings (for example, the addition of any qualitative data). McSweeney (2002) also regards the dimensions that Hofstede (1980) produced as snapshots of a particular time and likely to be outdated within a very short period. He cites the examples of Yugoslavia, and questions whether, after the break-up of that country and its division into separate states, the findings that Hofstede attributed

to Yugoslavia can be considered relevant to two counties as culturally diverse as Serbia and Slovenia; he makes a similar charge with regard to Hong Kong and mainland China. However, in this regard, subsequent research has suggested that cultural change happens only slowly, in that later studies have found very similar results to Hofstede even when conducted some years later (e.g. Barkeme and Vermulen, 1997; Hoppe, 1990 cited in Koen, 2005). Hofstede (2002 cited in Jackson and Parry, 2011) has defended his methodology on the grounds that while his sample is atypical of total national populations this does not invalidate his results as long as the sample in each country surveyed is similarly atypical, thereby making a virtue of the rigidity of IBM's selection process. He also questions McSweeney's credentials as a data analyst of large-scale survey information and dismisses him as an accountant attempting to understand anthropological issues (Jackson and Parry, 2011).

2.5.3 The GLOBE Study

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness research programme (GLOBE) is a cross cultural research project based on data collected from sixty-two cultures – Table 2.6 below shows the 62 GLOBE societies. The project focused on middle managers and between 1994 and 1997 data were collected from 17,300 participants based in a total of 951 firms.

Table 2.6: The 62 GLOBE Societies

No.	Society	No.	Society	No.	Society
1.	Albania	22.	Greece	43.	Poland
2.	Argentina	23.	Guatemala	44.	Portugal
3.	Australia	24.	Hong Kong	45.	Qatar
4.	Austria	25.	Hungary	46.	Russia
5.	Bolivia	26.	India	47.	Singapore
6.	Brazil	27.	Indonesia	48.	Slovenia
7.	Canada (English speaking)	28.	Iran	49.	South Africa (Black Sample)
8.	China	29.	Ireland	50.	South Africa (White Sample)
9.	Colombia	30.	Israel	51.	South Korea
10.	Costa Rica	31.	Italy	52.	Spain
11.	Czech Republic	32.	Japan	53.	Sweden
12.	Denmark	33.	Kazakhstan	54.	Switzerland
13.	Ecuador	34.	Kuwait	55.	Switzerland (French-Speaking)
14.	Egypt	35.	Malaysia	56.	Taiwan
15.	El Salvador	36.	Mexico	57.	Thailand
16.	England	37.	Morocco	58.	Turkey
17.	Finland	38.	Namibia	59.	United States
18.	France	39.	The Netherlands	60.	Venezuela
19.	Georgia	40.	New Zealand	61.	Zambia
20.	Germany-East	41.	Nigeria	62.	Zimbabwe
21.	Germany-West	42.	The Philippines		

Source: House et al., (2004, p. II)

The GLOBE study sets out to examine the impact of culture on leadership and on organisational processes as well as on the effectiveness of those processes (Needle, 2010). It has generated a large number of findings on the relationship between culture and leadership. One of the GLOBE's main contributions was in identifying nine major attributes of culture - cultural dimensions - which operate at two levels: societal and organisational. These nine dimensions were: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, human orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, and performance orientation. Four out of the GLOBE's nine dimensions were identified in Hofstede's (1980) work, but were renamed (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Robert House (the project leader) notes: "we have a data set to replicate Hofstede's (1980) landmark study and extend that study to test hypotheses relevant to relationships among societal-level variables, organizational practices, and leader attributes and behavior" (House et al., 2004, p. xxv). The GLOBE findings have also identified a set of six major global leader behaviours. The findings showed that a variation in the values and practices associated with the cultural dimensions as well as a wide range of perceptions concerning what constitutes effective/ineffective leader behaviours

was found (Jackson & Parry, 2011). However, the study suggested a general trend towards convergence in cross-cultural perceptions of leadership.

Jackson and Parry (2011, p. 87) acknowledge that the GLOBE study was a genuine attempt to widen the perspective of researchers about the nature of managerial work globally by including data from many new and previously unexplored territories. However, while the scope of the study is ground-breaking, they warn that the results it produced must be seen in the context of measurements based on a set of metrics developed in an US context, raising the danger that the research tool itself contains assumptions specific to US business culture. As Jackson and Perry (2011) observe, "it's the quality of the questions the study generates that makes it useful, not the answers" (p. 87), a comment that suggests questions that are based on observations collected in one context may not be sufficient to capture all details of managerial work in another context.

2.5.4 Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner

The work of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner concerning the relationship between culture and management can be seen in Trompenaars's *Riding the Waves of Culture* (1993), and has developed later working with Hampden-Turner in their books: *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business* (1997) and *Managing People across Cultures* (2004).

Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (1997) argue that one of the ways cultures differ is in the way they show their emotions. They distinguish between 'emotional societies' and 'neutral cultures'; in the former people are encouraged to display their emotions while in the later the reverse is the case. Leaders who are looking for the proper approach to present themselves might find Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner's (1997) distinction useful (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Such differences between these two types of cultures can have significant influences on management practises. In neutral countries, where people tend to keep their emotions in check, the issues and matters of the organisation are seldom personalised (Needle, 2010). On the other hand, in emotional societies,

where people tend to display emotion, issues and personalities overlap to a greater extent (Needle, 2010).

Similar to Hofstede, Trompenaars sees many managerial work behaviours as culturally determined (Needle, 2010). However, Koen (2005, p. 74) suggests that while Hofstede and Trompenaars' (and later Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner) approach the influence of culture on managerial work from a similar direction, Trompenaars makes up for a comparative lack of methodological and statistic rigour in comparison to Hofstede by developing dimensions that are more intuitive and enable researchers to understand behaviours observed in real organisational contexts in terms of their cultural impact. Trompenaars use of dimensions called 'affective versus neutral' (cited in Koen, 2005) invite the researcher to take account of variations in the emotional outlook of individuals from different cultures, while the distinction between 'internal cultures' and 'external cultures' (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997 cited in Jackson and Perry, 2011, p.81) relates to national attitudes to the natural world and a tendency to attempt to dominate or live in harmony with nature. These dimensions are harder to measure than Hofstede's and indeed in later research Trompenaars dropped the 'affective versus neutral' dimension, but the work has the virtue that it does not accept that there is a 'best' way to manage, but also that there is no 'best' way to study management (Koen, 2005, p. 74).

The review of cultural theories applied to management has shown that whilst there may be some generalisable characteristics of managerial work across the globe, many of the empirical studies would benefit from an enrichment using evidence obtained at the micro-level and in particular, from studies which incorporate at least an element of observation. Studies of this kind, often small scale and in-depth, have shown the nature of managerial work to differ significantly from those in which the majority of contemporary management theory and practice was developed.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented a critical review of the approaches to the study of managerial work. Broadly speaking these approaches fall into three schools of thought: the classical school (e.g. Fayol, 1916 [1949]; Gulick, 1937), which examined and described managerial work, and sought to prescribe certain *functions* of management that were considered capable of making managers for efficient and successful. In reaction to the classical school, researchers such as Mintzberg, (1973) and Stewart (1976 & 1984) began to suspect that a prescriptive approach to management was not taking sufficient account of what managers actually did on a day to day basis, and therefore an approach was developed to situate researchers in the workplace, observing and recording managerial work in great detail. This became known as the work activities theory. However, in proposing ways in which managers could improve their performance based on detailed observation of their work, members using the work activities theory (e.g. Mintzberg, 1973) made an assumption that consider the work of managers as universal in nature and that therefore observations made in an office in Pittsburgh had implications for managers in Pakistan.

It can be arguable that the forces of globalisation, and the much greater movement of talented managers across national borders, forming and interacting with multi-cultural teams, has developed an approach to the study of managerial research that places a much higher value on the analysis of cultural influences and impacts on managerial work – e.g. Hofstede (1980). Within approaches that adopt the cultural theories of management the assumption of universal managerial work has been questioned and researchers (e.g. Koen, 2005) are increasingly aware that the influence of the national environment and its dominant cultural customs has impacts on managerial work just as any other aspect of life. In investigating the nature of managerial work in Libya, it is therefore necessary to provide an overview of the external environment, including consideration of the socio-cultural, political-legal, and economic conditions that exist. These issues are considered in the next chapter.

Chapter Three

Libyan Managerial Work Context

The primary aim of this chapter is to review the literature on the Libyan environment in which managers have to operate. To do so, a discussion of Libyan economic, political-legal and socio-cultural aspects is highlighted. To attain better understanding, the chapter provides a general background of Libya as well as of its oil and banking industries, as these were the subjects of the study. To achieve its purpose, the chapter is divided into five sections. It begins with an Introduction and ends with a Conclusion, while the three sections in between consecutively are: An Overview of Libya; Libyan Banking and Oil Sector; and Major Influences on the Work Environment of Libyan Managers.

Author's Note:

The data used as the fieldwork of this study were collected in 2010, and therefore represent a picture of the Libyan managerial work context as it existed prior to the popular uprising begun in February 2011, which resulted in the overthrow of the Qadhafi regime. Furthermore, the bulk of relevant literature available on Libyan managerial context also predates 2011; therefore, the context described in this chapter is one that has been changed somewhat by subsequent political events but reflects conditions at the time data was collected.

3.1 Introduction

To understand the work and behaviours of managers within a particular society, a consideration of the characteristics of an environment in that society should be made. Libya is not an exception. With a Mediterranean coast but part of the continent of Africa, Libyan history has always had a strategic value and has been part of several large empires: Roman, Greek and Ottoman. Today it can be considered to be part of several groupings, for example it is part of the MENA region (Middle East and North Africa) and is therefore supposed to share

characteristics with other Middle Eastern and North African Islamic states. It is an African country, but has a very different culture and environment to most Sub-Saharan African countries (Black Africa). It is a transition economy, moving from socialist economic control to a more liberal, market based economy. Furthermore, it is an Arab country, sharing language and culture with its North African neighbours and countries such as Saudi Arabia and Jordan. Moreover, Libya is an Islamic country (overwhelmingly Sunni Muslim), and the values and attitudes of this religion affect the way people treat each other and interact in all contexts, including work.

3.2 An Overview of Libya

A background of Libya would indeed aid to the understanding of managerial work in Libya. Therefore, familiarising the reader with the historical, societal, political, and economic aspects of Libyan society is seen by the researcher as an essential step and necessary basis for obtaining a better understanding of the managers' work environment. The following discussion aims at providing insights about Libya in terms of its geographical location; modern history; the characteristics of the society; and the political as well as economic environments.

3.2.1 Geographical Location and Historical Background

Libya is a vast land covering an area of approximately 1,760,000 sq. km, located in the centre of North Africa bordered by the Mediterranean Sea (with a 1,770 km coastline) to the North, Egypt (with a border of 1,115 km) to the East, Tunisia (459 km) and Algeria (982 km) to the West, while Niger (354 km), Chad (1,055 km) and Sudan (383 km) constitute its Southern boundary (CIA, 2013).

The oil-rich African country which is known as Libya – nowadays, after the February 2011 revolution, the official name is temporarily 'The State of Libya' – is made up of three historical provinces: Cyrenaica; Tripolitania; and Fezzan

(the three regions are separated from each other by formidable deserts). Fezzan is in the south-west, which is mostly the Saharan desert; in fact, it is the only one of the three regions situated entirely in the desert. Cyrenaica, the largest of the three territories, occupies the entire eastern half of the country - touching the Mediterranean but also extending into the Sahara. Tripolitania is situated on the Mediterranean shore in north-western Libya, where the majority of Libyans live. These last two regions are home to most of the Libya's 140 tribes (Stratfor Global Intelligence, 2011). There are, however, tribal and geographic differences between Tripolitania and Cyrenaica (Tipchanta, 2012). Historically, Tripolitania has been oriented towards the Maghreb – the Maghreb refers to the Western Islamic world of northwest Africa, which usually includes Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Tripolitania (Federal Research Division, 2005). Cyrenaica, in contrast to Tripolitania, has been oriented towards Egypt and the Mashriq – the Mashriq is the Eastern Islamic world, which refers to the Middle East (Federal Research Division, 2005; Stratfor Global Intelligence, 2011). Fezzan is less involved with either the Eastern Islamic world (the Mashriq) or the Western Islamic world (the Maghrib); it historically maintains close relations with both sub-Saharan Africa and with the coast (Federal Research Division, 2005).

Over the course of its history, Libya, as part of the continent of Africa as well as the centre of the southern Mediterranean coastline, has been host to a succession of cultures. It was colonised by several nations which were from different cultures and parts around the world. Generally speaking, Libya was successively under Greek, Carthaginian, Roman and the Ottoman Turkish Empire occupation (Tipchanta, 2012). In 1911, the Italian occupation of Libya began, which was to last for a period of time exceeding three decades. Following the end of World War II, Libya's administrators changed and, as a result of the Allies' victory, the British army took control of Cyrenaica and Tripolitania while Fezzan was apportioned to the French forces (Gamaty, 2012). A few years later, in 1951, Libya achieved its independence as the United Libyan Kingdom ruled by King Idris el Sanussi I - who was the first and last king in Libyan history, up to date. More precisely, Libya only came into existence when it was declared as an independent country within its current boundaries on the 24th December, 1951.

Since its Independence Day, Libya has witnessed and experienced momentous events that have left profound imprints on Libya as well as on the Libyan people.

The United Kingdom of Libya was a federal system state, comprised of its three historical territories (Cyrenaica, Tripolitania, and Fezzan). Each of these three provinces has its own regional government. This means that business environment in terms of administrative control, business regulations and so on were mainly subject to the province's government. However, within a few years of discovering high quality oil in 1959, a central administrative control unified legal structures and a harmonisation of business regulations for the whole country was demanded by the international oil companies (Tipchanta, 2012). As a result of such pressure, the King abandoned the federal system, and therefore a new form of the country named 'The Libyan Kingdom' was established in 1963. This resulted in one central governmental entity with one political administration for the whole nation (Gamaty, 2012). In 1969, six years after the unification of Libya, the Sanussi Monarchy regime was overthrown by a military coup which resulted in the beginning of the Qadhafi regime. However, after forty two years, the popular uprising in February 2011 overthrew the Qadhafi's regime, and then Libya was led by the National Transitional Council (NTC) for a short period – the NTC was formed in Benghazi in March 2011 with the stated aim of overthrowing the Qadhafi regime and guiding the country to democracy. Subsequently, in July 2012, a new political entity named The General National Congress (GNC) was elected and took over legislative powers from the NTC in order to govern the country.

3.2.2 The Society

Although Libya occupies a massive area (slightly larger than Alaska), making it one of the largest countries in Africa, it is a greatly under-populated nation. Most of the population live in the coastal strip next to the Mediterranean Sea; more specifically, Libyans are mostly concentrated in the two main cities of Tripoli in the far west of the country, and Benghazi in the east. Libya is a predominantly desert country; more than 90% of the land is either desert or semi-desert (CIA, 2013), and its unevenly distributed and small population

makes it one of the most sparsely populated countries of the world (Otman & Karlberg, 2007). However, Libya has a relatively youthful population and is continually characterised by a high fertility rate (Gamaty, 2012), making it among of the fastest growing populations in the region (Eljaaidi, 2012). Indeed, there has been a rapid growth in the Libyan population from less than one million in 1951 (when Libya came into existence) to approximately sixfold - 5.7 million, according to the latest Libyan Census in 2006. Education, at the time of the Independence, was in a state of infancy. At independence, in terms of university-graduated students, for example, the whole country had only a very limited (single digit) number of university graduates (Gamaty, 2012). However, remarkable efforts have been made during the monarchy era as well as the Qadhafi's regime; for example, the government has continuously adopted a compulsory and free public education policy. Libya's population today are mostly educated; more than 90% of the adult population is literate, making the country's literacy rate one of the highest in Africa (Hamed, 2009).

In terms of its ethnic groups the Libyan population is composed of several distinct groups; mainly, Arabs and Berbers. Indigenously, the people of Libya are preponderantly of the roving Berber race; however, the several waves of foreign encroachers during Libyan history, the Arabs in particular, have had a profound and lasting influence on the demography of the people of Libya (KPMG, 2012). The intermarriage between Arabs settlers and Berbers as well as other indigenous peoples over the centuries has led the Libyan population to be mostly a mixed population. The bulk of Libyans (up to 90% of the nation's population) are those who can be identified as Arabic-speaking Muslims of mixed Arab and Berber ancestry; the remainder is mainly made up from Berbers, other indigenous minority peoples, and black Africans (Federal Research Division, 2005).

Arab invaders brought the Arab language and culture as well as the religion of Islam to Libya between the seventh and eleventh centuries. Arabic is the official language in Libya today. In limited areas within the country, Berber languages are spoken beside the Arabic language by a small minority of the population (about 5%), but they do not have official status (KPMG, 2012). English is

spoken and used extensively, and is believed to be ranked as a second language in the present Libyan population (Federal Research Division, 2005). Islam is officially the state religion. It is the predominant religion in Libya, with more than 95% of Libyans adhering to Islam (CIA, 2013). Remarkably, almost the entire population associate with the Sunni branch of Islam (Federal Research Division, 2005), which supplies a spiritual guide to individuals as well as a coherent foundation to the national policy makers (KPMG, 2012); for example, employment laws such as those governing maternity leave for women are heavily influenced by Islamic *sharia* law. It is worth mentioning that there is no significant Shia presence in Libyan society (Federal Research Division, 2005). The Shia – Sunni divide prevalent in other countries does not exist in Libya, therefore some of the potential problems within the society in general and within the work environment in particular (e.g. not accepting a manager of a different sect) do not occur.

The vast majority of Sunni Muslims gives Libyan a unity that provides strengths such as cohesion, lack of tension, empathy. Indeed, Libya is a very homogenous society in terms of its religious makeup. Of the total population, 90% at least are Sunni Muslims (Wallace & Wilknson, 2004), meaning that as a society it suffers from fewer sectarian divides than are found in some other Muslim countries (e.g. Iraq and Bahrain). Moreover, the indigenous Berber population and the Arab settlers who brought Islam with them have been united by their shared religion. Indeed, as Otman & Karlberg (2007, p. 18) observe, over the successive colonial occupations that Libya underwent (Ottoman, Italian, British/French) "in many ways it was Islam that kept the otherwise fragmented tribal society intact".

Sharing the Arabic language as well as Muslim faith with neighbours in the Arab societies has naturally established a strong bond (Jones, 2008). It is therefore not surprisingly that many aspects of Libyan culture are generally similar to those in the rest of the Arab world, and the country has an Arabic culture. In this connection, Moran et al. (2010 cited in Eljaaidi, 2012) state that Libya should be seen as a country of the Arab world because of the shared language, religion, social institutions and life style. Nevertheless, Libyans'

norms, values, attitudes and life style are influenced by their past and traditions, many of which date back a long time ago (Jones, 2008). Some grasp of Libyan history is thus important.

According to Agnaia (1997), the Libyan social environment is characterised by many factors such as; the extended family, clan, tribe, village and Islamic religion. Religion has a serious role in shaping Libyans' life. The religion of Islam is seen as having a fundamental role within Libyan culture (Hajjaji, 2012). In fact, Islam in Libyan society is regarded as a comprehensive religion that covers people's social life as well as economic and political aspects. It provides both the basis for all the State's rules and policies as well as a spiritual guide for individuals. Furthermore, families (the nuclear as well as extended families) are considered as one of the core units that the structure of Libyan society is built upon (Gamaty, 2012). In addition to loyalty to their families, tribal loyalties are also one of the fundamental aspects within Libyan culture; the society is bound by these two types of loyalties (Abubrig, 2012). All Libyans belong to a family, and recognise that family as being part of a clan. Clans combine to form tribes, and in general Libyans are very clear about the tribe they belong to and who is recognised as the leader of this tribe. While tribal leaders have no legal status, their social influence is very strong; their decisions are respected and their help is sought in situations such as resolving disputes and advancing careers. While tribal leaders are usually elderly they have many contacts in large organisations and political entities, which they are able to influence or ask for favours. Moreover, Libyans have strong a relationship to geographic areas such as villages (Agnaia, 1997); often villages and towns are associated with particular tribes, and this means that Libyans have a strong local territorial identification (Abubrig, 2012). For example, the tribes in the East of Libya regard themselves as quite separate from those in the West; however, their cultural values and norms to do not differ significantly.

3.2.3 The Political and Legal Settings

The Libyan political system was, for more than forty years, ruled by Qadhafi and his regime – from 1969 until 2011. Libya's political structure during this

period was unique, and a singular creation (Otman & Karlberg, 2007). There was no formal constitution, and political parties were illegal. Qadhafi held no official title and was not head of state, but he was in fact the de facto chief of Libya (Federal Research Division, 2005). Following the 1969 military coup, Qadhafi started to espouse his own political system, which was a combination of socialism and Islam (CIA, 2013). He created a system of government that rejected political parties and was supposed to be a 'third way', superior to both capitalism and socialism (US & FCS, 2006).

Theoretically, the country was governed by Libyan citizens themselves through direct representation through a large number of local and regional People's Committees (PCs). The legislative body of the regime was the General People's Congress (GPC), equivalent to the parliament, which was officially responsible for formulating policy and passing laws for the country in accordance with the decisions of the PCs (US & FCS, 2006). GPC's leadership was vested in the General Secretariat, which was headed by the secretary general (equivalent to the country's president). Secretaries of the state were appointed by the secretary general, and, as the final process, appointments had to be confirmed by GPC. The secretaries of the state were responsible for the operations of their ministries – they were regarded as an executive body of the regime. However, in reality, the GPC was in essence ineffectual; indeed, it was Qadhafi who, directly or indirectly, exercised real authority (Federal Research Division, 2005). In fact, the nation was governed by an authoritarian regime ruled by Qadhafi himself and his trusted people (Gamaty, 2012).

The Libyan Judicial and Legal System in force since 1969 was derived from Egyptian models, which in turn were originally based on a combination of Turkish, French and Italian sources (US & FCS, 2006). Here, it is necessary to mention that although Libyan laws were to some degree influenced by non-Islamic sources, as just pointed out, they were in fact consistent with, and in many cases based on, Islamic law - e.g. Libyan personal/family law (Federal Research Division, 2005). The judicial system that existed during the Qadhafi time was comprised of multi- level courts. There were courts of first instance, courts of appeals, and the Supreme Court as the final appellate level - the

General People's Congress (GPC) was responsible for appointing justices to the Supreme Court. However, there was also an exceptional or extra-ordinary court, which operated outside the regular court system and which was created to try political offences (Federal Research Division, 2005; Gamaty, 2012). The arbitrary nature of this court and the sanctions it could apply were much feared in the country, and it can be seen as a deterrent to managerial decision making that could be in anyway construed as impinging on national security or the interests of the ruling elite. For example, in the mid-1980s Libya's relationship with the USA was at its lowest point, and any manager of a company who made any arrangement with a US organisation, to buy technology for instance, could find himself accused of treason and face justice in this extraordinary court.

A momentous journey was witnessed and experienced in the Libyan political-legal environment after the end of the monarchic regime, and the start of the Qadhafi era in 1969. The Libyan political system and landscape underwent a complete change. Indeed, while the previous regime was seen as a strongly pro-West conservative monarchy, the new regime has been described as a mixture of socialism, Islam (KPMG, 2012; CIA, 2013), nationalism, pan-Arabism, and anti-imperialism (Gamaty, 2012). At its very beginning taking control of the nation, the new regime moved to eliminate all preceding political institutions such as the House of Representatives and the Senate, as well as the Libyan constitution, which was established in 1951 and served the country all through the period of its monarchic regime (Gamaty, 2012). Four years later, in 1973, Qadhafi declared the 'People's Revolution' which reflected his own vision and ideas in leading Libya. As a one consequence of this orientation, popular committees were formed which took over media and ministries (Jones, 2008), and would run all Libyan institutions of power and civil institutions (Gamaty, 2012). In 1977, Qadhafi proclaimed 'the state of masses' which was claimed to be, as mentioned above, a new political system based on the practise of a unique form of 'direct democracy' by all Libyan people (KPMG, 2012), giving them total control over all issues of political power and wealth. In reality, however, directing the nation and the real power had always been firmly in the hands of Qadhafi himself and his close loyalists (Federal Research Division, 2005).

It is a fact that Qadhafi was by all means in a position that allowed him to exercise his own political vision and ideology for a long time without real difficulties or obstacles. He, as the head of a military dictatorship, held absolute power (Federal Research Division, 2005), and, as the Libyan new political model's pioneer and founder, Qadhafi became the one who led and guided with the ultimate power - everyone was accountable to him, but he was not accountable to anyone (Gamaty, 2012). On top of that, the huge oil and gas revenue, specifically during the oil boom in 1970s when Qadhafi began ruling and taking total control of events in Libya, coupled with a small population gave him even more power. Hence, there were in fact no unbreakable obstructions that could prevent Qadhafi from applying his vision and ideas all the way through in leading the nation.

To a great extent, the implementation of Qadhafi's ideological beliefs and views in the Libyan context left a profound impact on the country as well as its citizens, not only politically but also socially and economically as well. The tribal nature of Libyan society, for example, was effectively used to aid in controlling the nation. Indeed, according to Stratfor Global Intelligence (2011), one of the fundamental aspects of Qadhafi's success that contributed to his longstanding power was his ability to control Libyan tribes and manage their relationships to his own. The phenomenon of Tribalism became not only stronger than before within Libya's society but also one of the pillars of the regime that Qadhafi relied on it to survive and maintain himself in power. When a group of military officers, who belonged to one of the largest tribes, was involved in unsuccessful coup attempt in October 1993, the tribal bases were used in establishing a law approved by the General People's Congress (the parliament) in March 1997; saying that families and tribes could be collectively punished and be therefore subject to the withdrawal of government services in the case of their members being implicated in opposition activities (Stratfor Global Intelligence, 2011). No doubt, the tribal identifications and influences is one of the most important characteristics of Libyan social environment that played, and still continue to play, a major role within people's life in all contexts, including work. Indeed, Al Obeidi (1995) observes that relationships based on tribe or clan are dominant and heavily influence the ways in which managers perceive they should function

within their managerial tasks in the Libyan business environment. Examples of this influence are to be found in subsequent chapters (see section 5.3.3.4 in particular) and the effect of this influence is discussed in chapter eight.

Moreover, the continuous changes in Libya's system of administration can be seen as a further instance of how the administrative environment of the state was seriously affected, which therefore caused difficulties to the citizens' social as well as business matters. Libyan administration system was characterised by a state of instability as it was frequently changing over time (Abubrig, 2012).

Furthermore, during the 1970s and 1980s, Qadhafi used oil funds to promote his ideology outside the country, supporting subversive and terrorist acts (CIA, 2013); in fact, he admitted being involved in terrorist activities (Tipchanta, 2012). Libya and Libyans, as a consequence of Qadhafi's ideology orientation and terrorist actions, were badly affected. During the 1990s, sanctions were imposed on Libya by both the United States of America (1986 – 2003) and the U.N (1991 – 2003). This had the effect of isolating the country politically as well as economically (US & FCS, 2006). Indeed, the 1990s were years of economic decline and world isolation. As a result of these sanctions and suspension of trade, Libya's domestic economy and in turn the standard of living for most Libyans were seriously affected (Federal Research Division, 2005). However, sanctions were lifted in 2003 after Qadhafi announced the rejection of terrorism and fulfilled all the terms of the UN Security Council resolutions required to lift the sanctions against Libya (Federal Research Division, 2005).

In the last decade of the Qadhafi's regime (2000 - 2011), a significant change in the political ideology of the Libyan regime was witnessed. Qadhafi's deep-seated socialist principles, for instance, slightly began to shift to a more relaxed manner towards global capitalism (Abubrig, 2012). Relationships started to be rebuilt between Libya and Western nations. According to CIA (2013), Qadhafi made important steps in normalising relations with the Western world in the 2000s. However, while relationships were being normalised abroad and there was some movement to the privatisation of large state industries at home, many

Libyan's continued to feel that political reform would never happen, and that Qadhafi's power would be passed on to his sons in due course.

3.2.4 The Economic Environment

Libya is a developing country and its economy heavily depends upon revenues from the energy sector, which generates almost all of its export earnings (CIA, 2013). Substantial income from hydrocarbons coupled with a small population affords Libya one of the highest per capita GDPs in Africa (US & FCS, 2006; Twati, 2008).

When considering the most important aspects of Libya's economy over most of the time since the country came to existence, it has been characterised by a low level of economic activity diversification and a high dependability to the regime's political ideologies and orientations. Indeed, Libyan economy is seen as one of least diversified economies in comparison to the oil producing countries, including the rest of the Arab Moroccan region (IMF, 2007). Although Libya's economic diversification and targeting of a non-oil future economy had been a constant element in all past economic development plans, it seems that little attention has been paid to such goals as no concrete movement has been noted in this direction (Abubrig, 2012).

Since Libya originated as an independent country in 1951 within its current boundaries, up to 2010 when this research was conducted, Libya experienced two completely different kinds of political ideologies as well as economic orientation and perspectives. While the Sanussi Monarchy regime (1951 – 1969) was supported by the West (principally the United Kingdom) and his regime was seen as a strongly pro-Western conservative monarchy, the Qadhafi's regime (1969 – 2011) was profoundly committed to socialist principles. Understandably, Libya's economy during the Sanussi's regime was mainly capitalist; private sector was supported and existed widely and governmental interference was limited, and the public sector was also seen but in the cases that require large-scale investment (El-Nakhat, 2006). On the other hand, the economy during the Qadhafi's regime became an economy based on the

ideology of socialism with no significant private sector and a heavy state involvement in ownership and the working business environment (El-Nakhat, 2006); according to Gamaty (2012), the marginalisation of the role of the private sector was clear in the mid 1970s and continued until it almost totally disappeared by the end of 1970s.

When Libya was declared an independent state on 24th December 1951, it was one of the poorest countries in the world (Jones, 2008), relying heavily on aid from the United Nations and on renting military bases to the UK and the USA, which was a source of income (El-Nakhat, 2006). Its total population was approximately one million with an estimated income per capita of $30, which was one of the lowest incomes in the world (Vandewalle, 1998 cited in Gamaty, 2012). However, a few years after viable reserves of oil in Libya were discovered in 1959, Libya had become one of the major exporters of crude oil in Africa as well as the Middle East (Shernanna, 2012). Indeed, in the end of sixties, Libya was able to daily export three million barrels of oil a year with annual income per capita reaching $2000 (Gamaty, 2012).

Instantly after Qadhafi seized power in 1969, the new country's leaders adopted, in contrast to the previous monarchic regime, a different socio-economic discourse; the socialist economy was declared as the best economic system for Libyans (Gamaty, 2012). Moving towards a socialist centralised economy resulted in dramatic changes in Libya's economic life. For example, renting properties was forbidden (tenants who already lived in rented properties, became instant owners of the properties they had been renting) and, in addition, citizens did not have the right to own more than one property (El-Nakhat, 2006; Gamaty, 2012). Moreover, workers were advocated to take control, to be 'partners not wage labourers' and to involve themselves in the day-to-day management of the organisations within which they worked; this was not exclusive to the state-owned (public) sector but happened in the private sector as well (El-Nakhat, 2006; Gamaty, 2012). In effect, this policy was implemented by the formation of worker councils in organisations, and a representative of which sat on boards of directors and had a power of veto over decision making within the company. In both the private and public sectors this resulted in persons with no previous

managerial experience being appointed to highly responsible and influential positions.

The regime's socialist orientation during the 1970s and 1980s had a devastating effect on the Libyan economy and resulted in the state controlling virtually all economic activities - e.g. oil and gas, banking, housing, industry, import-export, construction, transportation, among many others (Eljaaidi, 2012). According to Shernanna (2012), the government became the main player, if not the only one, in investing and producing all goods and services in the economy of Libya.

In the end of 1980s, the regime announced economic reform which would lead to a new era of political and economic liberalisation followed by another wave of economic reform designed to achieve a considerable reduction of the state involvement in the Libyan economy and a significantly extended role for the private sector instead. However, these reforms did not meet their aims (Gamaty, 2012). Here, it is worth stating that the main reason of not gaining real economic reform, despite a number of attempts, in Libya – a small population country with a strategic location and huge natural wealth - seems to have been because of a lack of political will as well as the absence of the necessary administrative or institutional capability (Vandewalle, 1998 cited in Gamaty, 2012; Shernanna, 2012). In line with this, Thorne (2010, cited in Eljaaidi, 2012, p. 2) sees the regime's attempts concerning the economic reform as "putting the mechanisms of a functioning capitalist economy inside a socialist system".

3.3 Libyan Banking and Oil Sectors

This research attempts to understand the nature of Libyan managerial work within its national context examining the work of Libyan executives in both the banking and oil sectors. It is thus important to briefly discuss the nature and structure of banking and oil systems operating in Libya.

3.3.1 The Banking Sector

In 2010, when the main stage of the study's data collection was conducted, the banking sector in Libya, generally speaking, included four kinds of financial constituents, which were: the Central Bank of Libya, the Libyan Specialist Banks, the Libyan Foreign Bank, and the Libyan Commercial Banks. These kinds are illustrated in Figure 3.2, below, and further described as follows:

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   Figure 3.1: The Banking Sector │
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                 │
                 ▼
    ┌─────────────────────────┐
    │   Central Bank of Libya  │
    └─────────────────────────┘
       ╱          │          ╲
      ▼           ▼           ▼
┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐
│  Libyan  │ │  Libyan  │ │  Libyan  │
│Commercial│ │specialist│ │ Foreign  │
│  Banks   │ │  Banks   │ │  Bank    │
└──────────┘ └··········┘ └··········┘
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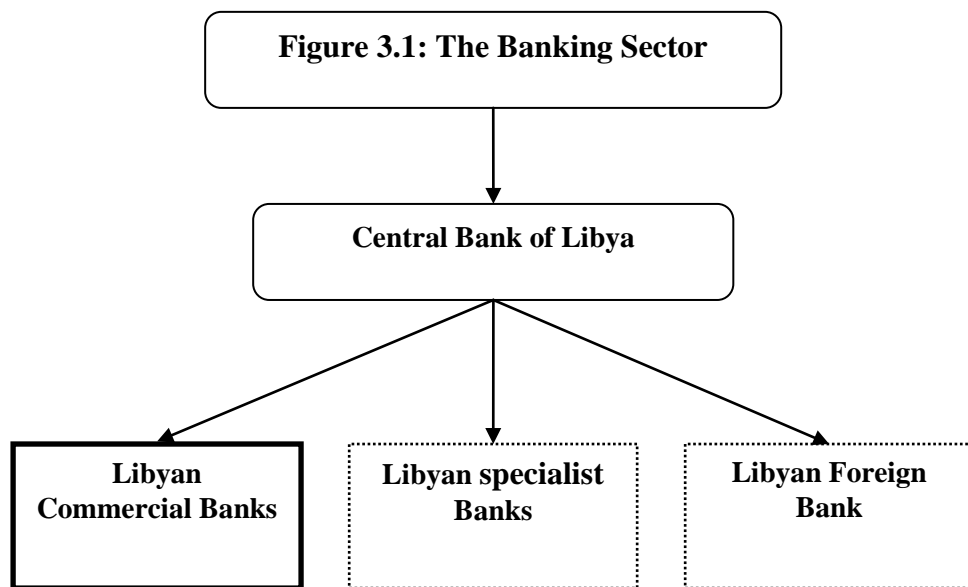
3.3.1.1 Central Bank of Libya (CBL)

The Central Bank of Libya (CBL) was established under Law No. 30, 1955 and started its operations in April 1956. It is 100% State owned, represents the monetary authority in the State and enjoys the status of an autonomous corporate body. The CBL is seen as the most powerful Libyan banking institution, and "nothing much happens in the banking sector without at least its tacit approval" (US & FCS, 2006). The main branch of the CBL is located in the capital of Libya (Tripoli), and the other three branches are located in three other Libyan cities – Benghazi, Sebha, and Sirte. CBL is run by a Board of Directors composed of the Governor as Chairman; Deputy Governor as Vice-Chairman; and, in addition, six members, who usually also hold positions in other financial and economic institutions. The functions of the Central Bank of Libya have

grown since its establishment under the Law No. 30 of 1955 until the issuance of Law No. 1, 2005. These functions can be summed up as:

a) Issuance and regulation of banknotes and coins in Libya.

b) Maintenance and stabilization of the Libyan currency, internally and externally.

c) Maintenance and management of the official reserves of gold and foreign exchange.

d) Regulation of the quantity of credit, in terms of cost to meet the requirements of economic growth and monetary stability.

e) Taking appropriate actions to deal with foreign or local economic and financial problems.

f) Acting as a banker to the Commercial Banks.

g) Supervising the Commercial Banks to ensure the soundness of their performance and financial position, as well as the protection of the rights of depositors and shareholders.

h) Acting as a banker and fiscal agent to the State and its public entities.

i) Advising the State on the formulation and implementation of financial and economic policy.

j) Supervising foreign exchange.

k) Carrying out any other functions or transactions normally performed by a central bank and, in addition, any tasks charged to it under the laws of banking, currency and credit or any international agreements to which the State is a party.

l) Issuing and managing all the State's loans.

3.3.1.2 Libyan Specialist Banks

In Libya, there are four specialist banks that aim to provide a number of financial services to specific economic activities. These specialist banks are:

3.3.1.2.1 The Agricultural Bank

The Agricultural Bank was established in 1957. It is a State-owned bank and offers advice and guidance on agricultural matters. Additionally, it provides advances and loans to individual farmers, agricultural cooperative societies and agricultural companies. The main purpose of the bank is generally to assist in developing Libya's agricultural sector.

3.3.1.2.2 The Bank of Savings and Real Estate Investment

The Bank of Savings and Real Estate Investment was established according to Law No 2 (1981). As a State-owned bank, it principally aims at supporting Libyan citizens for building and buying houses that are needed for living in the Libyan society.

3.3.1.2.3 The Development Bank

The Development Bank is a State-owned bank and was established in accordance with Law No 8 (1981). Acting in support of the target of social development, the key role of the bank is to provide financial facilities concerning economic projects and covering a variety of economic activities such as manufacturing and tourism projects.

3.3.1.2.4 The Alrefi Bank (Rural Bank)

The Alrefi Bank aims at stimulating and supporting job seekers, as well as citizens who are classified as being in the low-income segment (low-wage earner) by helping them establish their own small projects by providing cash and in-kind loans to them on concessional terms.

3.3.1.3 Libyan Foreign Bank

The main purpose of establishing the Libyan Foreign Bank was to deal with Libyan investments abroad. With total assets almost reaches twenty billion LYD, the bank now operates its business in a large number of foreign countries (Annual Report, Central Bank of Libya, 2009, 2010).

3.3.1.4 Libyan Commercial Banks

The Libyan commercial banks were considered to be the most appropriate type of Libyan bank for the purpose of this research due to their relative stability in comparison with other sectors of the economy, the fact that reliable data was available on their operations, and because among banks they were closest in their activities and in the responsibilities of their managers than would have been a specialist bank established for a specific purpose such as the LCB or the Development Bank, which generally have only one branch. Therefore, they were exclusively the focus of the study in terms of its attention to banking – neither

the central bank of Libya nor the Libyan Arab foreign bank or the Libyan specialist banks were examined. These banks were avoided because each has a specific job to do and this makes comparison with other banks difficult. In particular, they have different objectives and the managers that operate within them therefore do their jobs differently; the Libyan commercial banks formed a much more cohesive group with managers being expected to attain similar goals. The Libyan commercial banks can be briefly portrayed as follows:

3.3.1.4.1 Sahara Bank

The Sahara Bank is a Tripoli-based bank and has about 46 branches and seven agencies around the country. It was established in 1964. The bank is a private commercial bank operating in the Libyan market – 81% private ownership and 19% owned by BNP Paribas Bank. Before Sahara Bank became fully privatised recently, it was owned by both the CBL (82%) and private shareholders (18%). Its capital is 126 million Libyan Dinars (LYD).

3.3.1.4.2 Gumhouria Bank

At the time the data for this study were collected the Gumhouria Bank was 100% in state ownership (it has subsequently been partially privatised). It was established in 1969 as wholly owned by the Central Bank of Libya. It is located in Tripoli and has about 108 branches and 38 agencies around the country. Its capital is 200 million Libyan Dinars and its total assets are more than 20.5 billion Libyan Dinars. It became the largest bank in Libya after it merged with Umma Bank in 2007,

3.3.1.4.3 National Commercial Bank

The National Commercial Bank is in 100% state ownership. It was established in 1970 and it is located in Albayda. Its capital is 100 million Libyan Dinars and its total assets nearly 7.5 billion Libyan.

3.3.1.4.4 Wahda Bank

The Wahda Bank is 54.1% under state ownership, 26.9% in the private sector and 19% in the ownership of the Arabic Bank, a Jordanian based bank. It was established in 1970. It is located in Benghazi and has 68 branches and 6

agencies around the country. Its capital is 108million Libyan Dinars, and its assets total more than 5.5 billion Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.5 National Banking Corporation

At the beginning of 1996, regional banks were established (Alahli Banks). The nature of their work was no different from any commercial banks operating in Libya, apart from their geographical location, mainly in smaller rural communities, and thus these banks were small in terms of their capital and their contribution to economic activity.

Until the end of 2005 the number of these banks was 48, covering different regions of the country and under the control and supervision of the CBL. Due to restructuring of these banks, in 2006 decisions were issued to merge these banks with each other into the National Banking Corporation, which became a commercial bank. The National Banking Corporation is under state ownership. It is located in Tripoli and has 29 branches and two agencies around the country. Its capital is nearly 55 million Libya Dinars and its assets total more than 1.1 billion Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.6 Commerce and Development Bank

The Commerce and Development Bank was established in 1996. It is located in Benghazi and has nine branches and 19 agencies around the country. Its capital is 50 million Libyan Dinars, and its total assets more than 1.8 billion Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.7 Mediterranean Bank

The Mediterranean Bank is in the private sector. It was established in 1997. It is located in Benghazi and has five branches. Its capital is 15 million Libyan Dinars, and its assets total more than 100 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.8 Alsaraya Trading and Development Bank

The Alsaraya Trading and Development Bank is one of the Libyan private banks, which was established in 1997. It is located in Tripoli and its total assets are 91.6 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.9 Alejmaa Alarabi Bank

The Alejmaa Alarabi bank is in the private sector. It was established in 2003. It is located in Benghazi and has three branches and four agencies around the country. Its capital is 30 million Libyan Dinars, and its total assets 328.4 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.10 Aman Bank for Commerce and Investment

The Aman Bank for Commerce and Investment is in the private sector. It was established in 2003. It is located in Tripoli and has 11 branches and agencies around the country. Its capital is 10 million Libyan Dinars, and its total assets are nearly 500 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.11 Alwafa Bank

The Alwafa Bank is in the private sector. It was established in 2004. It is located in Tripoli and has three branches and one agency. Its capital was five million Libyan Dinars on 31/12/2005 and its total assets were nearly 180 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.12 Arab Commercial Bank

The Arab Commercial Bank is in the private sector. It was established in 2005. It is located in Tripoli, and its total assets total nearly 88 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.13 Alwaha Bank

The Alwaha Bank is a branch of the foreign Libyan bank. It was established in 2006. It is located in Tripoli, and its total assets represent more than 600 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.14 United Bank for Trade and Investment

The United Bank for Trade and Investment is in the private sector. It was established in 2007. It is located in Tripoli and has for branches and six agencies. Its capital is 22.65 million Libyan Dinars and its assets total more than 160 million Libyan Dinars.

3.3.1.4.15 First Gulf Libyan Bank

First Gulf Libyan Bank (FGLB) is a full fledged commercial bank, offering integrated services in Tripoli, Libya. It is equally owned between the First Gulf Bank (FGB) – one of the leading financial institutions in the United Arab Emirates, which has assets worth over 28 billion U.S. dollars – and The Economic and Social Development Fund in Libya. The authorised capital of the First Gulf Libyan Bank is 400 million U.S. dollars, and its paid-up capital is equal to 200 million U.S. dollars. The Bank provides a variety of financial services to business and industry within the Libyan market.

Table 3.1: Libyan Commercial Banks

The Bank	Selected Indicators *		Pilot study	Case Study
Gumhouria Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 5805	YE: 1969 B/A: 146	√	
Sahara Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 1490	YE: 1964 B/A: 53	√	
National Commercial Bank	L: Albedda NE: 2475	YE: 1970 B/A: 63	√	
Wahda Bank	L: Benghazi NE: 3095	YE: 1970 B/A: 75	√	√
Commerce & Development Bank	L: Benghazi NE: 690	YE: 1996 B/A: 28	√	√
National Banking Corporation	L: Tripoli NE: 1270	YE: 1996 B/A: 31	√	
Alwafa Alwaha Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 59	YE: 2004 B/A: 2	√	
Aman Bank for Commerce & Investment	L: Tripoli NE: 300	YE: 2003 B/A: 11	√	
Alejmaa Alarabi Bank	L: Benghazi NE: 305	YE: 2003 B/A: 6	√	
Alwaha Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 209	YE: 2006 B/A: 1	√	
United Bank for Trade and Investment	L: Tripoli NE: 215	YE: 2007 B/A: 10	√	
Mediterranean Bank	L: Benghazi NE: 85	YE: 1997 B/A: 3	√	
Alsaraya Trading and Development Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 102	YE: 1997 B/A: 1	√	
Arab Commercial Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 85	YE: 2005 B/A: -	√	
First Gulf Libyan Bank	L: Tripoli NE: 35	YE: 2007 B/A: 1	√	

* As of the beginning of 2010.
L = Location/Head Office. YE = Year of Establishment NE = Number of Employees. B/A = Branches & Agencies

3.3.2 The Oil Sector

Libya is a wealthy oil-exporting country, with proven oil reserves of 42 billion barrels, and over 53 trillion cubic feet of gas; these are considered to be the largest proven oil and gas reserves in Africa (UKTI, 2010). Interestingly, Libyan oil and gas resources are largely unexplored; there is a high possibility that the actual reserves are as much as twice (or even more) of those figures - about 75% of Libya's surface territory is still unexplored to date (US & FCS, 2006; Amereller, 2013).

Libya's economy is structured primarily around the country's oil and gas sector. It continually generates almost all of Libya's income and export earning. In addition, it significantly contributes the largest percentage to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The proportion of the energy sector, for instance, to the total Libyan exports during the period 1970-2008 has never been less than 92% (Shernanna, 2012).

3.3.2.1 Running the Oil Sector

The Libyan oil and gas sector is run by the state-owned National Oil Corporation (NOC). The NOC controls the oil and gas industry in Libya in a manner similar to the control the CBL has over the banking sector. It controls and in many cases owns domestic oil companies, for which it decides strategy and sets long-term objectives. Senior managers of such companies are appointed by the NOC. As well as operating wholly owned companies it cooperates on joint ventures with foreign oil companies, and manages exploration and production activities in Libya, including granting licences to foreign companies to operate independently. It also has a training role in producing staff qualified to work in the oil industry.

3.3.2.2 The National Oil Corporation

The National Oil Corporation (NOC) was established under Law No. 24 /1970 on 12 November 1970 to replace the Libyan General Petroleum Corporation, which was established under Law No. 13 / 1968, and thereafter took the full responsibility of managing the oil sector and its operations. Later, in the end of

1979, it was reorganised, according to a decision of the General Secretariat of the General People's Congress (formerly) No. 10 / 1979, to work on achieving the goals of the national transformation plan in the areas of oil, and to support the national economy through the development of oil reserves and exploit the optimum utilization and management and investment to achieve the best returns in carrying out its activities. For this purpose, NOC is able to enter into participation agreements with foreign companies, institutions and other entities that are conducting similar activities.

The NOC, therefore, carries out both exploration and production operations in Libya through fully-owned companies, or in participation with others according to service contracts or other types of petroleum investment agreements. There are many foreign oil companies operating in Libya from different parts of the world, e.g. Eni, Occidental, OMV, Hess, Marathon, Shell, BP, Exxon Mobil and Gazprom. In regard to oil and gas marketing activities, NOC is also involved in such operations nationally and internationally. In other words, the NOC, in order to meet its purposes, owns several fully-owned companies that are responsible for carrying out exploration, production and development operations. In addition, it also has its own fully owned marketing companies that work locally and abroad. Furthermore, NOC also has participation agreements with specialised international companies concerning exploration and production sharing activities, in accordance with the development of the international oil and gas industry as well as international petroleum marketing. Figure 3.2, below, illustrates the type of companies that are connected to the NOC.

Figure 3.2: The Oil Sector

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                    ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │   National Oil Corporation (NOC):     │
                    │   Shapes of the connected companies   │
                    └──────────────────────────────────────┘
         ┌──────────┬──────────┬──────────┬──────────┬──────────┐
    ┌────────┐ ┌────────┐ ┌─────────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐
    │ Fully  │ │ Joint  │ │ Exploration │ │Concession│ │ Centres &│
    │ Owned  │ │Ventures│ │     and     │ │          │ │ Institutes│
    └────────┘ └────────┘ │  Production │ └──────────┘ └──────────┘
                          │   Sharing   │
                          │  Agreement  │
                          └─────────────┘
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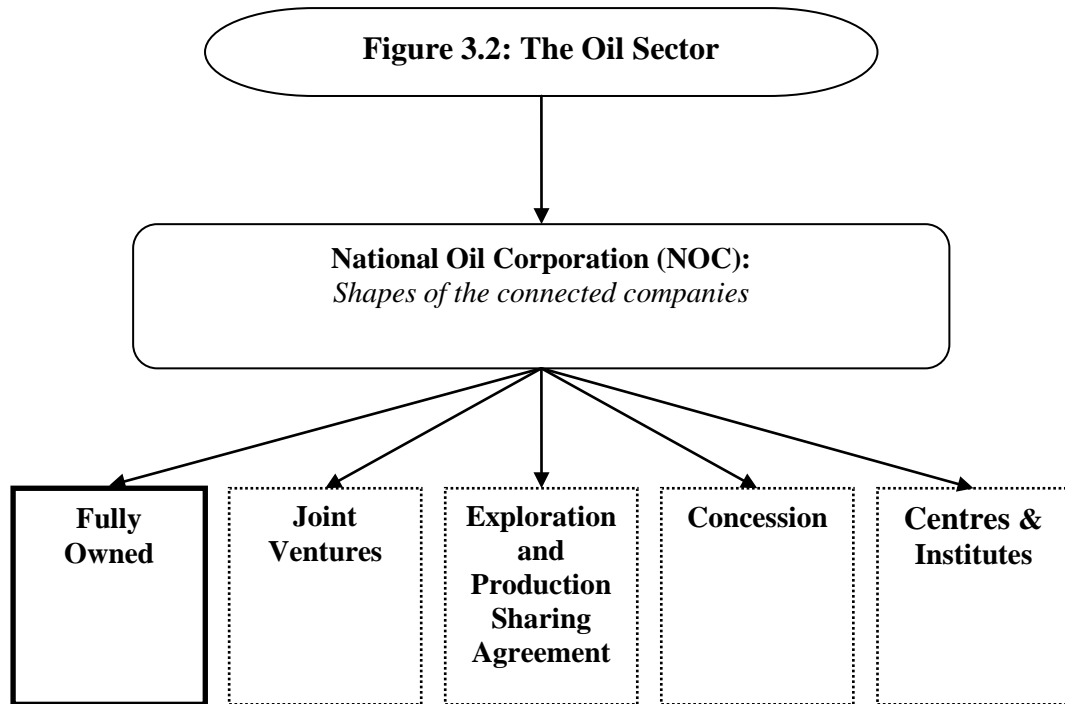
As shown in the Figure 3.2, the NOC controls the whole Libyan oil sector, and conducts the oil and gas activities and operations through five different sorts of joined companies. These are briefly described below.

3.3.2.2.1 Joint Ventures

Joint Ventures can be generally recognised as a kind of a business agreement, for a limited time, between two parties in which they agree to develop a new entity. The joint venture allows both parties to share risks, expenses, assets and the resulting profits. Needle (2010), describes joint ventures as:

> forms of collaboration between firms to achieve specific strategic objectives such as technology transfer, new market entry or new product. Joint ventures usually involve some element of shared ownership as in the case of two firms collaborating to establish a new company. Many joint ventures involve firms from different countries and these are sometimes referred to as international joint ventures or IJVs (p. 38).

Several of NOC's companies are characterised by this type of business agreement, such as Zueitina Oil Company, Eni Oil Company and VEBA Oil

Company. This type of business collaboration is continually growing. BP, for example, started in 2007 a $900 million joint venture with NOC, with a possibility of investment to rise to $20 billion by 2017 (Tipchanta, 2012).

3.3.2.2.2 Exploration and Production Sharing Agreement

Exploration and Production Sharing Agreement (EPSA) is a type of business agreement that is used by the NOC in order to benefit from the expertise foreign companies can offer, especially in terms of skills and technology transfer. Such companies from around the world whose expertise has been drawn on include: Gazprom Company; Shell Company; and Sonatrach Company.

3.3.2.2.3 Concession

Broadly speaking, concession - also known as concession agreement - is a contractual right to conduct a certain sort of business or activities in specific area/areas in order to explore or develop its natural resources. The NOC exercises this kind of business in running the Libyan oil sector with a range of international companies from different countries around the world - e.g.Wintershall Company.

3.3.2.2.4 Centres & Institutes

There are a number of centres and institutes which are affiliated to NOC. They are: firstly, the Petroleum Research Centre, which carries out research and technical studies in regard to the gas and oil industry. In addition, for the purposes of performing quality control tests and issuing the relevant certificates, it conducts tests and technical analysis for petroleum products as well during different stages at exploring and producing of exploration gas and oil. Moreover, it plays a significant role in evaluating patents, licenses of exploitation and the fees and forms associated with petroleum products and oil operations. Secondly, the NOC also owns institutes such as the Qualitative Center for Training; and Petroleum Institute for Rehabilitation and Training is pursued in order to provide the whole oil and gas sector with qualified Libyans, according to both educational and training bases. It may worth mentioning that training programmes are not only being conducted locally but also being conducted

outside Libya in order to overcome the shortage within the Libya context in this respect.

3.3.2.2..5 Fully Owned

The NOC owns several national companies which conduct a variety of gas and oil operations such as exploration, production, refinement, manufacture and marketing activities. It owns, for example, national services companies that carry out oil well drilling and work over operations and supply the oil sector with drilling equipment and materials. Furthermore, NOC also possesses a number of petrochemical factories as well as refineries such as Ras Lanuf and Zawia refineries, which are operated by national processing companies. The set of companies that belongs to NOC is presented in the Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: The National Oil Corporation: Fully Owned Companies

Fully Owned Oil Companies	Selected Indicators *	Pilot Study	Case Study
The Arabian Gulf Oil Company	L: Benghazi NE: 5600 MA: Exploration and production of oil & gas.	√	√
Sirte Oil Company for Production and Processing of Oil & Gas	L: Marsa El-Barega NE: 6700 MA: Exploration, production operations and processing of oil & gas.	√	
Ras-Lanuf Oil & Gas Processing Company	L: Ras-Lanuf NE: 3700 MA: Crude oil refining and production of petrochemicals, plastics & ethylene.	√	
Azawia Oil Refining Company	L: Azawia NE: 3000 MA: Crude oil refining, manufacturing asphalt and mixing and filling mineral oils.	√	
Brega Oil Marketing Company	L: Azawia NE: 4200 MA: Petroleum products marketing.	√	
National Oil Wells Drilling & Workover Company	L: Tripoli NE: 1500 MA: Drilling and maintenance of oil wells.	√	
Jowef Oil Technology Company	L: Benghazi NE: 900 MA: Technical and engineering services related to oil & gas activities.	√	√
The National Catering Company for Oil Fields & Terminals	L: Tripoli NE: 3000 MA: The provision of catering, nutrition and accommodation services.	√	
North African Geophysical Exploration Company	L: Tripoli NE: 180 MA: Providing seismic data services.	√	

* As of the beginning of 2010.
L = Location/Head Office. MA = Main Activities. NE = Number of Employees

3.4 Major Influences on the Work Environment of Libyan Managers

The Libyan managers' work environment is influenced by a wide range of different elements. In general, those elements that affect Libyan managers' work and behaviours have arisen from Libyan socio-cultural, political-legal and economic environments.

It is difficult to divide the influences on Libyan managers into sharply differentiated categories, and the boundaries between them are not easily determined, as the pervasive influence of culture affects all elements of a nation's activities. However, an attempt has been made to present some of these influences under the categories outlined, in order to present a context in which to view the nature of managerial work as it was represented in the previous chapter and the actuality of managerial work in Libya as represented in the study's findings.

3.4.1 Aspects of Libyan Society

Libyan society is characterised by a number of elements that have a distinctive effect on the nature of work in Libyan organisations; this sub-section will focus on four such elements: religion; the importance of relationships; social status; the role of women in the workplace. In reviewing literature on Libyan society these were the factors that recurred most frequently, and they can therefore be expected to have an influence on all aspects of life in Libya, including the nature of managerial work. Moreover, when discussing culture and tradition, these are the elements of Libyan society that the literature most often refers to in connection with the world of work in Libya.

3.4.1.1 Islam

Although research on the influence of work environments on management and organisations has a long history, the majority of the current research in the Muslim World - including Libya - is still at a nascent stage (Ali, 2005). Indeed, most of management and organisational research enquiries have been broadly

done in the Western contexts, and research conducted in other areas has been conducted from a Western viewpoint, without paying sufficient attention to local cultural and social influences; for example, in mainly Muslim countries to the Islamic perspective. Accordingly, there is a need to uncover and deal with matters that are related to the cultural foundations of management and organisational issues belonging to Muslim societies (Ali, 2005).

Islamic principles and rules permeate Libyan customs and culture. They work as a framework that guides the behaviour of individuals in the whole society, including the business environment (Gorrill, 2009). Indeed, Islam plays an influential role in shaping Libyan cultural values, including approaches to business (Vandewalle, 2006 cited in Hajjaji, 2012). It is in fact that, for most Libyans, the heritage of Islam is implanted in their characters and exists as an essential constituent in their daily life (Jones, 2008; Gorrill, 2009).

In an Islamic society such as Libya, the business environment is characterised by a number of qualities such as the significance of personal contacts and informal relationships between people, individually as well as collectively. According to Ali (2005), business and personal relations, for example, are closely linked and strongly locked together. In this sense, Libya is seen as "a culture where deals are made on the strength of personal contacts" (US & FCS, 2006, p. 2). Even though a manager's web of relationships seems to be complex as it typically includes people from a wide range of orientations and backgrounds, these relationships act together warmly and with noteworthy ease in communication. In comparison to other societies, as Ali (2005) observes, Muslim society exhibits a higher level of personal and intimate relationships. Groups, as a further instance of the characteristics of Muslim cultures, are at the heart of all societal activities, and "the nature of relationships among people and the delicate balance of what is personal and what is business uniquely position groups to play a vital role at the workplace and society" (Ali, 2005, pp. 92-93). In regard to the function and performance of groups within the business environment, as Ali (2005) mentions, there are a number of differences between Muslim societies and the Western world; for example, the approach of the group leader to members of the group in the case of unsettled issues in many Muslim

societies is characterised by the use of friendship and emotions to move forward, whereas in the United States and possibly in many other Western countries, there is a tendency to keep business and personal matters separate.

Islam, in terms of work ethics, encourages people to work hard, respect others in the workplace and have good social relations at work (Yousef, 2001). The likely corollary of these traditions can be considered to account for positive influences on the work of organisations as well as their members – e.g. supporting the achievement of successful communication among staff (Yousef, 2001). However, misunderstanding of Islam's principles and guidelines might lead to negative aspects within an organisational work environment. For example, the concept of underperformance is a difficult one for managers operating in the Islamic environment. The religion does not permit a person to be left without any means of supporting him or herself, so for a manager to dismiss an individual for failing to perform to expectations is likely to draw the disapproval of society in general (and probably the manager's superiors as well) towards the manager, rather than the underperforming worker. Moreover, the importance Islam attaches to the formation of good social relations could also be seen as a barrier to effective managerial work; indeed, according to Agnaia (1997), developing good social relationship within the workplace concerns Libyan managers more than the job itself. The result of this concern could affect many parts of a manager's work: for example, they may adopt a different approach to prioritising work commitments than would be expected from a Western perspective; they may make appointments to job positions based on social connection; they may treat underperformance more lightly than might be expected if they have a close social relationship with the worker involved or his/her family.

In Muslim cultures, the behaviours of people, individually as well collectively, are formed and regulated to a great extent by Islam and its tenets (Ali, 1996; 2005). In an Islamic society such as Libya, religion is not a supplement to a person's life, but rather an all-pervasive influence that directs their whole behavior, attitude and approach to life. This is no different at work, and for Libyan managers there is both a societal pressure and a personal drive to act

within the teachings of Islam. Therefore, when a manager is faced with a decision, they are more likely to be guided by their religious convictions than necessarily by the business case as it might be perceived by a Western manager, and where a choice lies between what is in the best interests of the company and what is taught by Islam, the manager will tend to take the latter decision.

Religion has played an important role in shaping differences in people's thinking and behaviours and guaranteeing the permanency of modes of thought and behaviour (Ali, 2005). From this statement it is possible to suggest that a researcher interested in investigating managerial work in an Islamic context should be aware of the implications of the conceptual framework he/she adopts. When adopting a method based on a framework devised within a Western context and based on Western perspectives, such a framework is rooted in cultural, social and religious norms that are alien to the context being investigated, and this has the potential to lead to a clash between expectations and reality that is rooted in centuries of separate development. This in turn suggests that an adapted framework is required before Islamic managerial activities can be considered more objectively.

3.4.1.2 Networks of Influence, or *wasta*

Libyan culture implies an intimately interwoven network of relationships which usually requires time for an individual to establish and uphold (Gorrill, 2009). As a direct consequence of important elements of Libyan society such as personal relationships, along with family affiliations, trust and honour, the concept of *wasta* - a term which can be generally translated as influence on others - is a widespread and pervasive element of Libyan society (Gorrill, 2009). *Wasta*, as a system grounded on the reciprocation of favours, diffuses through almost all aspects of Libyan society and, in particular, it is broadly spread within business contexts (Gorrill, 2009). Indeed, having a network of relationships and/or personal contacts in influential places is of importance to Libyans as, by using those relationships, objectives can be attained more quickly and the route to advancement and benefit is smoothed (Jones, 2008; Gorrill, 2009). For Libyan managers the reciprocal nature of *wasta* can be a double edged sword; on one hand it can make their work easier and less time and resource consuming,

but on the other it might also require them to do a favour that is not in their own interests or that of their organisation.

In Muslim societies, including Libya, personal relationships are considered to be essential and diffuse through all the social domains (Ali, 2005). The business environment in Libya is certainly not an exception in being profoundly subject to the influence of personal relationships; it does really matter to a great extent (UKTI, 2010). By and large, personal relationships as well as family ties are seen by several Libyan researchers to be more important in the process of employing managers than their practical or academic qualifications (Agnaia, 1997); in other words there is an expectation, and social pressure, to offer employment to people within a manager's web of relationships, and a failure to meet these expectations could affect these relationships negatively, meaning that the manager might not be able to call on favours that might speed-up or ease the path of projects they are leading. This is a further instance of how the characteristics of Libyan social environment such as the extended family, clan, tribe, and village play an active role in shaping people's life and the relationships among each other (Agnaia, 1997; Hajjaji, 2012).

3.4.1.3 Social Status

In Libya, personal dignity, respect and the values of social status are considered to be of great importance to all people within the society individually and collectively, and thus they play a significant role in shaping Libyan culture (Gorrill, 2009). For example, if a person is from a respected family and has a respectable social status they are more likely to be trusted in business. Moreover, for managers attempting to form relationships of trust, if a business contact is related to an acquaintance they already have, the manager is more likely to trust this contact because they know they can appeal to the acquaintance should anything go wrong. When considering the social status, it is also worth noting that the deep-rooted tribal structures and loyalties within Libya's society have created a powerful social status for tribe as well as clan leaders, which enables them to have a great influence on their tribe's members in regard to their social life, including work. For managers this influence has both positive and negative aspects; for example, in negotiating the resolution of a dispute a manager might

be able to call on a tribal leader to mediate, or to expedite a solution. Conversely, a manager might feel pressure from a tribal leader to take a decision or pursue a course of action that is in the interests of their tribe and not necessarily those of the organisation.

The matter of building as well as maintaining a good family's reputation is highly valued by members of any given Libyan family (Moran et al., 2010 cited in Eljaaidi, 2012). Indeed, the protection of the honour of one's family and the collective good, for example, is overriding to Libyans (Gorrill, 2009). This means that, in certain contexts, managers might regard the maintenance of honour, or respect for a collective group such as a family, to be an overriding concern that might outweigh normal managerial procedures.

It is thus that the business dealings between two or more parties are affected by the issues of reputation and trust (Gorrill, 2009). In the case of establishing a new contact, where there is no satisfactory ground of knowledge and/or trust, it is strongly advisable to be done via an introduction by someone who already is known and trusted by all parties (UKTI, 2010). Therefore, while it may take a long time for trust to be established, once it is, work can proceed at a faster pace because agreements are taken on trust and a verbal guarantee is regarded as inviolate by both sides.

3.4.1.4 Women in the Workplace

In Libya, the law makes clear that women have equal status with men (Jones, 2008). According to work legislation, women have all the rights necessary to be fully integrated into the job market in Libya. Indeed, there is nothing in the Libyan legal environment that precludes women from being involved in all social and economic activities and taking jobs of any kind or at any level (Abdulla, 2010).

Nevertheless, in practice, the customs and traditions of Libyan society create social obstacles which, to some extent, limit the choices and opportunities of women in regard to work and the job market (Moran et al., 2010 cited in Eljaaidi, 2012). For example, women feel a social pressure not to work far away from

home as this conflicts with the needs of their family and the social responsibilities that they are regarded to hold (Abdulla, 2010); the result of this pressure is that it is difficult for women to rise to senior positions that require managers to spend long periods away from home, for example on foreign travel or visiting workplaces in remote areas of the very large Libyan landmass. Often there would be a societal expectation that if a woman is travelling to a meeting in another city or meeting strangers in a neutral venue she would be escorted by a male family member such as her husband or brother. Furthermore, it is also difficult to disregard society's customs and traditions against the work of women in areas where they mix with men in the workplace in close proximity for long periods, in addition to those jobs that require travelling a long distance and/or staying away from home (Abdulla, 2010). A Libyan manager therefore faces some pressures to observe societal conventions in terms of organising teams under his/her direction so that men and women do not work together in pairs and one woman is not obliged to work with a group of men; such arrangements would be viewed as socially unacceptable. Moreover, in instances such as offering overtime at busy periods, it would be difficult to offer such work to women when societal expectations are that they would be at home attending to family duties.

The work setting is strongly affected by Libyan social environment. In other words, customs and traditions, beliefs and attitudes, personal connections and tribal relationships have a respectable influence on the organisations was well as the work and behaviour of their members in different ways (Al Obeidi, 1995; Agnaia, 1997). For instance, managers interviewed in Agnaia's study (1997) pointed out that as a consequence of unavoidable social influences, they have to obey what their families ask them to do. Another example from the same study showed that meeting visitors - which is considered a form of socialisation - during the official working hours takes much of a manager's time, which indicates the importance of personal relationships within the society, including the work environment, but also a potential conflict between social and workplaces priorities.

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3.4.2 Political-legal Constraints

Politics establish laws and generally regulate the economic and social policies that define a society and by extension the organisations that operate within that society and their work environment. Agnaia (1997) observes that restrictions as well as regulations that are enforced by laws and policies tend to have an effect on decision-making systems within the Libyan organisations, and therefore on the work of managers who make decisions in such organisations. In supporting this, Shernanna (2012) argues that the Libyan management was characterised by a continual state intervention in the work of organisations, especially in appointing the senior managers.

The work of managers within Libyan organisations is influenced by a number of factors related to the political and legal systems extant in Libya, but Agnaia (1997) claims that management behaviour is greatly affected by the uncertainty and instability caused by constantly mutating government policies, and the continual changes in laws, rules, regulations and government organisational structure. Indeed, sometimes the interpretation and application of the new regulations and rules is not obvious for managers, which causes confusion instead of giving guidance.

Furthermore, beyond the formal influence on organisations that politics has in the form of legislation and public policy, there is also, according to Agnaia (1997), more informal political influences that can have an impact in a negative way on the managerial work. For example, decisions on the appointment of managers within organisations may rely on political connections rather than professional competence. Additionally, the political attitude of the state (the attitudes of the regime towards both the national context and other countries) can negatively affect the work of organisations – e.g. limiting their access to imports, exports or increasing the tax rates, preventing or forcing Libyan organisations to trade with specific countries when such trade may not be in their best interest, and requiring managers to take decisions that further public policy objectives rather than the needs of the organisation itself. Moreover, non foreseeable interventions by the central authorities such as changes in

organisational location as well as structure, employment conditions, responsibilities, authorised budgets, and personnel and management appointments, affect the work of managers in terms of increasing the state of instability, which, in one sense, can be considered as counterproductive and costly (Shernanna, 2012). Here, it may worth noting that over the period since the 1969 coup the Libyan administrative system, including the number and type of the state's secretariats, has been subject to continually changes and structural reforms which has led to a highly unstable business environment (Abdulla, 2010; Abubrig, 2012). For example, originally there were two secretariats of industry, light and heavy, and a few years ago a governmental decision was made to unite them together in one secretariat named Industry (Agnaia, 1997); as a result, projects that were under the supervision of a previous secretariat became subject to new supervision, or no supervision at all with no explanation for their rejection and a seemingly arbitrary decision making process. This caused many organisations difficulty in finishing their work.

3.4.3 Economic Conditions

For much of its history as an independent nation, Libya's economic development has been subject to the political needs of its ruler. Economic reform has been used as a tool to reach political rather than economic ends. An example of this can be found in the sudden shift from a mixed economy that existed after the 1969 coup to the socialist state instituted in the early 1970s that saw the nationalisation of all means of production, including the foreign-owned oil producing companies and banks operating in Libya. At the start of 1980 Libyans no longer had the right to own more than one property; so that renting properties was prohibited and tenants becoming instant owners of the properties they had been renting (El-Nakhat, 2006; Gamaty, 2012). This situation had a major effect on the business organisations in general and the (newly nationalised) banks in particular, where managers had their decision making determined by political considerations. A house that no longer belonged to its owner but to the state was not a problem as long as the repayments were paid, but when an owner defaulted on payment the bank had no redress to the state,

and effectively faced a loss, leaving banking managers seeking compromises and solutions that would never be contemplated in a free market.

Another radical economic policy because of Qadhafi's political orientations and views was that workers in both public and private sectors were encouraged to take control of the enterprises in which they worked (El-Nakhat, 2006; Gamaty, 2012). This has obvious implications for Libyan managers; for instance, the workers became partners not wage labourers and as a result they involved themselves in the day-to-day management regardless of any managerial and organisational requirement. Moreover, economic activities in both the public and private sectors were seriously affected; owners lost their own factories in which they were largely funded by commercial banks. Managers within these banks had to deal with this situation.

As late as 2010 the UKTI was advising investors and business people that in Libya, political ideologies and concerns were never far away from the business environment, and the influence of government policies on the management of Libyan organisations throughout the Qadhafi period was heavily dependent on central control of the economy and mass public ownership. The dominance of the public sector in the Libyan economy resulted in a number of negative consequences concerning the work environment (Shernanna, 2012), which in turn affected the Libyan manager's approach to work and decision making. Otman & Karlberg (2007) observe that following mass nationalisation in the 1970s over-staffing in the public sector was a constant problem. The state determined that there should be full employment, and unilaterally appointed Libyan citizens to positions in Libyan organisations whether there was a need for their presence or not. Libyan managers were obliged to find work for these persons even if there seemed no apparent need. In this regard, the government aimed at reducing the unemployment rate as well as creating jobs (Shernanna, 2012). A manager who worked in a state-owned company was in effect a *policy-taker* rather than a *policy-maker* with limited, or no, capabilities to affect the way that employment policies were issued and implemented. Since most state enterprises were also operating in a monopolistic environment there was no competitive impetus to drive employment practices (Shernanna, 2012), and the

government used its oil revenues to pay whatever salaries were necessary to maintain high employment levels.

In addition, centralised government initiatives such as universal access to free healthcare meant that the Libyan population grew rapidly, and as a result the rate of unemployment in 2003 was estimated to be at least 30 per cent, affecting primarily the young (CIA, 2013). In supporting this, Gamaty (2012) argues that during the 1990s inflation rose sharply and the unemployment rate also soared up to be just under 30 percent. As young Libyans left the publically funded universities and sought jobs (Otman & Karlberg, 2007), the already over manned and stagnant public sector was not able to provide them; meanwhile, wages for those that did have jobs were also static. There was no significant change in government wages between 1981 and 2003 when sanctions were finally lifted, and as a result living standards for most Libyans had been eroded by inflation and the rising cost of imports (Jones, 2008; CIA, 2013).

Moreover, bureaucracy and red tape was also an influence on managerial work in Libyan organisations. Shernanna (2012) mentions that the great majority of public sector companies, or all, were indeed suffered from bureaucracy, needlessly time-consuming procedures and the multiple working committees, which resulted in negative impacts on the performance. Not surprisingly, many of decisions taken, for instance, were needed approval not only from the organisation's directors, but from levels of bureaucracy in government ministries and in some cases the GPC itself. This meant that work progressed slowly and was often subject to arbitrary or unexplained delay or cancellation. In this context, Eljaaidi (2012) observes that bureaucracy impacted negatively on the work of Libyan managers and led to complex and inefficient managerial practices. Indeed, Libya's bureaucracy was seen as one of the most formidable in the Middle East (US & FCS, 2006).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter aimed mainly to shed the light on features of the Libyan business environment where managers have to operate, which were considered an

important element to increase the understanding of the nature of Libyan managerial work and behaviour. An overview of Libya in terms of its location and recent history, the characteristics of the society, and political-legal as well as economic environments were presented. As the two sectors (banking and oil) were the subjects of this study, a picture in some detail of their nature and structure was outlined. What is more, there was a discussion in regard to the major influences of the societal, political-legal and economic setting on Libyan business practices, which aided in understanding the effects of the national context on managers' work and behaviours.

The discourse of the Libyan managerial work context throughout the chapter showed that Libyan managers cannot be isolated from their surroundings (Libyan conditions and society). It is thus that Libyan managerial work and behaviour is profoundly subject to influences of the national context. Socially, management in Libya is heavily involved in traditions, tribal loyalties, family patterns, and so on. For example, Libyan managers have to perform their work in an atmosphere within which personal contacts and informal relationships, familial and tribal ties, personal dignity and family's reputation and the heritage of Islam are all highly appreciated. Politically, it is a fact that the Libyan business environment is never far away from political considerations. In other words, managers' work and behaviours in Libya is substantially influenced by the political and legal settings; for instance, the intervention of politics (directly and indirectly) in appointing the organisations' senior management. Economically, Libyan managers work in an economic environment that is deeply affected by the political regime's philosophy and orientations. This, as mentioned previously, has resulted in a number of negative consequences on the work environment of Libyan managers. The literature (e.g. Shernanna, 2012) indicates that by and large, the work of Libyan managers consists to a large extent of balancing the requirements of political decision makers at a state level with the goals and aims of the business itself.

Chapter Four
Research Methodology

Adopting an appropriate methodology has been, and will be, a crucial point in doing research properly. Indeed, methodological considerations are not only an essential requirement to the achievement of a research project but also a necessary tool to identify, and even create, the bridge that links research questions with research findings.

In response to such a challenge, the current chapter addresses the research methodology and methods underlying the research existing in this thesis. It is divided into seven main sections. First of all, there is a brief overview of the research in terms of its purpose and the process of inquiry, followed by an illustration of the approach to methodology adopted within this research. This is intended to provide the reader with a general picture of the research context, and therefore will facilitate building the proper communication between the reader and the writer. Both the third and the fourth sections focus on presenting the methodology of research in terms of how and why the key methodological choices were made to conduct the current research. The fifth section deals with the issues of reliability and validity. Research ethical considerations are discussed in the sixth section. Finally, the conclusion is the last section of this chapter.

4.1 Introduction

It is not possible for the real features of managerial work to emerge correctly and completely without putting them into the context of the broader societal environment within which the manager functions in the workplace. Organisations, as open systems, are subject to the impact of environmental variables on their work and behaviour in certain ways. Consequently, since it is likely that the impact of societal environments differs from one country to

another, the reality of managerial work will become subject to the effects of its national context.

This study examines the nature of Libyan managerial work and the effects of factors deriving from the external environment on it. In other words, the current research is interested in understanding managers' work and behaviour, and in exploring and investigating the impact of national context on the role and work of managers. More specifically, it is an attempt to answer the question *"To what extent is the nature of Libyan managerial work influenced by its own national context?"* To obtain an answer, following the process of research enquiry shown in Figure 4.1 below, a pilot study was conducted consisting of a questionnaire survey of a number of executive managers and a limited number of interviews with key individuals, which were carried out in Libya in 2009 to elicit their views about the main issues affecting the nature of managerial work in general and the influences of the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment on their work in particular.

The existing literature and the findings from the first phase (pilot study) have informed the second stage of the empirical work of the present research, examining the managerial work of executive managers in four different organisations in Libya: two banks and two oil companies. Several semi-structured interviews were undertaken in 2010 which discussed the work of top-level managers in these four organisations to establish whether factors of the external environment affected the managers' work, and whether certain features of the managerial work had been adopted or/and adapted to the Libyan context. The sample of interviewees in both the pilot study and main study consisted only of Libyan nationals, since the issues of culture, tradition, political and legal environment and religion discussed in chapter three were most likely to influence the nature of their work and behaviour. Moreover, the companies the individuals interviewed worked for were Libyan owned organisations, although operating to some degree in international markets. Overall the thesis findings should highlight how deeply the nature of managerial work is influenced by its own national context in Libya, and whether or not the universal practice

assumption can be supported by the managerial work of Libyan managers.

Figure 4.1: The Process of Research Enquiry

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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        The first phase of the fieldwork (pilot study)       │
│   Questionnaire survey/ interviews: questions & areas of    │
│                         enquiry                             │
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                ↙                          ↘
     ┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐
     │  Banking sector  │        │    Oil sector    │
     └──────────────────┘        └──────────────────┘
                ↘                          ↙
     ┌────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
     │ Identifying themes, patterns, and areas for     │
     │              further enquiry                    │
     │          Identifying four case-studies          │
     └────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                         ⇓
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   The second stage of the fieldwork (the main study)       │
│ Semi-structure interviews incorporating documentation /     │
│                      observations                          │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
         ↙         ↓              ↓         ↘
   ┌─────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────┐
   │ ┌──────┐ ┌──────┐  │   │ ┌──────┐ ┌──────┐  │
   │ │ Bank │ │ Bank │  │   │ │ Oil  │ │ Oil  │  │
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   └─────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────┘
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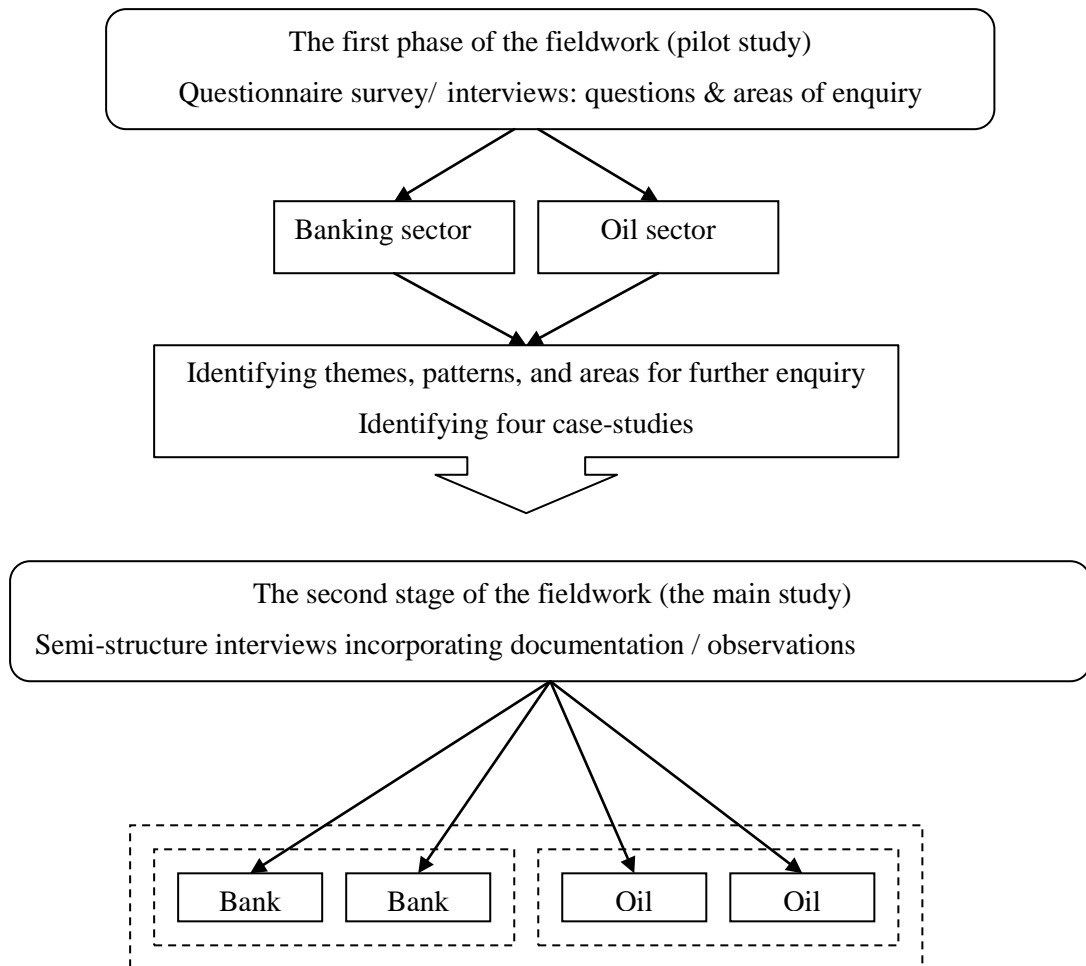
Source: Created by the researcher

4.2 The Approach to the Methodology

In discussing the research methodology and methods it is important to highlight the meaning that has been given to each term used in this study. This is because either different words in the literature of research methodology and methods are used interchangeably, or the same terms are used differently. For example, sometimes both the term 'methodology' and the term 'method' are used to refer

to the same approach. Consequently, an explanation of the terms used in the discussion is given in order to avoid any misunderstanding that might occur in regard to this issue.

In this research, as shown in Figure 4.2, the term methodology basically lies in the responses to two related issues: firstly, the question that concerns how the research is to be conducted; and secondly, the issue that pertains to the justification for selecting a particular way to carry out the research. More specifically, dealing with the research methodology is in fact an explanation as well as a justification of the way that has been chosen to conduct the research.

The explanation of the way to carry out research refers to the selective decisions of employing both research strategy and research methods. In the present research, the research strategy is a mechanism that reflects the researcher's view about how the required data should be collected and analysed in practice. In comparison with the research methods, research strategy concentrates on the rational reasons that lead to the decisions of choosing and utilizing the process of data collection and analysis; whereas in terms of research methods, the concentration is on the practical techniques used to undertake research.

The justification of the selected research strategy and research methods relates to two issues: the philosophy of the research; and the approach to the research. Firstly, in the case of research philosophy, the term philosophy is defined as "the use of reason and argument in seeking truth and knowledge, especially of ultimate reality or of general causes and principles" (Oxford Compact Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1997, p. 557). Likewise, the term 'research philosophy' as used in the current research is consistent with this definition of philosophy. More specifically, it refers to the researcher's beliefs about the nature of reality, and what constitutes valid knowledge. Here, it has to be mentioned that the issue of adopting research philosophies has been discussed under different headings in the literature of research method and methodology, such as research paradigms, and quantitative and qualitative research. Within this research, however, the term of research philosophy has been used to express the researcher's axiological; ontological; and epistemological assumptions,

which guide the research philosophically. Secondly, with regard to the approach to research, the term 'research approach' is considered in the current research as the logic of the research; that is, the research approach refers to the nature of the relationship between theory and research. It determines this relationship in terms of whether research is guided by theory (deductive approach) or whether theory is an outcome of the research (inductive approach).

Figure 4.2: An Illustration of the Approach to Methodology Adopted Within this Research

Objectives *(To be achieved)*

Problem *(To be solved)*

Research

Contribution *(To be provided)*

Questions *(To be answered)*

How to conduct the research regarding these four requirements, and **why** this suits the purpose: *This is a question of Methodology*

Research Strategy

(Case Study)

Research Methods
(Data Collection: interviews, observations & documentation)
(Data Analysis: grounded analysis & case study analysis)

Research Methodology

How?

Why

Research Philosophy
(Ontology: subjectivist; Epistemology: interpretivism; and Axiology: value-laden)

Research Approach

(Inductive)

Source: Created by the researcher

4.3 Research Methodology: *the question of why*

As illustrated in the previous section on the approach to the methodology, the research methodology arises out of two questions: (1) how to meet the research requirements; and (2) why this view of conducting the research had been chosen in particular. In fact, the answer of the second question (why) should come first; that is, selecting research strategy and methods (the answer of how) will not be confirmed unless the justification of this selection has been reached (the answer of why). This could be seen as a matter of thinking (why), and a process of acting (how). So, what follows is to establish a grounding for the decision of opting for a particular research strategy and the methods it will rely on.

4.3.1 Philosophical Foundations

Assumptions about how the world is perceived and how it is understandable are crucial in doing research. These assumptions can be seen as philosophies of research. The research philosophy therefore, in simple terms, is concerned with the way in which the researcher views the world. Besides, it is relevant to the development of knowledge, and the qualities and characteristics of that knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

Philosophical assumptions are one of the most significant factors that affect the methodology and methods on which researchers rely in doing research. Insofar as they can be in accord with the adopted research methodology and methods, the research is more likely to be successful. Therefore, having a clear view about research philosophies in business and management research is not only extremely important but also exceedingly helpful. It is quite clear that there are several reasons that justify the role and significance of research philosophy. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012), for example, observe three rational causes to argue that philosophical considerations warrant such great value. They note:

First, it can help to clarify research designs. This not only involves considering what kind of evidence is required and how it is to be gathered and interpreted, but also how this will provide good answers to the basic questions being investigated in the research. Second, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which designs will work and which will not. It should enable him or her to avoid going up too many blind alleys and should indicate the limitations of particular approaches. Third, it can help the researcher identify, and even create, designs that may be outside his or her past experience. It may also suggest how to adapt research designs according to the constraints of different subject or knowledge structures (p. 17).

It is a vital issue for researchers, before embarking on their enquiries, to identify and adopt a philosophy of research that underpins the research methodology. Otherwise, the quality of research can be seriously affected. In this regard, some authors in the field of methodology and research methods, such as Guba & Lincoln (1994), contend that questions of research methods in terms of importance are secondary to questions of which research paradigm (*research philosophy*) should be adopted. They state:

both qualitative and quantitative methods may be used appropriately with any research paradigm. Questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm, which we define as the basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation, not only in choice of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways (p. 105).

The discourse about the value of research philosophy, which has been mentioned above, may lead up to an incorrect assumption in relation to the most beneficial philosophical position that researchers are seeking to adopt. This could be seen from the perspective that investigators are attempting to evaluate research philosophies without paying attention to both the surrounding circumstances and their investigations' nature and characteristics. In other words,

looking for one research philosophy that is the best in comparison *only* with the rest would produce inappropriate choices. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2007) illustrate this point appositely:

> It would be easy to fall into the trap of thinking that one research approach [meaning research philosophy] is 'better' than another. This would miss the point. They are 'better' at different things. As always, which is 'better' depends on the research question(s) you are seeking to answer (p. 116).

The notion that there is no a research philosophy that is the best is also supported by a number of writers in the field of research methodology and methods. Collis & Hussey (2009), for instance, believe that "one paradigm is not 'right' and the other 'wrong', but you may find that a particular paradigm is more acceptable to your supervisors, examiners or the editors of journals in which you wish to publish your research" (p. 61). Thus, it is obviously noticeable that there is an accord that the research philosophy would be chosen if it is more acceptable and/or fits with the research questions (research requirements). With this in mind, it can be argued that the research philosophy that researchers should adopt depends on: firstly, the nature of inquiry - primarily, the research problem or research questions (inside the research); and secondly, the surrounding circumstances - mainly, the dominant philosophy in the research area (outside the research). Accordingly, it would be reasonable to emphasise that this idea of being *fit* or/and *more acceptable* seems to be useful and capable of justifying and assessing the research philosophy that will be adopted within this research and so what follows is some discussion providing more justification for adopting a particular research philosophy.

4.3.2 The Adopted Research Philosophy

By and large, dealing with a research philosophy entails three different philosophical matters to be taken into consideration. First of all, there are perspectives that are concerned with the nature of reality and being. These are fundamentally relevant to raising questions of "the assumptions researchers have about the way the world operates and the commitment held to particular views"

(Saunders et al., 2009, p. 110). These philosophical positions refer to ontological issues. Secondly, there are issues that relate to the question of what is considered as acceptable knowledge in a field of study. In other words, the question of what should be regarded as valid knowledge and what should not. This can be seen as epistemological considerations. Thirdly and finally, there are axiological standpoints that feed into the ways in which research is carried out. The term of axiology relates to the branch of philosophy that studies and analyses values. In business and management studies, the axiological assumptions are concerned with the role of values in conducting inquiries (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

Arguably, axiological viewpoints as well as ontological and epistemological considerations, in relation to the research philosophy, can be seen as a three-sided polygon. The main reasons for choosing this shape in particular are: firstly, it fits the required number of research philosophy dimensions; and secondly, and most importantly, it perfectly portrays the increase/decrease in the impact of the researcher's values on both ontological and epistemological stances. Moreover, this increase/decrease notion is also applicable to the extent of the researcher's involvement as well as to the form of reality. This is illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3: The Triangle of Research Philosophy

Source: Created by the researcher

90
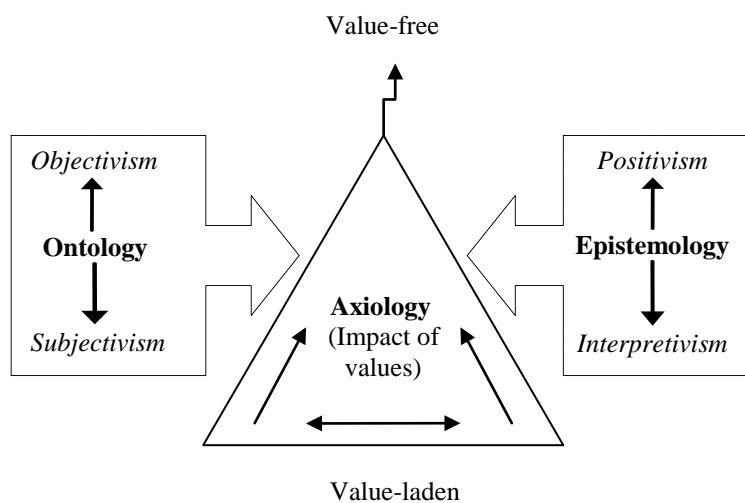
The above figure suggests that the research philosophy should be formed and therefore adopted with regard to three different types of philosophical consideration. Notably, the figure emphasises three philosophical perspectives, since they are the influential components of research philosophy and, in addition, it implies the interrelationships among each other. The following discussion goes into more detail.

4.3.2.1 Ontology (philosophical theory of reality)

On one face of the research philosophy triangle, the ontological assumption is shown as taking place. Ontology can be defined in short as "a branch of metaphysics which deals with the nature of existence" (Jankowicz, 2005, p. 106). It is "a set of beliefs about what the world we are studying actually is" (Lee & Lings, 2008, p. 11). To a great extent, assumptions of ontology are centred on questions of whether social entities do exist in reality external to social actors, or whether they should be regarded as social constructions that are created in our minds. These opposing stances are usually mentioned respectively as objectivism and subjectivism. In essence, objectivism rests on the assumption that reality exists independently of those who live it (outside individuals) and is, therefore, tangible and objective. In other words, as Bryman & Bell (2011) state:

> Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors. It implies that social phenomena and the categories that we use in everyday discourse have an existence that is independent or separate from actors (p. 21).

On the other hand, subjectivism rests on the assumption that reality cannot be separated from those who observe it and that it is, therefore, socially constructed and subjectively experienced. That is, as Saunders et al., (2007) point out:

> The subjectivist view is that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors. What is more, this is a continual process in that through the process of social

interactions these social phenomena are in constant state of revision (p. 108).

4.3.2.2 Epistemology (philosophical theory of knowledge)

The second face of the research philosophy triangle portrays the epistemological assumption. According to Lee & Lings (2008), "epistemology is the study of what we can know about reality to be, and is dependent in many ways on what you believe reality to be" (p. 11). Epistemology deals with knowledge. More specifically, as mentioned briefly above, it creates philosophical grounds for what is regarded as valid knowledge in a discipline. One of the most important aspects in this respect "is the question of whether or not the social world can and should be studied according to the same principles, procedures, and ethos as the natural sciences" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 15). In business and management research, there are a number of different epistemological positions such as positivism, realism, and interpretivism. However, the two most widely-known are interpretivism and positivism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 2002).

Positivism, on one hand, is an epistemological view that recommends the principles and methods of the physical and natural science to be adopted in conducting either social or natural science research. In essence, positivism is centred on the belief that "only phenomena that are observable and measurable can be validly regarded as knowledge. [It tries] to maintain an independent and objective stance" (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 59). Furthermore, as Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998) suggest:

> Being a positivist, or perhaps more correctly a logical positivist, implies that the researcher is working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be the derivation of laws or law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists (p. 32).

Interpretivism (sometimes presented under the rubric of phenomenology), on the other hand, emerged in response to criticisms of positivism. It advocates that the differences between people (the social world) and objects (the natural sciences)

should be considered. Therefore, a different logic of research procedure to study the social world is required (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Fundamentally, interpretivism is built on the belief that "the social world is observed by seeing what meaning people give to it and interpreting these meanings from their viewpoint [and] social phenomena can only be understood by looking at totality" (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2008, p. 21).

4.3.2.3 Axiology (philosophical theory of value)

Generally, values affect a person's conduct and therefore lead to certain behaviour. In this respect, Heron (1996) states that values are the guiding reason of, and have indeed an influence on all human action. Here, in the field of research methodology and methods, the chief concern is to take into account the influences of values on conducting social enquiries. According to Jankowicz (2005), all research is, to a great extent, influenced by a person's beliefs about what should be the accurate form of enquiry. It is worthwhile to underline that the expected role of values is a significant part in regard to the process of research, as they "reflect either the personal beliefs or the feelings of a researcher" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 29). Indeed, according to Saunders et al. (2007), the values that researchers adopt are of great importance regarding their research credibility. Understandably, the expected role of values not only lurks at very beginning point of conducting research- deciding to choose a specific research area- but is also continued throughout all stages of a business and management research process (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Accordingly, the impact of values on dealing with many cases of social research inquiries, including management and organisational behaviour research, should be deemed as an unavoidable element. However, it might be argued that research that has been influenced by a researcher's beliefs and feelings could not be considered valid and scientific, as it merely reflects personal biases. However, it should be appreciated that "such a view is held with less and less frequency among social scientists nowadays ... because there is a growing recognition that it is not feasible to keep the values that a researcher holds totally in check" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 29).

As can be seen from the Figure 4.3, the third and final part that completes the trilateral shape of research philosophy refers to the axiological assumptions. The axiological assumption is shown as having an influence on investigators' ontological and epistemological orientation. This effect could appear in two different ways: firstly, the tendency to adopt subjectivist (ontology) as well as interpretivist (epistemology) philosophical positions is partly determined by the extent of the influence of values on the researcher; secondly, in moving upward on the research philosophy triangle, the influence of values continually decreases and the trend of adopting both objectivist (ontology) and positivist (epistemology) philosophical stances will be therefore continually increased. In this regard, the point at the top and the line at the bottom refer to value-free and value-laden effects respectively.

4.3.2.4 The Combination of Research Philosophy

It is neither practical nor easy to treat the components of research philosophy independently since they are intimately connected to each other. In fact, it seems unmanageable to think about a coherent combination of research philosophy as a sequence of decisions. Rather than such view, it may be more sensible to consider the combination of research philosophy thinking (axiological, ontological and epistemological assumptions) as a circular decision. This means that adopting an appropriate research philosophy necessitates keeping a logical correspondence between each component, and therefore the adopted research philosophy should be borne as a whole of harmonious mixture. In this sense, different combinations that fashion various research philosophies could emerge. However, the major philosophical orientations in the business and management research are (1) a combination (frequently known as positivism) that has a tendency to be grounded on value-free; objectivism; and positivism assumptions and, on the contrary, (2) a combination (frequently known as interpretivism) that is based on value-laden; subjectivism; and interpretivism assumptions. These two opposing views are summarised in Table 4.1. It has to be mentioned that although the differences between these two philosophies can be characterised in several ways, the characterisation presented in the table is mainly to serve the purpose of the discussion at this stage.

Table 4.1: Basic Assumptions of Positivism and Interpretivism

Assumptions about:	Combination 1 (Positivism)	Combination 2 (Interpretivism)
Research object	Research object has inherent qualities that exist independently of the researcher.	Research object is interpreted in light of meaning structure of person's (researcher's) lived experience.
The nature of reality (ontological assumption)	Reality is: Objective, singular, and separate from the researcher.	Reality is: Subjective, multiple, and inseparable (life-world).
What constitutes reliable knowledge (epistemological assumption)	Only phenomena that are observable and measurable constitute valid knowledge. Researcher is independent of that being researched	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience. Researcher interacts with that being researched
The role of values (axiological assumption)	Researcher acknowledges that research is value-free.	Researcher acknowledges that research is value-laden.
Research approach	Deductive Study of cause and effect (categories are isolated beforehand). The purpose of enquiry is to build theories (general statements explain phenomena)	Inductive Study of mutual simultaneous shaping of factors (categories are identified during the process). The purpose of enquiry is to gain sufficient understanding to predict future outcomes.

Source: Adapted from (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002, p. 30; Weber, 2004, p. iv; Jankowicz, 2005, p. 111; Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 58; Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011, p. 16).

In the case of this research, and this researcher, interpretivism (combination 2) is the adopted research philosophy. To explain the reasons for adopting this philosophical view in particular, it is necessary to focus on the differences between positivism and interpretivism as shown in Table 4.1. These differences can be discussed in terms of their reflections on the adopted research philosophy and the methodology of research as follows:

4.3.2.4.1 The Object of Research

To discover the role of the research object (the phenomena that is under investigation) in shaping the philosophy of this research it is firstly important to revisit the aims and questions of the research. The current research seeks to

explore and understand the nature of Libyan managerial work within its national context, including the impact of the societal environment on it. For this purpose, therefore, four objectives have been addressed, as follow:

- To explore the features of the nature of managerial work in Libyan organisations;
- To map and analyse the nature of the managerial work of Libyan managers;
- To determine how the nature of managerial work in Libyan organisations is influenced by its national context; and
- To examine to what extent the assumption of universal managerial work is supported by Libyan managerial work.

In order to accomplish these objectives, three research questions have been designed, as follow:
- What are the fundamental characteristics of managerial work in Libyan organisations?
- How do Libyan managers perceive their managerial work? and
- How does the national context make the managerial work of Libyan managers distinctive?

It is apparent from these aims and questions that the emphasis in the present research is on understanding rather than explaining or predicting. Indeed, the main concern is to explore and understand the nature of Libyan managers' activities and how these activities have been affected by Libya's national milieu. Deliberately, the pilot study was primarily aimed at bringing forth themes, patterns, and areas for further enquiry in order for the overriding goal of the research (understanding) to be efficiently achievable. Thus, the research object, instead of embodying measurable and independent objects, has an intentionally interpretive basis.

4.3.2.4.2 Ontological and Epistemological Assumptions

Positivists believe that reality is singular, separate, and exists externally and independently of those who observe it. They claim to be able to build valid knowledge of a reality that exists beyond the human mind. In addition, reality that is objectively measured provides the basis of human knowledge. By contrast, interpretivists believe that reality is multiple, inseparable and exists through experience of it. They recognise that building acceptable knowledge of reality exists through a social construction of the world. Furthermore, reality that is subjectively created in our minds supplies the foundation for human knowledge. The ontology and epistemology adopted in this research accepts that reality cannot be separated from the individual who observes it (subjectivism) and therefore knowledge of that reality is interpreted by both participant and observer (interpretivism). This means that the real feature of Libyan managerial work can and should be unlocked, conveyed and hence understood through the interpretations of those who observe it. It is in fact my belief that aiming to understand the nature of managerial work within its national context can be best attained by valuing highly the experiences of individuals, which they have had throughout their lives (life-world).

4.3.2.4.3 Value Judgements

In this study, the role that my values have played in conducting the present research has been made as evident as possible. Indeed, I have been concerned with the matter of the influence of values on the research process since I began doing my PhD study. The first issue that my values had an impact on was the choice of an appropriate research area to be dealt with. Although there were several reasons that stood strongly behind my decision to select a topic that focused on managerial work and behaviour, my values were underlying causes for such a choice. This influential role of values was indeed predictable in my case because: firstly, my previous research experience had been primarily linked with the study of managerial performance; and secondly, my job as a member of staff in the University of Benghazi (previously the University of Garyounis) as well as my undergraduate and Master's degrees were essentially bound up with the field of management and organisational behaviour.

In addition, it might be useful to point out that the influences of my values grew while I was working at the stage of the adoption of a research philosophy. At that phase, I had a feeling that producing valid knowledge (epistemological issue) as well as capturing the nature of reality (ontological issue) was affected somehow by the values that researchers had. This feeling became stronger during my experience of conducting the pilot study of the research, and turned into belief by the time a research philosophy was adopted. I recognised during this experience that staying as close as possible to the subject being investigated would serve the research process better than an attempt at objectivity. Indeed, by minimising the distance between the researcher and that which is researched, data became more obtainable and reliable. Therefore, this resulted in my ontological (subjectivism) and epistemological (interpretivism) positions being decided with regard to the way that I believed was most suitable and feasible.

4.3.2.4.4 The Approach to the Research

Basically, there are two opposing views regarding the approach to research: deduction and induction. A deductive approach "entails the development of a conceptual and theoretical structure prior to testing through empirical observation" (Gill & Johnson, 2002, p. 34). It focuses on scientific principles, operationalisation of concepts, highly structured approach, samples of sufficient size, the necessity of the independence of that being researched, moving from theory to data, collecting valid quantitative data, and explaining causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2009). An inductive approach, on the other hand, is defined as "an approach to developing or confirming a theory that begins with concrete empirical evidence and works toward more abstract concepts and theoretical relationships" (Neuman, 2006, p. 60). Its emphasis is on acquiring understanding of the meanings that individuals attach to events, gaining a close understanding of the research circumstance, having a flexible structured approach to allow changes, the researcher's participation in the research process, and the collection of qualitative data (Saunders et al., 2009). In this regard, it may be worth mentioning that both deductive and inductive approaches are different kinds of research, and therefore each of them has indeed its own way to contribute differentially to knowledge. In addition, what matters in choosing a credible research approach depends crucially on

issues that are associated with the nature and characterises of both the research and the researcher, such as the research questions, as well as the researcher's ontological and epistemological position.

Instead of deductively utilising or testing pre-existing hypothesis, I realised that the current study would need to be inductive. Essentially, the inductive logic was regarded as the most appropriate approach to this piece of research for several reasons. First of all, it is in fact harmonious with my ontological and epistemological position as being reflected, respectively, by subjectivism and interpretivism stances. Here, it is valuable to emphasise that the inductive reasoning, to a great extent, corresponds with the essence of an interpretivist philosophical view and is highly consistent with its basic beliefs. Indeed, this is strongly supported by the literature of research methodology and methods, in which it has been indicated that studies that adopt interpretivism typically employ an inductive approach.

Secondly, the main aim of this study is to explore and, most importantly, to understand the individual and shared sense of meaning regarding the work and behaviours of Libyan managers, as well as the impact of the Libyan societal environment on it. Therefore, since the emphasis here is on understanding the meaning attached to the nature of managerial work rather than on explaining or identifying causal effects, it is clear that there is a pressing need for the research to be inductive rather than deductive.

Thirdly, the inductive approach was considered as the most appropriate in order to meet the research purpose and questions. In this respect, the research questions were designed based on the fact that there is a strong need to investigate and understand the nature of managerial work in developing and non-western countries, and this is consistent with Libya, which is the subject of the current study (Stewart, 1989; Pearson & Chatterjee, 2003). Although studying managerial work has a long history and there has been extensive research regarding managers' work and behaviour, it is a fact that the majority of managerial work research has been done in western contexts.

Finally, this research is interested in examining whether or not managerial activities around the world can be considered to be a universal practice. This goal could be reached by either testing an existing theory or hypothesis that has been already formulated, in order to establish sufficient evidence that indicates the similarity of managerial work everywhere (deductively employed), or by starting with no pre-existing hypothesis or theory (inductively applied) in order to recognise the nature of managerial work in as many as possible different contexts, whereupon a comparison should be made. In this regard, it can strongly be argued that the deductive approach is only useful in as far as there are no significant differences across countries and cultures that are under the investigation of the universality of managerial work. Therefore, since Libya is most likely to be considerably dissimilar to the countries and cultures in which the literature of managerial work has been generated and developed, the inductive approach was regarded as the most appropriate choice in order to examine the nature of Libyan managerial work.

4.4 Research Methodology: *the question of how*

In the previous section, an attempt was made to justify the adopted research philosophy and the approach to the research as an answer to one side of the research methodology question; namely, why the research was conducted. This section covers the other side of the adopted research methodology by illustrating the research strategy as well as the research methods; in other words, how the research was conducted. The following sub-sections present discussions to justify the employment of a particular research strategy and research methods.

4.4.1 The Adopted Research Strategy

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter (section 4.2, Approach to the Methodology), the research strategy is seen in the current research as a mechanism that reflects the researcher's view about how the required data should be collected and analysed in practice. To uncover and explore in-depth

the phenomenon under investigation (Libyan managers' work activity and the influences of the societal environment on it), it was decided to adopt a case study strategy as the research strategy for the present research. The next subsections present discussions to justify the use of such strategy.

4.4.1.1 Case Studies Definition

The case study can be seen as one of several ways of conducting social science research, which assist in increasing the understanding of our world. Indeed, as Yin (2009) points out: "the case study is used in many situations to contribute to our knowledge of individual, group, organisational, social, political, and related phenomena" (p.4).

Robson (2002) defines case study as "a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence" (p. 178). Yin (2009) provides a comprehensive twofold definition of case study as follows:

(1) A case study is an empirical inquiry that [a] investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when [b] the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. […] (2) The case study inquiry [a] copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result [b] relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to coverage in a triangulating fashion, and as another result [c] benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis (p. 18).

4.4.1.2 Why Choose a Case Study?

Case study was the preferred research strategy for this piece of research; it was selected for its potential to explore and understand the nature of Libyan managerial work within its national context.

By and large, adopting case study research is preferable if: firstly, the research questions are 'how' or 'why' questions; secondly, the researcher cannot

sufficiently control actual behavioural events and; thirdly, the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within a natural setting (Yin, 2009). Here, it is important to note that this research was designed to investigate the work of Libyan managers taking into consideration the impact of the external environment on it. For this purpose, two 'how' questions related to the three research questions were being posed; they were:

How do Libyan managers perceive their managerial work?

How does the national context make the managerial work of Libyan managers distinctive?

The description of a case study provided by Robson (2002) and Yin (2009) fitted this piece of research as it was investigating the work and behaviour of top-level Libyan managers and to what extent this work was influenced by its external environment in four different case studies - their real-life context. Moreover, evidence was gathered through a range of different methods, namely: interview, observation, examining documentation. Furthermore, the empirical work of the present research consists of two stages: the pilot study and the main study. The latter was informed by the findings of the pilot study as well as the existing literature, which means that the conducting of case-studies (the main study) benefited from prior research.

By employing case-studies in studying the nature of Libyan managerial work, the opportunity to collect data from participants in their working environments; to capture data rich in detail; and to have a considerable degree of flexibility to manage and explore issues raised from participants during conducing the research was indeed feasible.

The researcher's interest in the nature of managerial work and in the influence of society and culture upon it began with the literature review; in particular the work of Mintzberg (1973) was influential in terms of presenting a close analysis of a small group of research subjects who were examined in detail through observations and the analysis, including extensive records of ingoing and outgoing communications. As mentioned in the literature review, following the review of cultural theories applied to management, many empirical studies are

enriched with evidence obtained at the micro-level and particularly from small scale and in-depth studies which incorporate at least some element of observation. Moreover, highly influential previous research (e.g. Carlson, 1951; Mintzberg, 1973; Matthaei, 2010) has often adopted a research strategy that considers a small number of research subjects but often a large number of variables in order to profoundly study the phenomenon under investigation.

The use of the case study strategy becomes widely accepted for social science research (Silverman, 2001). Indeed, the use of case study within management research has been increased dramatically in the recent years (Parker & Roffey, 1997 cited in El-Nakhat, 2006). When the researcher began the research process with the pilot study he was already interested in completing the data collection with case study interviews. The conviction that this was the most effective solution was confirmed by the researcher's experience of collecting data for the pilot study; in many cases access to senior staff was difficult and time consuming to obtain and obstacles such as security checks and long travelling distances made data collection arduous. Therefore, once the pilot study data had been analysed, it became clear to the researcher that the best way to proceed was to select a small sample of companies from two economic sectors to concentrate the research within, so that rich data could be collected from a large number of respondents within a small number of companies, in order to avoid unnecessary duplication of security checks, establishing *bona fide* and lengthy travel to interviews.

The two sectors selected were banking and the oil industry. The rationale for this choice lay in the following considerations:

They are the two most productive and longest established sectors in the Libyan economy and represent the two pillars that hold up all other economic activities.

They are stable in terms of the makeup of the companies in each sector and the long history most companies in each sector have.

The documentary evidence available on each sector is relatively reliable and comprehensive; in particular annual reports were available and many companies had websites that offered valuable information such as the membership of the companies' boards of directors.

The present research is a multiple-case design under which four Libyan organisations were selected - two banks and two oil companies. This therefore allowed comparative case-studies to be made, and thus some theoretical explanations of similarities and differences to be suggested. In respect to the unit of analysis, although comparisons were made between the individual managers as well as between the two sectors as will be shown in discussing data analysis, the unit of analysis was considered to be the organisation.

4.4.2 Research Methods

Research methods, as previously mentioned, are principally influenced by the researcher's options concerning the research philosophy, approach, and strategy. For this piece of research, all these options, in addition to the research method, are strongly linked together, and as a result contribute to the research methodology. In essence, research methods (methods, techniques or procedures) are considered to be an outcome of decisions regarding the manner of data collection and analysis. In the current research, the data collection and analysis process were fulfilled via two sequential stages - the pilot study and then the main study, which are together constitute the empirical work of this research. A description of both phases is provided below.

The Pilot Study

The main aims of conducting this pilot study were to obtain an overview of the nature and characteristics of Libyan managerial work and how it is influenced by its external context in the banking and oil sectors; to diagnose and uncover themes, issues and research areas for further inquiry; and to investigate which banks and oil companies would co-operate in being the case-studies for the next phase - the pilot study will be described in detail in Chapter 5.

The banking and oil sectors are the most important and influential sectors in the Libyan economy. Moreover, the nature of work in these sectors necessitates a high degree of interaction with foreign organisations, which is expected to increase the credibility of participants' responses due to the opportunity they have to observe the work of managers in foreign companies and compare this

with their own work. Moreover, the fact that around one third of all the managers had undertaken some of their tertiary education abroad also gives a dimension on comparability, in this case between the management principles and theories they were taught and the actuality of their practice.

4.4.2.1 Pilot Study's Data Collection Methods

A questionnaire survey (see appendix A) that targeted top-level managers and a limited number of semi-structured interviews with key individuals were the data collection methods of the pilot study. What follows is an overview of these two data collection methods.

In designing the questionnaire the researcher was chiefly led by the work of Mintzberg (1973) and Skinner (1964). The section in the questionnaire that collected data on the day-to-day nature of managerial work was derived from Mintzberg, as is the case with many primary research instruments of this kind conducted since he first published *The Nature of Managerial Work.* This section of the questionnaire (question 8, containing 34 items investigating managerial work roles) was designed to collect data on what Libyan managers actually did. This was followed by a question (10, which included external environment factors) derived from Skinner, who proposed that in all societies managerial work is influenced by the environment in which it occurs, and categorised these influences as Economic, Political-legal, and Socio-cultural. Although Skinner's work is now fifty years old, it remains highly regarded and the set of environmental factors he devised continues to be used in primary research all over the world (for example see Worthington & Britton, 2006). Skinner also included technology in his group of influences, but the researcher excluded this issue from consideration in this study as his observation of Libyan organisations indicated that technology has not recently had a major influence on changing the nature of managerial work in Libya.

First of all, the questionnaire was distributed through the department of Human Resources Management in each organisation in both sectors. In rare cases, where there was no such managerial unit, the questionnaire was handed out via the general manager of the organisation. A number (111) of questionnaires were

retrieved and then analysed. Generally, the questionnaire consisted of three main parts. The first section was about information concerning the background of the individual manager - e.g. gender; age, qualifications etc. The second part focused on the properties and nature of participants' managerial work. Particularly, this section was designed to measure both the importance and the frequency of managerial activities. These activities, as proposed by Mintzberg - managerial work roles - were scored as responses on a five-point Likert scale. The scale was mostly adopted from a number of similar studies (e.g. Lubatkin et al., 1997). The questionnaire therefore used validated items from previous research. However, the questionnaire items were modified where it was necessary to fit the Libyan context; it was also translated into Arabic. The questionnaire was therefore subjected to 'back translation' to ensure linguistic and conceptual equivalence. The third part of the questionnaire was intended to exploring the extent of the influence of external environment on the work of top-level managers. This was aimed at eliciting participants' views regarding the impact of external environment on their work activities. A variety of external environment factors were provided with the possibility of allowing the participants to add others if they wanted to.

Secondly, several interviews with key managers were conducted in order to achieve the purpose of this pilot study (see appendix C for the Pilot Study interview schedule). Over a period of two weeks, five semi-structured interviews in five different organisations - three banks and two oil companies - were completed. All interviews were done and recorded with the participants' consent and in a comfortable atmosphere. The interviews were originally conducted in Arabic, which is the language spoken and written in Libya, and then translated into English, as described in the paragraph above. The participants were given the opportunity to refuse to answer any question or to withdraw from the interview at any time and without reasons being provided. The semi-structured interviews also aimed to identify the nature of Libyan managerial work and the effects of the external environment on it. However, the interview questions and the questioning technique were, in comparison with the questionnaire, unalike.

4.4.2.2 Pilot Study's Data Analysis Methods

Since different data collection methods were used in collecting the pilot study data, different techniques of data analysis were therefore employed. In other words, the analysis of data collected from questionnaires as well as interviews required utilising two different forms of technique. First, the questionnaire data were analysed in accordance with descriptive statistical procedures, namely: frequencies; percentages; arithmetic and weighted averages; standard deviation; and coefficient of variation. Secondly, the analysis of interview qualitative data was informed by the qualitative data analysis technique suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994), known as: The Qualitative Data Analysis Protocol (QDAP). Broadly speaking, it consists of several techniques, from which the data collected can simultaneously be summarised and simplified, classified, and interpreted. Saunders et al., (2012, p. 564) describe Miles & Huberman's (1994) method as having three concurrent sub-processes, which are: data reduction; data display; and drawing and verifying conclusions. The number of interviews conducted in the pilot study (five) meant that the researcher was able to achieve data reduction by seeking the commonalities in the data presented. This then enabled the display of these data as a selection of indicative responses to each interview question, which reflected the meaning of the respondents in their own words. In terms of drawing and verifying conclusions, certain areas of managerial work were identified as different/similar from what is proposed as typical in the literature and therefore requiring further research in the main study.

The Main Study

The findings from the first phase as well as the existing literature have informed the second stage of the empirical work of the present research examining the managerial work of top-level managers in four different organisations in Libya: two banks and two oil companies, (for a full explanation of how the Pilot study informed the main study see section 5.5 and in particular figure 5.1). A number (25) of semi-structured interviews were undertaken in 2010 about the work and activities of executive managers in the selected organisations to establish whether factors of the external environment affected the managers' work, and whether certain features of the managerial work had been adopted or/and adapted to the Libyan context.

4.4.2.3 Main Study's Data Collection

Once case-studies are adopted as a research strategy, pertinent data can be collected in a variety of ways. Yin (2009) observes that a set of important sources of evidence can be used, which are: "Documentation; Archival records; Interviews; Direct observations; Participant-observation; and Physical artefacts" (p.102). For the present research it was decided to collect the relevant data using three different sources, namely: interviews; documentation; and observations. These methods of data collection are presented below.

4.4.2.3.1 The Role of the Researcher in Data Collection

In conducting qualitative research a researcher must be mindful that his beliefs, outlook and existing knowledge have an influence on how he conducts his research. Therefore an account of the researcher's role in data collection, and the efforts made to overcome bias and maintain objectivity as far as possible is necessary. One issue that concerned the relationship between the researcher and the participants in the data collection (interviewees) was the sensitive topic of data protection and the maintenance of anonymity. A number of respondents were worried with regard to the potential for information leakage that might harm their managerial positions and/or social status. This issue was resolved by providing every possible guarantee and assurance, as these were strongly required by those interviewees. Respondents were assured that their anonymity would be by all means maintained and that the University of Gloucestershire's Code of Practice with regard to research would be observed. For example, for some interviews, the voices of the interviewees were not recorded, and throughout the present research the respondents' identities are hidden by the use of codenames, while direct quotations are never attributed to a particular individual. Moreover, for those interviews that were recorded the data files were kept in a secure database, with each interview identified only by a codename. The assurance of anonymity was very important in gaining the trust of the interviewees and once gained ensured that rich and revealing perceptions were given in the interviews. The extent of the trust gained can be evidenced by the access the researcher was given in many cases to long periods with the interviewees and the access he was given to certain pertinent personal and formal documents such as letters, job descriptions and diaries.

Although the researcher obtained formal letters - from the Department of Graduate Studies at the University of Benghazi (previously known as the University of Garyounis) - addressed to the organisations within the banking and oil sectors in order to gain their help regarding the collection of the required data, access to the interviewees would not have been achievable without using the researcher's personal and social network. In fact, in the Libyan context a formal letter that encourages others to provide the help and support to the researcher - unless it has been issued by a higher authority - does not usually meet its purpose. However, it can be very helpful if it is accompanied by a recommendation from a member of the researcher's personal and/or social relationships who is also known to the interviewee. Although there is an article in Libyan law requiring public bodies to cooperate with students while they are conducting their research (Elkrghli 2010, p. 169), research and researchers in the Libyan context are, generally, not welcome. Nevertheless, with the correct introduction the researcher can make him/herself an exception. That is, effective preparations before entering the site will indeed increase the possibilities of gaining the desired involvement.

Problems identified from the pilot study

In conducting the pilot study the researcher encountered a number of unexpected problems that made data collection more time-consuming and arduous. Among these problems were:

- Appointments that were cancelled or rescheduled at the last minute.
- An initial difficulty establishing a feeling of trust and rapport between the researcher and respondents, despite sharing the same language and culture.
- Inconsistencies and inaccuracies in terms of data, both between publications such as company reports and observable reality, and between databases in organisations such as the Central bank of Libya, company annual financial reports and websites and data available from government departments.

Following the pilot study the researcher developed several strategies that made the process of data collection in the main study more effective. These strategies included:

- Making appointments well in advance and confirming them several times in the lead up to the day of meeting.

- Trying to have more than one meeting with respondents in order to build up trust and confidence. For example, in the main study the researcher generally visited respondents initially only to introduce himself and deliver a copy of the interview questions. This allowed a social bond to develop, which made the subsequent interview meeting much more open and cooperative. Moreover, allowing interviewees to have foresight of the interview questions made them relaxed and cooperative in the interviews themselves, as they were not expecting anything uncomfortable or likely to cause embarrassment. In these initial meetings the researcher also asked permission to record observations in the main interview and explained how these observations would be used to augment the interview data as a point of comparison or confirmation. Interviewees were offered the opportunity to see all notes taken in the interviews immediately after its conclusion and to object to the inclusion of any observation they felt was inaccurate or contained information prejudicial to themselves or another employee. Some interviewees did ask for certain observations to be deleted.

- The researcher also used his personal social network to establish contact with respondents he particularly wanted to speak to; this often meant that a friend of a friend made the initial contact and established the researcher's *bona fide* to the respondent.

In light of the researcher's experience, the following guidance can be offered in terms of the preparations that need to be made before attempting to implement a

research design, particularly in the Libyan context. These preparations should include:

1- Familiarise yourself with the targeted research population and, if it is possible, it is of great importance to make a preliminary survey before starting the field work.

2- Respect for the Respondent's time:

- Investigate the best days/time to meet them (availability).
- Be flexible in making and changing appointments; accept unplanned arrangements; and take into account the possibility of last minute rearrangements.

3- Take care to ensure the respondent's cooperation:

- Assess the respondent's character and take advice from members of a social network that introduce you to new respondents. In some cases it might be necessary to drop a question to a particular respondent, or phrase it in a different way.
- Be aware of the implications of your data collection methods. Some people may not be willing to undertake a lengthy interview, while others may regard a questionnaire as inadequate to express the opinions they hold.
- Ensure that respondents are comfortable with the atmosphere that data collection is conducted within.
- Use whatever personal and social network you have access to.

The conduct of the pilot study was extremely useful to the researcher and ensured that the interview process for the main stage of the study was smooth and well organised. It taught the necessity of being well organised but flexible to the needs of the interviewee, and the necessity to record all observations and data as fully as possible, with these data being immediately reviewed while the researcher's memory of events was still fresh.

4.4.2.3.2 Interviews

The interview is a widely employed method in qualitative research, and in case-study research it is one of the essential sources of information (Yin, 2009).

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According to Merriam (1998), "in qualitative research, interviewing is often the major source of qualitative data needed for understanding the phenomenon under study" (p.93). Indeed, it has several advantages for researchers, which may be crucial in conducting their research. Sarantakos (2005) identifies a number of advantages in using interviews, such as: providing a means of flexibility; enabling the researcher to observe non-verbal behaviour; the opportunity to correct any misunderstanding; and it is easy to administer and results in a high response. The interviews can be classified in different ways, one of which is commonly used and distinguishes three types of interview according to their structure level; these are: structured; semi-structured; and unstructured interviews (Saunders et al., 2009). To a great extent, structured interviews are consistent with quantitative research whilst the others are more appropriate for qualitative research. If the researcher knows exactly what information is needed and has predetermined questions that will be put to the respondents, structured interviews are indicated (Sekaran, 2003). This is not the case for this piece of research as its qualitative nature has already been discussed. In unstructured interviews, "there is no predetermined list of questions to work through in this situation, although you need to have a clear idea about the aspect or aspects that you want to explore" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 321). Bryman (2012) identifies the semi-structured interview thus:

> This is a term that covers a wide range of instances. It typically refers to a context in which the interviewer has a series of questions that are in the general form of an interview schedule but is able to vary the sequence of questions. The questions are frequently somewhat more general in their frame of reference from that typically found in a structured interview schedule. Also, the interviewer usually has some latitude to ask further questions in response to what are seen as significant replies (p. 212).

This description provided by Bryman (2012) of a semi-structured interview fitted the present research in terms of the selection of an appropriate data collection method. It is encouraging to note that the previous stage of this empirical work, which aimed at identifying themes and issues for further inquiry,

allowed a list of general questions to be formed. Therefore, the first step toward using semi-structured interviews in collecting the data of main study was achieved. By acknowledging that the semi-structured interview allows the researcher to explore and understand the issues being investigated and to mine a rich source of information from respondents, the decision to employ semi-structured interviews in this research was made. The questions that were used during the interviews for the selected case studies were:

a) Could you describe a typical day in your work as a manager in your current position - yesterday or the day before for example, if you consider it as a typical day?

b) Could you explain the qualities and characteristics of the work and activities that you engage in as a manager in your current position?

c) What would you say to describe the requirements of your work in terms of managerial relationships and communication inside and outside the organisation?

d) Could you classify the activities which make up your work as a manager in your current position into key groups, with an explanation that identifies the sub-activities inside each main group? (Please give an estimate of the percentage of your time spent on each).

e) On the basis of your experience and actual everyday work-life in the current position, could you clarify a list of routine and non-routine tasks that you do?

f) As a part of this organisation, what do consider to be the contribution that you - as a manager in your current position - add to the organisation's success? (Please cite examples wherever possible).

g) To what extent do 'informal relationships' within your organisation affect your managerial work, and in what ways? (Please give examples from actual events and your experience).

h) Could you explain the effects of the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment on your work and behaviour, and how your work is influenced? (Please give examples as much as possible).

i) As a leader or a member of the top management team, what would you say concerning your experience with such teams, including the way that the team was established, team tasks, roles of the leader and members, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the team?

4.4.2.3.3 Documentation

In addition to the interviews, documents were inspected as this provided the researcher with another important source of information about the phenomenon under investigation. Documents are widely used and, in the case study research, documentary information makes a contribution in almost every case-study investigation (Yin, 2009). Documentation can be used to significantly support evidence from other sources in case-study research. Indeed, as Yin, (2009) observes "the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources" (p. 103). It is worth noting documentary evidence as just mentioned by Yin (2009) can fairly be expected to strengthen the current research in terms of assisting in establishing the construct validity of the phenomenon.

In this study the documents that were inspected applied mainly to the work of the top managers who were interviewed within the four selected cases (organisations), and the two sectors - banking and oil. A variety of documents were studied; in addition to the published reports of the CBL and the Annual Reports of the companies studied, the researcher also had access to a number of documents pertinent to the work of the Libyan managers under investigation, including letters to and from these managers, available job descriptions, charts of organisational structures, and perhaps most usefully the register of written decisions kept by each manager. These registers are usually specified by the manager's employer as a form of administrative process to assist with record keeping, but they are also popular with managers as they provide a written record of orders given to individuals with days and times, so that if there is later

any dispute about details managers can refer to the register for clarification. This system provides the kind of protection given in Western organisations by email threads; email is not widely used in Libyan organisations. Some managers permitted access to these registers and they gave the researcher an invaluable insight into the nature of managerial work undertaken by the managers being interviewed. The registers, together with some examples of both personal and formal letters to managers requesting decisions on issues such as training and financial help to employees combined with letters from the managers outlining decisions on routine matters gave a very useful context to place the interview data within. The researcher was able to compare the description given by managers of the work they undertook with letters and other documents that showed the work undertaken and the decisions made. In addition, some managers were willing to show the researcher a job description of the role they were in, and this provided the researcher with a point of comparison between what the employer expected the role to be, and what it actually was based on the interview data and observations made by the researcher. In light of the research conducted, the researcher contends that in assessing the nature of managerial work in a country, sector or organisation access to the ingoing and outgoing mail is much more useful than published organisational documents such as the annual report. Much of this material was only viewed by the researcher and as it included names and personal decisions it was not possible to take copies; however, with the permission of the respondent the researcher recorded information on the nature of the work related to the documents seen in his field notes.

4.4.2.3.4 Observations

Within case study research, researchers will find themselves creating the opportunity for employing direct observations as they are targeting the 'case' in its natural setting (Yin, 2009). Generally speaking, observing can be considered as another method to gather and to record information concerning people and their behaviour and activities in their natural work surroundings by describing what they actually do (Sekaran, 2003). Moreover, observation is seen as augmenting the data collected through interviews; as Easterby-Smith et al., (2012) observe the role of the researcher as an observer "provides a model for

what is often seen as the participant observation method: spending a period of time in a particular setting and combining observation with interviews" (p. 147).

When researchers decide to apply observation as a tool for collecting data, it is important that they should be able to translate what is observed into their own written record in a reliable and accurate way for valuable data results. For this research, non-participant observations were made of Libyan top-level managers' work and activities across the four selected cases. The non-participant observations, where researchers observe and record their own observations without being involved, are regarded as the most common type of observations in business research (Collis & Hussey, 2014). The researcher kept field notes and recorded his observations of the way Libyan managers structured their time and had some experience of the problems that occurred for managers over the course of a working day. Generally, an interview with a manager consisted of about 60-70 minutes of question and answer time, but due to pressures of work, interruptions and other distractions this time was often spread over a whole working day, allowing the researcher a valuable opportunity to observe the work of Libyan managers at first hand. Indeed, the fact that most interviews were regularly interrupted by demands on the managers' time is itself a valuable observation of the nature of managerial work. Moreover, the researcher was able to assess through observation the demands on managers in terms of workload and compare this with their statements in the interview data and with documentation he was given access to. As an example: one top manager at one of the oil company case studies described the nature of his work as mostly technical, dealing with maintenance and repair of oil extraction equipment. When the researcher asked to view this manager's job description as a piece of documentary evidence, he was willing to show it but mentioned that he spent most of his time and effort on conducting work of a technical nature. Furthermore, the observations of this interview (recorded in the researcher's field notes) confirmed that the interruptions (phone calls, people entering his office) were all of a technical nature, so that in this case the elements of documentation and observation served to confirm the interview data.

Observation was also useful in revealing the nature of Libyan organisations and the effect of this on managerial work. For example, in one interview the top (banking) manager involved complained of a very heavy workload and the amount of decisions he had to make or confirm in the course of the day. This complaint was seen to be justified by the observations made by the researcher of constant interruptions of the interview to sign documents and handle phone calls on routine matters. When the researcher probed more deeply with follow up questions, the interviewee was able to provide insight into the nature of hierarchy in Libyan organisations and the reluctance of employees to take responsibility for decisions without gaining approval from a superior.

A further example may be useful to illustrate how the elements of interview data, observation and documentations were combined, often in the same setting and at the same time. In one interview, the (banking) top manager involved was obliged to take a phone call from a more junior employee to resolve a misunderstanding. The researcher was able to observe this conversation within the context of an interview, and at the same time the manager involved showed the researcher a document on his desk that explained the misunderstanding and helped to understand the nature of internal communication in this Libyan organisation. In one moment the elements of observation, documentation and interview data came together, giving the researcher rich data to compare the interview findings against. Observations were collected as field noted during the interviews; if the interviews were recorded the field notes were a separate data source, if interviewees declined to be recorded the observation notes augmented the interview notes. The researcher reviewed all data immediately after interviews in all cases to ensure a true and accurate record of the statements given, the documents seen and the observations made.

4.4.2.4 Main Study's Data Analysis

The method of data analysis adopted was informed by the grounded theory approach of Strauss & Corbin (1998). The influence of these authors' grounded theory approach lay in its potential to be a powerful vehicle to provide profound insights into managers' work and behaviour within their national context, leading therefore to building an explanation or discovery of a theoretical basis of

Libyan managerial work. Indeed, as Saunders et al., (2007) state: "as an analysis process it [meaning grounded theory] was developed to build an explanation or to generate a theory around the core or central theme that emerges from your data" (p. 499).

The qualitative analysis of the collected data consists of two sets of analysis processes: grounded analysis and case study analysis. The first of these follows the technique in which the collected data were analysed in accordance with the two distinct yet interconnected processes of grounded analysis, which are: open coding; and axial coding. The other process focuses on the level of case study analysis and will be conducted at the company level. These two complimentary methods of analysis are outlined below.

4.4.2.4.1 Grounded Analysis

Technically, the basic idea that a grounded approach stands on is to discover and label categories and their interrelationships. In this respect the technique provides a method of analysis that supplies a systematic way to analyse a large amount of data – which is often produced by case-study research. Easterby-Smith et al., (2012) illustrate the grounded analysis approach appositely:

"Grounded analysis offers the more 'open' approach to data analysis and is closely linked to the concept of grounded theory. [...] the source of data can be texts produced from empirical research (for example, interview data) or extant texts, which might take the form of company reports or diaries. At this end of the qualitative data analysis spectrum the structure is derived from the data rather than imposed on the data externally, as often is the case with the positivist approach. This means that the data is systematically analysed so as to tease out themes, patterns and categories that will be declared in the findings (p. 166).

Moreover, they mention that there are more than one way of conducting this method of analysis; in fact there is no one clear agreed approach. Within the present research, this method operates by specific coding procedures as follow:

4.4.2.4.1.1 Open Coding

Open coding is the process of disaggregated the collected data into conceptual units and labelling them, in response to the question "what is this about?" This includes different processes such as examining, comparing and conceptualising data. Broadly speaking, the processes of open coding aims to, firstly, uncover incidents, ideas, events and happenings relating to the phenomenon; and then, to conceptualise concepts that are elicited from those incidents and events; after that, to organise these concepts into constructs. In other words, the purpose of this analytical process is to identify the emerging constructs, which in the case of this research is related to the nature and characteristics of Libyan managers' work activity, at the level of the data provided by each individual manager.

The major aim of conducting open coding is to tease out constructs that will be used in the axial coding procedure in order to classify them into categories. For example, in the case studies Libyan executives were being asked to talk about the qualities and characteristics of their managerial work which would initially aid in portraying the nature of Libyan managers' work activity. One interviewee stated that his working day was always along one while a different respondent mentioned that his workload was heavy, and seemed to be increasing day by day. A third interviewee pointed out that it was almost impossible to apply himself to strategic thinking about his role as he was constantly dealing with small tasks that required his urgent attention. These interviewees and others asserted the enormous amount of work within their daily function and accordingly the researcher decided to give these points a label, namely 'heavy workloads', which represents the interviewees' point.

4.4.2.4.1.2 Axial Coding

Once the constructs have emerged from open coding, the process of axial coding starts by looking for relationships between those constructs. As the relationships between the constructs are recognised, so the axes of core codes with related subcategories are identified. This allows for constructs that emerge from the open coding process to be organised into categories that can inform the case study analysis, which is conducted at the company level.

4.4.2.4.2 Case Study Analysis

Within the part of this study consisting of case study analysis, the constructs that emerged from the grounded analysis were used as a framework to analyse the data on each company, to present a picture of that company in terms of the managerial work conducted in it. As stated in the section on research philosophy above, in this study the researcher adopted an inductive approach, based on interpretation. In the four companies involved in the case studies Libyan managers were invited to characterise the work that they did into broad descriptive groups, which would potentially coincide with those devised by Mintzberg (1973) but might not. The shared cultural and linguistic heritage of interviewer (researcher) and interviewees (research subjects) was helpful because a researcher who was from different culture, may not have been aware of cultural and linguistic nuances that emerged in the research process and that allowed the researcher to ask relevant follow-up questions to recover more in-depth data.

In presenting the data, quotations from the respondent's interviews will be presented, together with commentary by the researcher elucidating the meaning of these data and adding observation made throughout the data collection process to further explain the respondents' data.

Once each company has been described and analysed in terms of the respondents perceptions, it will be possible to undertake a comparative analysis of all four companies, establishing themes that were common to them and where they differed in their managerial work,. Furthermore, the picture of Libyan managers' work activity that emerges will be compared with portrayals of managerial work found in the literature, to establish what is distinctive about Libyan managerial work.

4.5 Reliability and Validity

In the view of Farquhar (2012) the epistemological position that the researcher adopts can provide assistance in establishing the quality of research. For

instance, positivists follow criteria that are suggested by the natural science model in demonstrating the quality of research. This includes using several tactics such as construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability. These four tests are widely used to prove the quality of empirical social research. In this respect, Yin (2009) argued that "because case studies are one form of such research, the four tests also are relevant to case studies" (p. 40), and as a result he has adapted these tests for case study research.

Reliability is identified by Bryman (2012) as being "concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable" (p. 46). According to Yin (2009), maximizing reliability can be achieved by, firstly, using case study protocol; and secondly, by developing a case study database.

Construct validity is concerned with the correct use of operational measures and "refers to the extent to which the study investigates what it claims to investigate" (Farquhar, 2012, p. 101). This can be attained through three case study tactics, they are: using multiple sources of evidence; establishing a chain of evidence; and having key informants review (Yin, 2009).

Internal validity is concerned with the question of "whether there is a good match between researchers' observations and the theoretical ideas they develop" (Bryman, 2012, p. 390). Yin (2009) considered internal validity as it is "seeking to establish a causal relationship, whereby certain conditions are believed to lead to other conditions, as distinguished from spurious relationships" (p. 40). In this regard, Yin (2009) suggested four case study tactics to deal with the issue of internal validity, which are: doing a pattern matching; doing an explanation building; addressing rival explanations; and logic models.

External validity "refers to the degree to which findings can be generalised across social setting" (Bryman, 2012, p. 390). Yin (2009) suggested using replication logic in multiple-case studies as a case study tactic to improve external validity.

For this research the issues of validity and reliability were carefully weighed and the case study tactics provided by Yin (2009) were regarded. In dealing with the issue of reliability, as illustrated throughout this chapter, attempts were made to "make as many steps as operational as possible and to conduct research as if

someone were always looking over your shoulder" (Yin, 2009, p. 45). Indeed, by conducting several data collection and analysis methods such as the triangulation of data and comparative case-studies the research can be highly valued in terms of its quality.

According to Bryman (2008, p. 55), validity, reliability and replicability, "...depends in large part on how far the researcher feels that these are appropriate for the evaluation of case-study research". Bryman (2008) observes that Yin (2003) sees these as appropriate criteria for case-study research but that Stake (1995) does not. Bryman (2008) suggests that researchers with a qualitative orientation to research tend to ignore or play down these factors but that those with a more quantitative orientation tend to regard them as more important. The position taken by this researcher is similar to that taken by Lincoln & Guba (2005) who align themselves with the tradition of qualitative research. They propose trustworthiness as a criterion of how good a qualitative study is. According to Bryman (2008, p. 34) each aspect of trustworthiness has a parallel with criteria previously applied to quantitative research:

Credibility, which parallels internal validity i.e. how believable are the findings?

Transferability, which parallels external validity - i.e. do the findings apply to other contexts?

Dependability, which parallels reliability - i.e. are the findings likely to apply at other times?

Conformability, which parallels objectivity - i.e. has the investigator allowed his or her values to intrude to a high degree?

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethics in the research context refers to "the study of the 'right behaviour' and addresses the question of how to conduct research in a moral and responsible way" (Blumberg et al., 2008, p. 154). Generally, ethical principles in social research can be reflected into four main areas, which cover the issues related to harm to the participants; the lack of informed consent; the invasion of privacy;

and deception (Bryman, 2012). The researcher should be aware of all these types of ethical issues, and questions about whether they occurred while conducting research should also be risen continually.

Overall, the current research was conducted using clear ethical procedures, and was guided by the University of Gloucestershire's Research Ethics: A Handbook of Principles and Procedures (2008). Participants were briefed on the nature of research and had the opportunity to refuse involvement. As described elsewhere in the methodology chapter, the data collection process was conducted during two stages; the pilot study and then the main study. In regard to the pilot study, a questionnaire and five interviews were used to collect the required data for this phase. In the main study the researcher used the interviews supported by observations and documentation as the data collection tools.

In terms of the questionnaires for the pilot study, the researcher used a technique of making contact with one member of the senior management, usually the Director of HR, and asked this person to distribute the questionnaire to the general manager of the organisation (the chief executive officer) as well as his colleagues on the senior management team. The aims of the study were explained at this point and assurances were given as to the use data would be put to and how it would be protected. The questionnaires also included a cover-sheet explaining the same details and assuring the anonymity of respondents and the measures to be taken to protect data.

In the main phase of the research, it was even more important to win the trust of respondents, especially as the researcher recognised that richer data could be gathered if the interviews were recorded. Therefore the researcher generally sought to establish a relationship with the respondents prior to conducting the main interview. All respondents received preliminary meetings in which they were given copies of the interview questions and the researcher explained in detail the purpose of the study and the way in which interview data would be analysed. Respondents were also informed that the researcher would take field notes on observations of the managers' work during his time at the companies, and a request was made that any pertinent documents that the respondent could

share would be invaluable to the researcher. Respondents were assured that they could withdraw from the interview at any time, that they could refuse to answer any question and that their data would be stored anonymously and protected from being read by anyone but the researcher and his supervisors. At this stage the researcher also requested permission to record the interviews, with similar assurances that the recorded data would be stored anonymously and that they would be deleted after use. A number of respondents agreed to be recorded; some refused but were willing to be interviewed.

These measures ensured that both the questionnaire and interviews were conducted with informed consent, and confidentiality and anonymity were ensured at every stage of the research, with regard to any information generated from the interviews or the questionnaire. Data were stored in a secure environment and were only used for research purposes.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter begins with an attempt to briefly provide the reader with an overview of the research, followed by an illustration of the approach to methodology adopted within this research. The methodology is seen as the researcher's response to two critical issues concerning the research - how and why to conduct research. Questions about how research should be conducted refer to the selection of research strategy and methods, while why questions link with the choice of research approach and philosophy.

To understand the Libyan managers' work activity within its national context, an interpretive position as well as an inductive logic was adopted. A multiple-case study was considered to be an appropriate research strategy. In regard to the research methods that were employed in collecting and analysing the data, there were differences according to the two stages of the empirical work. First, the pilot phase used a questionnaire survey and a limited number of semi-structured interviews as data collection methods. Since there were two different

methods of data collection, data analysis methods were therefore different. Analysing the data gathered by the questionnaire survey was conducted in accordance with descriptive statistical procedures whereas the analysis of semi-structured interviews was informed by the qualitative data analysis technique (QDAP). Second, the main study stage applied various data collection methods, namely: interviews; documentation; and observations. Data analysis processes in this stage comprised two complimentary methods, which are grounded analysis and case-study analysis. Furthermore, two types of techniques were used for data analysis, they were: coding; and comparison. Coding – open and axial- was conducted at the level of the individual managers. The fact that the two cases in each sector (oil and banking) were dissimilar in terms of their size and their date of establishment enriched the study's findings and added to the dimensions over which comparison could be made - e.g. public/private; large/small; foreign influence/no foreign influence.

Chapter Five
The Pilot Study

This chapter, which presents the pilot study, is divided into six main sections. The first section is an introduction, which chiefly presents the purpose of doing such a pilot study. The second section displays and analyses the questionnaire results. In the third section, the semi-structured interviews are presented and analysed. A summary of main findings that arose from the analysis of the questionnaire as well as the interviews are outlined in the fourth section., The role of pilot study in informing the research strategy for the main study is highlighted in the fifth section, and finally this chapter ends with a conclusion to the findings of this pilot study.

5.1 Introduction

The preliminary aims of this pilot study were, firstly, to obtain a general view of the characteristics and nature of Libyan managers' work activity in the oil and banking sectors; and secondly, to identify the key issues arising from the effects of its external environment on Libyan managerial work. The basic idea behind conducting the pilot study was to identify a range of themes, patterns, and areas that necessitate further enquiry, as well as to explore the possibilities of selecting a limited number of oil companies and banks to be case studies. Here, it may worth emphasising that this pilot study did not aim at a deep understanding of the nature of the work of Libyan managers and the impact of national context on it. Rather, it was a first step forward.

The pilot study consisted of, firstly, a questionnaire survey that targeted Libyan executive managers in the oil and banking sectors (the general manager as well as managers who reported directly to him) and secondly, five semi-structured interviews with Libyan key individuals from a range of different companies.

5.2 Questionnaire Outcomes

5.2.1 Profile of the Respondents

In the first part of the questionnaire, general and demographic information was gathered to create a profile of respondents, asking about their gender; their age; their qualifications; and their experience. The question of qualification was designed to cover different aspects, such as the highest degree earned, and the area of specialisation. Likewise, the information that related to respondents' experience was gathered by asking about their total experience in managerial work; the number of years in their current position and their current company; and work outside Libya. Table 5.1 presents a summary of the respondents' profiles.

Table 5.1 Respondent Profiles*

Gender	Frequency	%
Male	109	98.2
Female	002	01.8
Age		
40 and below	19	17.7
41-50	35	32.4
51 and above	54	49.9
Qualification: Highest degree earned		
Bachelors	61	58.1
Masters / Doctorate	32	30.5
Other	12	11.4
Qualification: Location of study for this qualification		
Inside Libya	78	71.6
Outside Libya	31	28.4
Qualification: Field of Study		
Management, Accountancy and Economics	60	61.2
Engineering	13	13.3
Finance & Banking	07	07.1
Other	18	18.3
Experience: Total experience in managerial work		
5 years or below	02	01.9
Between 6 and 10 years	15	14.3
More than 10 years	88	83.4
Experience: Years in current Position		
Less than a year	18	17.5
1-3 year(s)	19	18.5
4 years and above	66	64
Experience: Years in current company		
3 and below	24	23.5
4-9 years	20	19.6
10 and above	58	56.9
Experience: worked as a chief executive or senior manager outside Libya		
Yes	09	08.4
No	98	91.6

Sector tables are shown in Appendix

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Table 5.1 indicates that to a large extent the respondents were well educated, as around approximately (90%) had a university degree or above - nearly one-third of whom had studied outside of Libya - mostly in Europe and the USA. Although nearly 30 per cent of the participants were educated outside of Libya, the study was not designed to test any influence on their work arising from their educational experience outside the national borders of Libya. Rather, the fact of their having been educated abroad gave them a richer point of comparison with their work in Libya, but the interest of the study remained the influence of national culture and this is what the research investigated. Moreover, the fact of almost all the participants being well educated gives an indication that the respondents' theoretical understanding of the concepts and issues of managerial work and the effects of the external environment can be relied upon. Taking into account the field of study, it can be seen that the field of business study (specifically management, accounting, and economics) accounted for the highest percentage, followed by engineering (only in the oil sector), and finance and banking (only in the banking sector) respectively. Here, it is useful to note that the ratio of engineering specialisation in the oil sector was as high as 43.3%. Therefore, a question of whether or not the technical nature of the oil sector had an important impact on the specialisations that were required to occupy senior positions should be raised.

Similarly, a sizable majority of respondents had a considerable experience in the field of managerial work. Noticeably, the percentage of respondents who had more than 10 years managerial work experience was extremely high. This was to be expected due to the fact that the questionnaires were exclusively targeted at the top managerial level. In this respect, the experience of respondents can be expected to add a great deal of practical value to their views about issues related to their jobs and the extent of the influence of national context on their work. Given the fact that a great majority of respondents had spent at least four years in their current position or in their current company, the respondents' awareness of the main issues affecting their managerial work was likely to be fairly extensive.

Regarding the gender and age of the respondents, it is clear that the overwhelming majority (more than 98%) were male. Only two respondents were female - both of them in the banking sector. Within Libyan context, this is to be expected (Abdulla, 2010). The reason behind the preponderance of the male gender can be explained by considering the nature and characteristics of Libyan society. Since work for women that requires constant travel visiting work sites in isolated areas is unpalatable in the society, the result mentioned above comes as no surprise. In the term of respondents' age, it can be seen that 90% were in an age group exceeded forty years old. Yet again, this was expected because the questionnaires were targeting executive managers, who often would not have been able to attain this position without spending many years working.

5.2.2 Managerial Functions

This part of the questionnaire aimed at identifying the percentage of time that executive managers spent on average performing each of the classic managerial functions compared with the total time consumed by their work. Planning, organising, controlling, and leading were mentioned as options with an emphasis on the opportunity for respondents to add any others that they felt should be included according to their point of view. The arithmetic mean (AM) was used in order to calculate an average time spent on each function. In addition, the standard deviation (Ơ) was calculated in order to compute the coefficient of variation (CV), which was used for the purpose of ascertaining the relative importance of each function - a lower value of the coefficient of variation reflects a higher relative importance.

Table 5.2 Managerial Functions

The basic functions of management (Time %)		
Organising	Arithmetic mean (AM)	23.84
	Standard Deviation (Ơ)	11.79
	Coefficient of Variation (CV)	0.495
Planning	Arithmetic mean (AM)	21.01
	Standard Deviation (Ơ)	08.86
	Coefficient of Variation (CV)	**0.422**
Leading	Arithmetic mean (AM)	31.01
	Standard Deviation (Ơ)	13.49
	Coefficient of Variation (CV)	0.435
Controlling	Arithmetic mean (AM)	20.57
	Standard Deviation (Ơ)	10.98
	Coefficient of Variation (CV)	0.534

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

As shown in Table 5.2, according to the average of time spent on each managerial function, leading was the managerial function that respondents were most engaged in (31.01% of the total working time), while controlling consumed least time (20.57% of the total working time). Given the coefficient of variation, which can be used as an indicator of the relative importance of each managerial function, it can be concluded that both planning and leading may be regarded as the most important functions, whilst controlling was relatively less important. This does not conflict with what is recognised in the literature of managerial work; namely that senior managers - which were the case here - pay more attention to the functions of planning and leading in comparison to other functions (Carroll & Gillen, 1987).

At this point it is necessary to note that while the information presented in Table 5.2 is aggregated from all the companies surveyed, a breakdown of the figures for each sector (banking and oil) is available in appendix G, along with aggregated demographic information on the respondents. In light of Upper Echelon Theory some of the demographic information is noteworthy; for example, the figures show that the vast majority of senior managers in the banking sector received their highest qualification within Libya (84.4%), and predominantly studied either accountancy or management subjects, whereas within the oil sector the largest group of executives by area of qualification was engineers (43.3%) and more than half of the executives had obtained their highest qualification outside Libya. Interestingly, there were some differences with regard to the importance of the managerial functions within each sector. As Table 5.2 shows, planning was the most important function when the sectors are considered together and was also the most important in the banking sector. However, within the oil sector leading was the most important function. Whether this difference in importance is due to the overall nature of work within these sectors or is attributable to a difference in approach by the executives in each sector, possibly correlated to their demographic characteristics; however, this would require a deep statistical study of demographic information at an individual and sector level, which could then be employed as proxy measures of executive orientation in accordance with Upper Echelons Theory (Knight et al.,

1999 cited in Balta, 2008, p. 447) to calculate correlations with managerial functions and work roles.

5.2.3 Managerial Work Roles

Mintzberg's managerial roles, which arose from his seminal study in the USA (published in 1973), were the focus of this part of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to identify to what extent they agreed with a well-known scale of 34 items - which reflect Mintzberg's conception of managerial roles - to be part of their managerial work.

5.2.3.1 Informational Roles

The Informational Role Group contains three managerial roles relevant to dealing with information: Monitor; Disseminator; and Spokesman. It is clear from tables 5.3a, b, and c that all the three informational roles gained weighted averages (WA) higher than 3. This implies that the work of Libyan executive managers has a similar informational role to that found by Mintzberg (1973) during his study of the work of a number of American CEOs, which has subsequently gained a wide acceptance in many other countries.

Table 5.3a Informational Roles

Managerial Work Roles Informational Roles: Monitor (Number of responses)					
Items	**N**	**R**	**S**	**O**	**V**
1. I seek and receive information to maintain or improve my understanding of the unit and its environment.	-	05	26	50	27
2. I scan the internal and external environments to find out and evaluate opportunities.	03	06	42	44	09
3. I use and develop my own contacts in different ways to gather information.	-	07	15	58	27
Total	03	18	83	152	63
WA = 3.796		**Ơ = 0.852**		**CV = 0.225**	

** N: Not at all = 1; **R**: Rarely = 2; **S**: Some times = 3; **O**: Often = 4 and **V**: Very often = 5.*

*****WA**: Weighted Average.*

*** Sector tables are shown in Appendix

<center>**Table 5.3b Informational Roles**</center>

Managerial Work Roles Informational Roles: Disseminator (Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
4. I share relevant information received from outside/inside with the appropriate internal units or individuals.	01	07	18	49	30
5. I brief subordinates / managers on pertinent information.	03	01	17	53	39
6. I ensure that subordinates or other managers are updated with information relevant to them.	03	04	17	52	30
Total	07	12	52	154	99
WA = 4.006	**Ơ = 0.899**		**CV = 0.224**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

<center>**Table 5.3c Informational Roles**</center>

Managerial Work Roles Informational Roles: Spokesman(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
7. I represent the unit to outside people.	04	10	31	33	30
8. I answer inquiries about the unit.	-	01	27	43	36
9. I inform and serve people outside the unit with information they look for.	04	04	33	46	21
10. I keep other people informed about the organisation's future plans and activities.	08	14	30	40	14
Total	16	29	121	162	101
WA = 3.706	**Ơ = 1.019**		**CV = 0.275**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

In regard to the relative importance of each informational role, it can be seen that the role of spokesman is relatively less important in comparison with the others. Both the monitor and the disseminator roles are roughly equal in terms of importance.

5.2.3.2 Decisional Roles

Decisional roles consist of four managerial roles that are particularly related to decision-making. These are: Entrepreneur; Disturbance Handler; Resource Allocator; and Negotiator. As can be seen from tables 5.4a, b, c, and d, the weighted average (WA) in each table is higher than 3, which means that these decisional roles form a part of the work of Libyan senior managers in a similar way that is recognised in the managerial work of their counterparts in different parts around the world - e.g. USA and Western Europe.

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Table 5.4a Decisional Roles

Managerial Work Roles Decisional Roles: Entrepreneur(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
11. I search the unit and its environment to determine situations and issues that require organisational change.	12	20	34	32	08
12. I implement and control the change in the unit.	05	11	39	43	09
13. I design and initiate the necessary changes in the unit.	09	05	17	65	12
Total	26	36	90	140	29
WA = 3.343	**Ơ = 1.057**		**CV = 0.316**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

Table 5.4b Decisional Roles

Managerial Work Roles Decisional Roles: Disturbance handler(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
14. I face unexpected problems/crises and work to resolve them.	01	-	21	50	32
15. I resolve conflicts among subordinates and put a stop to unacceptable behaviour.	01	08	23	44	33
16. I take corrective action to face and cope with unexpected pressure.	05	04	26	55	18
Total	07	12	70	149	83
WA = 3.900	**Ơ = 0.901**		**CV = 0.231**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

Table 5.4c Decisional Roles

Managerial Work Roles (Decisional Roles: Resource allocator(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
17. I develop and distribute budget resources and allocate resources within the unit.	16	05	22	42	22
18. I spend time and make decisions about resource allocation for personnel in the unit.	09	07	20	49	19
19. I make decisions about time scheduling for upcoming programmes and decide which programmes to provide resources.	09	07	33	45	10
20. I manage time and approve various authorisations within the unit.	06	06	26	46	19
Total	40	25	101	182	70
WA = 3.519	**Ơ = 1.131**		**CV = 0.321**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

Table 5.4d Decisional Roles

Managerial Work Roles (Decisional Roles: Negotiator(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
21. I represent the unit in various discussions or negotiation.	06	05	23	51	21
22. I negotiate the matters offered with relevant teams.	10	11	24	41	18
23. I resolve problems that arise with others.	02	10	35	40	19
24. I discuss and work with two parties within and outside the unit to come to an agreement.	05	08	31	43	18
Total	23	34	113	175	76
WA = 3.588	**Ơ = 1.044**		**CV = 0.291**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

According to the coefficient of variation (CV), the role of disturbance handler is the most significant decisional role, while the resource allocator is the least. Although this exploratory study is not designed either to do an in-depth analysis, or to reach final results, the acquisition of these two managerial roles (of higher and the lower importance) could be an interesting indicator in the subsequent stage (the main study). In other words, the role of disturbance handler is mainly based on the ability of *facing and solving problems* while the role of resource allocator lies in the ability to *manage change*. Thus, a question of whether or not the external environment plays a significant role in imposing these features on Libyan managerial work should be considered.

5.2.3.3 Interpersonal Roles

There are three different roles in which the managerial interpersonal roles are summed up; these are: Figurehead; Leader; and Liaison. Tables 5.5 a, b, and c, shown below, report the Libyan executive managers' responses to each role.

Table 5.5a Interpersonal Roles

Managerial Work Roles (Interpersonal Roles: Figurehead(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
25. I participate in a variety of symbolic, social and ceremonial activities.	21	23	35	23	04
26. I provide recommendations for employees.	04	06	27	45	15
Total	25	29	62	77	19
WA = 3.170	**Ó = 1.141**		**CV = 0.360**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

Table 5.5b Interpersonal Roles

Managerial Work Roles (Interpersonal Roles: Leader(Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
27. I direct the work of subordinates and motivate them and evaluate the quality of job performance.	02	02	15	55	33
28. I allocate employees to specific jobs or tasks and ensure that subordinates are alert to issues that need attention.	15	07	17	49	17
29. I encourage team work between subordinates and resolve conflicts among them.	02	12	27	47	17
30. I interact with others within the unit to improve and develop activities and duties.	-	01	15	59	32
31. I create environmental conditions in which employees will work effectively and maintain supervision over changes in the unit.	02	02	21	95	21
Total	12	24	95	269	120
WA = 3.837	**Ó = 0.959**		**CV = 0.250**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

Table 5.5c Interpersonal Roles

Managerial Work Roles Interpersonal Roles: Liaison (Number of responses)					
Items	N	R	S	O	V
32. I maintain a personal network of contacts outside the unit and develop new contacts.	08	15	29	41	09
33. I establish a close bond between the unit and its pertinent people.	01	06	26	53	20
34. I develop and establish contacts in different ways.	06	06	34	46	13
Total	15	27	89	140	42
WA = 3.534	**Ơ = 0.989**		**CV = 0.280**		

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

The interpersonal roles were not an exception in terms of being a part of Libyan executives' managerial activities. In other words, the calculated weighted average (WA) of each role is higher than 3, which indicates that these roles frequently exist in the job of Libyan executive managers. Nevertheless, the relative importance of each role is different. Indeed, being a leader, for instance, is the most significant required role in the work of Libyan top managers in comparison to the roles of figurehead and liaison.

To sum up the findings of the questionnaire about the extent of the correspondence of Mintzberg's managerial work roles (1973) with the work of Libyan executives, it is clear that: firstly, all the ten managerial roles occurred frequently in their managerial work which suggests an indication with regard to the extent of similarities between the nature of managerial work in Libya and elsewhere around the world. Secondly, the most important managerial work roles were disseminator, monitor, and disturbance handler respectively, whilst working as a figurehead, as a resource allocator, and as an entrepreneur were the least practised.

5.2.4 Work Stress

Work stress, in this part of the questionnaire, refers only to the extent of difficulties that Libyan executive managers faced to achieve their managerial work in the way that they wanted or preferred to do it.

Table 5.6 Work Stress

Stress you are facing in your job					
Category	Low				High
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
Responses	08	08	28	32	16
WA	3.435				

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

As can be seen from Table 5.6, the weighted average (WA) is higher than 3, which means that the respondents reported a high level of work stress.

5.2.5 The Influences of the Societal Environment

To elicit respondents' views concerning the impact of external environment - specifically socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment - on their managerial work and behaviour, a list of twenty external environment factors, with emphasis on adding extra factors as often as needed, was provided. In addition, respondents were asked to determine the level of influence of each societal environment factor by selecting the appropriate number from 1(low influence) to 5 (high influence).

Table 5.7 Influences of Societal Environment on Managerial Work

External environment factors and their effects on managerial work and behaviour								
External environment factors	**Level of influence**					**WA**	**Ơ**	**CV**
	Low				High			
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*			
National policies and legislation	05	12	18	36	29	**3.735**	**1.157**	**0.310**
Family and tribal relationships and personal connections	25	22	22	22	15	**2.811**	**1.374**	**0.489**
Foreign investment policy	20	19	29	25	08	**2.823**	**1.230**	**0.436**
The pressure of economic circumstances	07	20	25	40	08	**3.220**	**1.073**	**0.333**
Classes, castes and literacy	14	14	36	26	13	**3.097**	**1.195**	**0.386**
Social customs and traditions	16	20	27	30	11	**3.000**	**1.233**	**0.411**
Education system and structure	04	15	30	33	19	**3.490**	**1.082**	**0.310**
Beliefs, values and attitudes of society	11	19	40	20	13	**3.049**	**1.144**	**0.375**
Government controls and legal requirement	07	11	15	41	28	**3.706**	**1.177**	**0.318**
The stability of government	14	08	17	30	33	**3.588**	**1.367**	**0.381**
The system and structure of justice	17	09	25	32	24	**3.286**	**1.219**	**0.350**
Business law	08	16	20	35	23	**3.480**	**1.219**	**0.350**
Government attitudes toward both business and labour	11	18	28	29	17	**3.223**	**1.222**	**0.379**
Social institutions	24	32	32	11	02	**2.356**	**1.020**	**0.433**
Tax levels and regulation	13	26	22	28	14	**3.039**	**1.254**	**0.413**
Relative costs of labour; material; capital	09	13	42	27	08	**3.121**	**1.037**	**0.332**
Availability of credit	13	15	31	29	12	**3.120**	**1.194**	**0.383**
Status symbols	21	18	36	19	06	**2.710**	**1.169**	**0.431**
Distribution system	14	28	38	11	07	**2.684**	**1.075**	**0.401**
Mass media for communications	12	32	22	26	10	**2.902**	**1.192**	**0.411**

* Sector tables are shown in Appendix

As can be seen from Table 5.7, quite a lot of external environment factors were considered as low-effect factors (the weighted average was less than 3). Nevertheless, the bulk of the external environment factors provided gained a

weighted average of more than 3, which means that those factors did have a high influence on the managerial work and behaviour of Libyan executive managers.

In regard to the relative importance of each factor, it is notable that the significance of almost all factors in terms of their effects on the Libyan top managers' managerial activities was dissimilar. For example, both national policies and legislation, and education system and structure were regarded as the most important factors, while the factors family and tribal relationships and personal connections were the least important. The others were ranked in between. Surprisingly, this result was not expected, that is; the impact of family and tribal relationships and personal connections - taking the nature and characteristics of Libyan society into account - was strongly anticipated to have had a high importance (in supporting this see for example Agnaia, 1997; Gorrill, 2009). Here, however, it may be worth mentioning that the relative importance of external environment factors is slightly different when looking at the banking and oil sectors separately - see Appendix G. In the banking sector, for instance, government controls and legal requirement were the highest in terms of importance. On the other hand, national policies and legislation followed by the pressure of economic circumstances were respectively the most important factors in the oil sector. The effect of family and tribal relationships and personal connections were the least important in each sector.

It is clear that the impact of the Libyan societal environment on the nature of managerial work of Libyan managers is indeed an attractive research area that needs to be investigated thoroughly.

5.3 Interview Outcomes

5.3.1 Profile of the Participants

As can be seen from the Table 5.8 below, all participants were male, aged between 40 and 60 years old. Furthermore, they are well educated and well

experienced, as all of them had at least a university degree as well as more than 10 years managerial work experience. Noticeably, taking into account the field of study, both the participants from the oil sector had an engineering qualification while participants from the banking sector had a business qualification. Generally speaking, these characteristics of the participants indicate that to a large extent the participants' comments and views regarding the interview questions can be highly relevant.

Table 5.8 Participants Profiles

Interviewees	Gender	Age	Qualification	Experience: working as an executive manager
A (from banking sector) The general manager	Male	50 - 60	Bachelor (Business Administration)	More than 10 years
B (from banking sector) An executive manager	Male	40 - 50	Bachelor (Accountancy)	More than 10 years
C (from banking sector) The general manager	Male	40 - 50	Bachelor (Accountancy)	More than 10 years
D (from oil sector) An executive manager	Male	40 - 50	Bachelor (Engineering)	More than 10 years
E (from oil sector) An executive manager	Male	50 - 60	Master (Engineering)	More than 10 years

5.3.2 Interview Questions

The participants were asked to respond to eight questions, with the possibility of allowing the researcher to add related sub-questions during the interview where he deemed a point worthy of deeper understanding. Because it was requested by some interviewees, a written copy of the interview questions was given to all of them prior to their interview starting. These questions were as follow:

Q. a- How would you classify the types of activities which make up your work as a manager? (Please give an estimate of the percentage of your time spent on each).

Q. b- What do you view to be the main difficulties of being a manager in such a position?

Q. c- Could you explain how you as a manager contribute to the success of your organisation? (Please give three specific examples of ways in which you have made this contribution over the last year)

Q. d- In light of the influence of the external environment over your organisation and therefore on your managerial work and behaviour, what would you consider to be the main obstacles that you face in achieving your work effectively and efficiently? (Please give examples as much as possible).

Q. e- What would you consider to be the main characteristics of your work as a manager?

Q. f- What do you prefer to do (and prefer not to do) in your job as a manager in such position?

Q. g- What are the most important challenges hindering the better performance of your organisation?

Q. h- Regarding the organisation's performance, to what extent is a "top team" important in the organization? Why?

These questions enabled the researcher to establish a foundation of information about the work of Libyan managers that was subsequently built upon by the main study. For an explanation of the differences between these questions and those employed in the main study interviews see section 5.5 and figure 5.1.

5.3.3 Interview Outcomes

The participants' responses to these questions are concurrently exhibited under each of the following subheadings:

5.3.3.1 Classifying the Types of Top Managers' Activities

Respondents' comments:

A:
- Activities that are relevant to studying the issues and problems of banking matters, proposing the best way to deal with them, which are then forwarded to the Board of Directors in order to make a decision. These activities consume most of my time.

- Activities related to the supervision and follow-up of both the managerial and technical tasks.

B:
- Customer-related activities: receiving the client and discussing all the aspects relating to his application for credit and any other products, and, after that, his request as well as my recommendations are forwarded to the Board of Directors. In addition, if the client's application is agreed, a continual series of follow-up meetings with the client to arrange all the necessary documents and to respond to the client's queries will follow.

- Activities related to the supervision and follow-up of financial operations. In both types of activities, the follow-up activity consumes the majority of my time.

C:
- Implementation and follow-up of banking operations; this consumes almost 60% of the time.

- Organising; this consumes almost 40% of the time. This is because we need this function at this stage of our development.

D:
- Activities that are related to coordination and follow-up inside my managerial unit as well as with the other managerial units throughout the company in order to implement my unit's work related to construction and other projects. This consumes the bulk of the time.

- Activities that are related to the audit and accreditation of projects.

E:
- There are technical activities such as engineering designs and technical feasibility studies. These activities consume approximately 80% of the time.

- There are managerial activities which are related to planning, organising, and leading. This consumes about 20% of the time.

Although it seems that there are differences amongst the respondents in the way in which they did classify their activities, a common line can be traced among all of these classifications. This is represented by the dominance of the use of

technical expressions in categorising the activities. Indeed, the emphasis with regard to technical activities clearly existed among all the respondents. Consequently, the activities of these five top managers could be reclassified as follow:

- The largest percentage of the spent time is dedicated to the study, implementation, and follow-up of technical activities.
- The majority of the remaining percentage of time is dedicated to managerial activities, and these are primarily related to the managerial functions of coordination and organisation.

Classifying the activities of top managers into two main categories - technical and managerial – is somewhat consistent with Fayol's classification activities in manufacturing companies. Fayol (1916 [1949]) classified the activities into six groups, which were: technical activities; commercial activities; financial activities; security activities; accounting activities; and managerial activities (cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

Questions such as whether this dual classification is extensively applicable to Libyan top-level managers' activities, and if so, whether the work of managers is strongly an outcome of their specialisations, rather than their managerial positions, should be raised.

5.3.3.2 Difficulties and Challenges of Being a Top-level Manager

Respondents' comments:

> *A:*
> *- Very high levels of risk and low levels of confidence in the Libyan work environment.*
> *- Libyan administration is slow in its movement and this is true in all sectors, including the banking sector.*
> *- The excessive dominance of the Central Bank of Libya over banking sector and its inability to see the reality of how Libyan banks work.*
> *- The power of personal and social relationships on business performance.*
> *- Ineffectiveness of the legal and judicial systems.*
> *- Business laws and regulations.*
> *- Managers' lack of sufficient authority or clear and specific responsibilities, and the absence of job descriptions.*
> *- The shortage of qualified personnel.*

B:
- The absence of organisation - e.g. there are no job descriptions and the authorities and responsibilities of those you deal with are often unknown.
- The administrative corruption in Libya.
- The influence of personal and social relationships on business performance.
- The weakness of public awareness regarding the banks and their business.

C:
- The lack of trained and qualified personnel.
- The existence of a gap in experience and expertise between the executive management and the Board of Directors.
- Ignoring the differences in social and cultural characteristics among regions.
- The lack of conditions and rules for fair competition within the public sector.

D:
- Differences of opinion and views regarding what and how work should or should not be conducted are very likely to be turned into personal conflicts.
- The strong impact of the political conflicts between the regime and other countries around the world on our business and performance - e.g. the US sanctions.
- The power of personal and social relationships on business performance.

E:
- The inability to retain trained and qualified employees.
- Some managers, especially in the middle managerial level, do not realise the importance of some traditional administrative activities - e.g. documentation.
- The lack of conditions and rules covering fair competition.

It seems to be clear that the fundamental difficulties and challenges that Libyan executive managers face in conducting their jobs are in relation to both their internal and their external environment. In regard to the internal environment, the deficiency of organisational functions, particularly those related to managers' authorities and responsibilities, is at the top of the difficulties and challenges they have to cope with. For example, areas of responsibility overlap or are not precisely defined, while managers must also accept that while they must bear the responsibility for decisions made, sometimes these decisions are taken at a political level by individuals who do not have to account for them.

In terms of external environment factors, there is a variety of factors which belong to different kinds of external environments. For instance, the power of

personal and social relationships on business performance, which was frequently mentioned by the majority of respondents, is regarded as a factor of the socio-cultural environment. Here, it is worth mentioning that the importance of personal relationships in Libyan business context is supported by several researchers – e.g. Agnaia, (1997); US & FCS, (2006); Gorrill, (2009). Some other factors such as the ineffectiveness of the legal and judicial systems, cumbersome public administration in the business environment and the lack of conditions and rules governing fair competition, owe more to different types of external environment - e.g. economic; and political-legal environments.

As outlined in chapter three, decisions that have a bearing on economic activities are sometimes taken at a higher political level without consultation or redress, and legally there is no recourse to oppose or overturn these decisions. To Libyan managers they therefore represent a *fait accompli*. One oil company respondent in the pilot study recalled that during the dispute between the regime and Switzerland his company was ordered to have no further dealings with any Swiss companies. This was very inconvenient, but there was nothing the company or its managers could do.

On one hand, the difficulties and challenges that originate from internal environmental factors are particular to each organisation and, therefore, they are capable of being avoided. Systems such as the managers' register of decisions allow Libyan managers to keep track of (and provide evidence of) decisions taken and who is responsible for them. Moreover, much work in Libyan organisations is conducted by word of mouth and on a one-to-one basis; therefore, managers will often follow up important decisions in writing. On the other hand, the external environmental factors could, to a great extent, create unavoidable difficulties and challenges concerning the work of top-level managers. Having said that Libyan managers' activities are subject to external environmental influences, it is understandable that the work of Libyan executives is likely to be impacted, and hence, to be shaped in a certain way by those effects. What matters here is the question of whether the impact of the Libyan external environment does significantly distinguish the nature of Libyan managerial work in comparison with the work of other managers around the

world - e.g. in North America and Europe - and if so, how? This will indeed be a theme requiring more and deep investigation during the next and main stage.

5.3.3.3 Contributing to the Organisation's Success

Respondents' comments:

> *A:*
> *- maintaining a balance between what has to be done regarding the organisation's purposes and goals (the organisational interest) and what should be done regarding the pressure of the external environment.*
>
> *B:*
> *- Continually, attracting new customers and keeping them satisfied.*
> *- Protecting the organisation from the administrative corruption which is widespread in Libya.*
> *- Dealing with the pressure of the external environment without harming the organisation's interests.*
>
> *C:*
> *- Ensuring the unification of the efforts of all employees inside the organisation.*
> *- Attracting the public's attention to the work and activities of this organisation.*
>
> *D:*
> *- Continually, using wisdom and diplomacy when a state of disagreement occurs with parties inside or/and outside.*
> *- Being able to make the desired balance between the organisation's performance requirements and the effects of the external environment.*
>
> *E:*
> *- Supporting and complementing the efforts of others inside the unit or/and the organisation.*

The respondents' views about their own contribution to their organisations' success were essentially linked with two issues. Firstly, issues that were entirely related to the internal environment of the organisation, such as the relationships among managers and employees. This is clearly exemplified by expressing different words - e.g. *unification; supporting and complementing*. In this respect, therefore, whether or not these relationships can in fact be considered as a noteworthy part of Libyan senior managers' activities should be further investigated. Secondly, and more importantly, issues that were completely connected with characteristics of the external environment. In this regard, coping effectively with the unavoidable and unpleasant pressure that comes

from the external environment was reckoned by the majority of respondents as the core of their contribution to their organisation's success. Perceptibly, the notion of making a 'balance' between the influences of the external environment and the organisational performance requirements concerning the work of top-level managers was repeatedly stated. In other words, playing the role of a 'balancer' who guarantees a kind of response to the pressure of the external environment without harming the organisation's interests was considered by most respondents to be their contribution to their organisation's success. Interestingly, being a balancer as a significant part of the top managers' work and behaviour is apparently neither common nor carefully weighed in the literature of managerial work. Accordingly, further investigation into this theme is needed.

5.3.3.4 Obstacles of the External Environment

Respondents' comments:

A:
- The weakness of the education system outputs.
- The great impact of personal, familial, and tribal relationships on the way that how work should be done is determined.
-The laws and regulations of banking and economic activities as they are numerous, conflicting, and unstable.
- The clash of some legitimate banking activities with prevailing social values.
- Ineffectiveness of the judicial systems.
- The difficult economic circumstances faced by a large minority of the public.

B:
- The great impact of personal, familial, and tribal relationships on how work should be done.
- The clash of some legitimate banking activities with the prevailing social values.
- Ineffectiveness of the judicial systems.
- The state of instability and continual change in the body of government and its institutions.
C:
- Working in an economic environment that lacks a clear vision concerned economic activities, especially in regard to the private sector.
- The absence of fair competition rules.

D:
- Some laws that govern economic activities.
- Some social traditions and customs.

E:
- Laws that govern economic activities.
- The absence of fair competition rules.

As can be seen from the comments above, there were several environmental factors identified that stand in the way of Libyan executive managers in accomplishing their managerial work as they believe they should do. In this context, factors connected to the socio-cultural as well as the economic and the legal environments were frequently specified.

Examples that explain how some external environment factors obstruct the work were obtained. According to interviewee (A), *it is extremely hard and at times even impossible to sell something that was defaulted on such as land or a building in order to reclaim the bank's money in the case that the client (the owner of the land or the building) was incapable of meeting repayments.* He continued to explain: *in Libyan society people will not buy reclaimed property if there is any doubt that there has been hidden pressure concerning the owner's decision to sell.* This seems to be an illustrative example of the impact of socio-cultural factors on managers' decisions and work. To deal with such case practically, as the interviewee emphasised, a cordial agreement reached with the client is a perfect choice. Another instance from a different interviewee in regard to the legal environment factors was also provided. In this example, the interviewee (B) strongly criticised the judicial system in terms of its effectiveness. He said: *solving embezzlement issues or getting back your money from a customer who is a swindler via legal actions is a waste of time and effort.* He carried on saying: *the best thing you will get after spending years and years in courts is to force him/her to pay a limited monthly payment (as much as their financial circumstances allow), and this will definitely take ages!.* Yet again, as stated by this interviewee, an amicable agreement is the best way to deal with such a situation. This respondent also provided an interesting example of the influence of tribal traditions on his managerial work at the bank. He related that in his town there was a very important and respected tribal leader who considered himself to have open access to the bank and the respondent at any time he chose. This leader would sometimes enter the respondent's office unannounced and expect to have his business attended to. If the respondent was

in a meeting the leader would sit down and observe the meeting until it had ended. When the researcher asked why such behaviour was tolerated, the respondent replied that the leader was a very important person locally and that if he was unhappy with his treatment at the bank he could require all the members of his tribe to close their accounts and open new ones at a different bank. This account illustrates the extent to which the interests of individuals in Libyan society are often compounded into tribal interests, and the power that this can have over a phenomenon such as managerial work.

Overall, the outcomes of these five interviews signified that Libyan top managers find themselves faced with tensions between the imposed forces of their external environment and the typical demands of their managerial performance. It is therefore a valid theme for a further and profound inquiry.

5.3.3.5 Managerial Work Characteristics

Respondents' comments:

> *A:*
> *- Diverse, very large amount of work, time is not enough, more work than there should be, slow achievement, focusing on technical aspects, and written communication is a basic tool.*

> *B:*
> *- A large amount of work, at a high pace, diverse, excessive transmission of information to regulators, and oral communication is most often used.*

> *C:*
> *- A very large amount of work, slow in achievement, the use of unwritten and personal contacts more than written communication, dealing with a huge amount of data and information, work extends beyond the working hours, and the work is mostly related to technical aspects.*

> *D:*
> *- The work is characterised by focusing on technical issues, a large amount of work, and the time is always not adequate.*

> *E:*
> *- Variety in the amount of work so that there are logjams in the work and sometimes there are not, depending on the subject of the work, some issues need to be processed at high speed and others should not, and the concentration is on technical work.*

By and large, most respondents' views about the characteristics of their managerial work were in harmony. For instance, portraying the work as being vast, various, mostly technical and the need to work beyond the official working hours were widespread comments across respondents' speech. To a large extent, some characteristics of Libyan managerial work, in particular those related to the variety; the pace; the enormous amount of work and insufficient time, were in line with findings of many previous studies that were concerned with describing managerial work - e.g. Mintzberg (1973); Hales (1986); Tengblad (2012). Characterising the work of executive managers as being predominately technical is not widely common in managerial work literature although it has been acknowledged as a part of managers' work and activity (Hales, 1986, 2001). Markedly, the term 'technical work' is perfectly consistent with the reclassification of Libyan top-level managers' activities provided above - where they were asked to classify their managerial work.

In regard to the type of communication that the respondents relied on, both written and unwritten communicating were, for different purposes, used. According to the interviewees, a personal and oral contact, for example, is typically the starting point in establishing a new or first-time contact, and is preferred because of its advantages in gaining basic and quick information. Written communication, in contrast, is primarily required, as one of the respondents alluded to, in order to make sure that no one would disclaim any responsibility for something he or she had done.

Another feature of Libyan managerial work, which was mentioned either explicitly or implicitly by a number of respondents, is worthy of attention. This characteristic is reflected in describing the work as being excessively large. The interviewee (A) explained this attribute saying: *we do more work than what we should do.* He proceeded: *some of the work that we carry out should be carried out at a lower managerial level where it originates!* This could mean that managers inside an organisation, regardless of their managerial levels are, for some reasons, transferring some of their work to the next higher managerial level. This is indeed a point that is worthy of consideration.

5.3.3.6 Top Management Team

Respondents' comments:

> *A:*
> *- Working as a team is important but, unfortunately, it does not always happen.*
> *- Personal characteristics have an influential role on the success of teamwork.*
>
> *B:*
> *- Teamwork is a good idea, but it is generally unsuccessful due to the personal characteristics of individuals - we have a problem with listening to each other.*
> *- Teamwork is only feasible when you dispose of formalities and responsibilities. If this happened teamwork would improve, including better discussions and interactions.*
>
> *C:*
> *- The teamwork is important and its success lies in removing its formality*
> *- The team fears responsibility.*

Even though the question about the top management team did not receive replies from all respondents, three out of five interviewees' responses were obtained. According to them, the importance of working as a team was clearly underscored. Notwithstanding this, the respondents asserted that working as a team - on account of the personal characteristics of individuals – was often not productive unless certain conditions were available, one of which was the situation of working unofficially and a guarantee of unaccountability for contributions to team efforts. This means that teamwork was felt to be successful only if formality was disregard and the assignment of responsibility was removed. The interviewee (B) provided a clarifying example concerning this matter. He said: *an effective example of teamwork exists in the canteen, the place where we all attend in order to have our morning coffee. In this regular gathering - note, without being invited, without functional titles, without an official setting and without being responsible - a fruitful discussion and great interactions between the gatherers often occurs.* Another supportive illustration was added by interviewee (C), which confirms the significance of informality and benefit of a lack of assigned responsibility to the success of teamwork. He stated: *most formal teamwork meetings are spontaneously followed by non-*

official sessions with the teamwork members, and in these informal discussions
we actually and successfully work as a team.

The idea of linking the effectiveness of teamwork with the extent of informality and unaccountability seems to be an interesting research area and therefore deserves to be further investigated.

5.4 Summarising the Findings of the Pilot Study

This summary attempts to make a synthesis of the findings from the questionnaire and interviews conducted within the pilot study. Overall, the findings indicate that several aspects of the work undertaken by Libyan managers are similar in nature to those undertaken by managers in more developed economies. For instance, Libyan managers stressed the time they spent on leading and planning. However, differences were highlighted, particularly from the interview data. It is these findings that allow the researcher to make a tentative initial appraisal that the notion of a universality of managerial work (Mintzberg, 1973; Lubatkin et al., 1997) is not supported by the findings of the pilot study because there are discrepancies between the nature of managerial work as it is reflected in the questionnaire and the way it was represented by managers in the interviews. It is these findings that really justify the use of pilot study interviews, because while the questionnaire was useful, its factors (the managerial roles) were derived primarily from Mintzberg (1973) and therefore reflect a preconceived notion of the nature of managerial work. So while many Libyan managers confirmed the factors in the questionnaire were part of or affected their work, the interviews presented a different perspective. For example, the interviewees gave accounts of very strong influence on their work and behaviour from the external environment, particularly the effect of family, tribal and social obligations on aspects of their work such as decision making, and even the amount of time they have to apportion to developing and maintaining personal relationship networks. This evidence gives an indication that the work of Libyan managers is conducted on

an informal basis to a greater extent than is likely to be found in a Western context, and that the many informal meetings that characterise a typical day for a manager are used to agree actions that are additional to the requirements of their position and not necessarily formally recorded. The data given above in the section of this chapter on the Obstacles of the External Environment concerning the influence of a particular tribal leader on one interviewee illustrates the extent to which issues of social control affect the decisions managers make and the time they spend on observing social responsibilities.

5.5 The Role of the Pilot Study in Informing the Research Strategy for the Main Study

The nature of the pilot study as a two part investigation using both quantitative and qualitative data allowed the researcher to make points of comparison between the data produced. As explained above, the quantitative (questionnaire) element of the pilot study drew on Western models of managerial work to present respondents with: firstly, a number of managerial functions, inviting them to estimate the time spent on these functions; secondly, the frequency with which their managerial work roles were performed; and thirdly, the influence of the external environment on their work activity. In general, the results show a set of priorities and influences not dissimilar to what might be expected from a manager in a Western country; however, the qualitative (interview) element of the pilot study investigated managerial work in more detail and uncovered some discrepancies between managerial work as it was presented in interview and the findings of the questionnaire. These discrepancies were the pilot study's main contribution to the design of the second (main) phase of data collection, and are reflected in the interview questions given below.

One area in which a particular discrepancy was noted was in the issue of the influence of the external environment on managerial work. In the questionnaire data the influence of political issues was given greater prominence than that of socio-cultural issues, yet in the interviews the reverse seemed to be the case.

Among the findings of the supporting interviews it is worth mentioning that in chapter three (the literature review regarding Libyan managerial work context) it was documented that the characteristics of the Libyan social environment profoundly affected the Libyan managers' work activities. Moreover, the extent of external influence overall was much more pronounced in the interview data, and it became clear in the interviews that the managers saw the external environment in a different way from that envisaged in the questionnaire. Libyan managers did not see political, legal and socio-cultural influences as being separate, but rather as forming a single influence with many interconnected factors. As a result, question (h) of the main study was amended to reflect this conception (a copy of the questions employed in the main interview phase is given below). Figure 5.1 below illustrates the way in which the findings of the pilot study influenced the questions devised for the main phase, showing that data from the questionnaire and interviews were compared and some discrepancies were found; both between the interviews and questionnaire (the importance of the external environment) and within the questionnaire itself (disagreement over the importance of leadership as a managerial role). The researcher was therefore determined to explore these discrepancies, and others outlined above, further in the main stage.

Figure 5.1: The Role of the Pilot Study in Informing the Research Strategy for the Main Study

The Pilot Study
Banking and Oil Sectors: 111 questionnaires & 5 interviews
Main purpose: Identifying themes, patterns, and areas for further enquiry
Identifying case-studies

Interviews | **Questionnaire**

- Difficulties and Influences on managers - e.g. lack of clarity around managers' authorities and responsibilities; the power of personal relationships and social and cultural characteristics on business performance; the importance of informal atmospheres within the work environment; political, legal and judicial effects; the need to establish a balance between inside (the company) and outside (the environment) requirements.

- The dominance of technical activities
- The importance of personal and oral contact in establishing a new or first-time contact

- Executives' time spent on leading more than the other managerial functions

- Disseminator and monitor (informational roles) were acknowledged as executives' most important roles. In contrast to the results from the managerial function questions, the role of leader (leading) was not seen as the most important role.

- Executives' work was influenced most by political-legal factors

1) Issues and areas for further inquiry
2) Advantages (disadvantages) of the questionnaire & the interviews
3) The selection of case-studies

The Main Study
1) Informal side within managers' work activity; managerial & personal relationship/communication; classification and characteristics of managers' work; external environment (socio-cultural, political-legal and economic influences)... etc.
2) Interviews
3) Two banks & two oil companies.

Questions Devised for the Main Phase

The main study interview questions together with the covering letter that introduced them are included in appendix E.

a) Could you describe a typical day in your work as a manager in your current position - yesterday or the day before for example, if you consider it as a typical day?

b) Could you explain the qualities and characteristics of the work and activities that you engage in as a manager in your current position?

c) What would you say to describe the requirements of your work in terms of managerial relationships and communication inside and outside the organisation?

d) Could you classify the activities which make up your work as a manager in your current position into key groups, with an explanation that identifies the sub-activities inside each main group? (Please give an estimate of the percentage of your time spent on each).

e) On the basis of your experience and actual everyday work-life in the current position, could you clarify a list of routine and non-routine tasks that you do?

f) As a part of this organisation, what do consider to be the contribution that you - as a manager in your current position - add to the organisation's success? (Please cite examples wherever possible).

g) To what extent do 'informal relationships' within your organisation affect your managerial work, and in what ways? (Please give examples from actual events and your experience).

h) Could you explain the effects of the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment on your work and behaviour, and how your work is influenced? (Please give examples as much as possible).

i) As a leader or a member of the top management team, what would you say concerning your experience with such teams, including the way that the team was established, team tasks, roles of the leader and members, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the team?

5.5 Conclusion

This pilot study was the preliminary and first phase of the field study, which consists of two stages. It aimed to shed light and to identify the most important issues and matters concerning the nature of Libyan managerial work within its national context. The main purpose of conducting such an exploratory study was to reach themes, issues and research areas for further inquiry. In regard to data collection, the pilot study consisted of a questionnaire survey targeted Libyan top-level managers in the banking and oil sectors and, in addition, a limited number of semi-structured interviews with five Libyan executive managers from five different organisations - three banks and two oil companies.

The questionnaire included varied questions which divided into three main parts. The first one related to general and demographic information about the participants. The second section was about the characteristics and nature of the managerial work of the participants. The classic managerial functions as well as managerial work role approaches were used in discovering the nature of Libyan managerial work. The third section investigated the impact of the Libyan external environment factors on the work of Libyan top managers. The semi-structured interviews were also aimed at identifying the nature of Libyan managerial work and the effects of Libya's external environment on it. Nevertheless, the questions and the questioning technique were dissimilar compared with the questionnaire. For example, the interview questions did not specify any approach regarding the managerial work. Instead, the interview's questions were formulated in the way in that allowed the participants to speak openly using 'unguided thinking' and, moreover, encouraged them to report actual incidents from their own experiences and practices.

The approach to the presentation of the questionnaire data was different from the presentation of the interview data. In the former the findings were presented regardless the kind of each sector; in other words, the questionnaire findings from both banking and oil sectors were presented and discussed together as a whole. No attempts were made to discover similarities and differences between

the two sectors although findings of each sector (sector tables) are provided in order to, hopefully, assist other researchers who are chiefly interested in investigating the impact of sector type on the nature of managerial work and behaviour – (see appendix G). It is not to say that there is no merit in presenting the findings differently; for example based on similarities/differences, but simply that the impact of sector was not the pilot study's main concern. The limited number of interviews conducted (5) and more importantly the primary aim of conducting the pilot study encouraged the researcher to present the findings by respondent rather any other different approach such as in groups of similarities or/and differences. Although the presentation of interview findings was based on the respondent, a comparison between these findings, on one hand, and the questionnaire findings, on the other hand, was to some extent made.

The pilot study benefits the current research at different levels. Firstly, it aids in identifying and selecting organisations to be case studies for the subsequent main study. They are four case studies - two banks and two oil companies, namely: Wahda Bank (WB); Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD); Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO) and Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC).These cases were particularly decided to be the case-studies for the present research because of the following reasons:

- *The level of access available. These selected cases offered a higher degree of access than others – this owes much to researcher's relationship and prior dealings.*
- *The similarities in environment and conditions that Libyan organisations in the banking sector face, and the separate environment and conditions facing organisations in the oil sector.*
- *The time, cost, and effort would have been prohibitively expensive if this study had extended the number of cases.*
- *The inability to access some organisations, in the oil sector particularly, due to the high requirement for security and safety permission and procedures.*

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Secondly, results of the pilot study significantly influenced the inputs to the next and main stage as it provided a ground of themes, issues and research area to be more deeply researched. Finally, the pilot study, to some extent, provided confirmation that the research philosophy adopted, as well as the research strategy and methods, was appropriate - as remarked previously in chapter four.

Chapter Six
Grounded Analysis

It may be worthwhile to begin by emphasising that this chapter should be seen as the first part of the data analysis and therefore cannot be separated from the next chapter – Case Study Analysis. Both chapters work together in a sequence to conduct the phase of research data analysis. In doing so, this chapter is divided into the following main parts: Introduction; Interviewees' Profiles; Emerging Constructs; Categorising the Emerging Constructs; and Conclusion.

6.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to create a grounding of core constructs that are intended to work as a guide to conducting the case-study analysis in the next chapter – chapter seven. In other words, this chapter provides an initial stage of analysing the raw data of the semi-structured interviews. Throughout this stage, therefore, a grounded analysis is conducted within which constructs emerged. From these constructs it was possible to compile collective categories.

As mentioned in the methodology chapter (chapter 4), the grounded analysis in the present research consists of two distinct yet interrelated processes: open coding; and axial coding. In the former, the purpose is to produce constructs that emerge from the interview data in order to answer the question "what is this about?" This means that the collected data are disaggregated into conceptual units by using different processes such as examining and comparing, and then given names - the process of naming is known as coding (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Here, it might be worthwhile to refer to some selected quotations presented with the associated constructs that emerged after conducting the open coding process. When the respondents were invited to talk about managerial relationships regarding their work activities, the responses from three different interviewees were as follow:

1) … in regard to your question about managerial relationship, in our job we rely on person's name more than a department's name.

2) There has not been yet a complete organisational directory that illustrates the relationship between my department and other departments inside the bank ... these relationships are subject to knowledge gained from previous managers in the same job and are more a matter of routine or tradition, as well as the nature of the matter you are dealing with.

3) … we deal with each other [referring to his department and the other departments] without a clear vision about what these relationships should be.

These interviewees and others asserted that there were unclear forms and structures concerning the managerial relationships within Libyan managers' work activity and accordingly the researcher decided to give these points a label, namely: "**the lack of managerial relationship patterns**", which represents the interviewees' point.

The axial coding can be described as the process of relating constructs, which are produced by the open coding, to each other. In other words, categorising the emerging constructs into categories is the purpose of conducting the axial coding. Those categories, along with their related constructs, should be identified according to the relationships recognised between them. For example, after conducting the open coding on the interview data there were six emerging constructs out of a total of twenty four emerging constructs having a commonality between them. They focused on describing the characteristics of Libyan managers' work activity; these constructs are: heavy workloads; wide variety of work; processed at high speed; excess of written communication; heavy mental work; and a considerable degree of routine work. The researcher decided to group these constructs under the one identified category named: **Qualities of work.**

Indeed, the grounded analysis allows a more open approach to the analysis of interview data (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), which is the case in the present research.

To put it briefly, the grounded analysis is an inductive approach, based on interpretation and in this case aided by the cultural context shared by researcher and research subjects. This was helpful because a Western researcher may not have been aware of certain cultural and linguistic nuances that emerged in the interview process.

6.2 Profile of the Interviewees

During the interviews the respondents were asked to provide general and demographic information in order to create a profile of the case-study respondents in terms of their position; their qualifications; and their experience. Table 6.1 presents a summary of the respondents' profiles.

Table 6.1 Summary of Case-Study Interviewee Profiles

Interv- iewees	Position	Qualific- ation	Academic Background	Work Experience (years)
OJ1	Member of the Management Committee for Financial and Administrative Affairs and Services	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
OJ2	Information and Technical Control Manager	Masters (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OJ3	Manager of the Legal Office	PhD (France)	Law	> 20
OJ4	Operations Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Engineering	15 - 20
OJ5	Projects and General Maintenance Manager	Masters (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OJ6	Member of the Management Committee for Materials, Operations and Manufacturing	Bachelor (Libya)	Geology	> 20
OG1	Administration and Staff Manager	Masters (U.S.A)	Business Administration	> 20
OG2	Manufacturing Manager	Masters (Libya)	Engineering	> 20
OG3	Maintenance Manager	Masters (Libya)	Environment	> 20
OG4	Member of the Management Committee for Engineering and Projects	Masters (Canada)	Engineering	> 20
OG5	Member of the Management Committee for Supply, Transportation and Services	Masters (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OG6	Finance Affairs Manager	Master (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
BC1	Manager of Banking Operations Management	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
BC2	Accounting Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BC3	Administrative Affairs Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	10 - 15
BC4	The General Manager *	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BC5	IT Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Computer Science	5 - 10
BC6	Credit Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Economics	> 20
BC7	Manager of the Legal Office	Bachelor (Libya)	Law	> 20
BW1	Head of Risk Management	PhD (Egypt)	Accounting	10 - 15
BW2	Manager of Banking Operations	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BW3	Head of Administrative Affairs & Real Estate Sector	-	-	> 20
BW4	Accounting Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
BW5	IT Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Computer Science	15 - 20
BW6	Head of Credit Sector	-	-	> 20

* In Libya, The title General Manager refers to the CEO.

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From table 6.1 it can be seen that the respondents were well educated, as they all had a university degree or above - nearly 30 per cent of whom had studied outside of Libya. This may indicate that the respondents' theoretical understanding of the concepts and issues of managerial work and the effects of the external environment can be relied upon, and that they had some experience of the nature of managerial work outside Libya. However, most of those respondents who had studied outside Libya were from the Oil sector - the letters (O) and (B) at the beginning of interviewee's symbol refer to the Oil and the Banking sectors respectively. Taking into account the respondents' educational backgrounds, it can be noticed that business and engineering studies were the dominant fields of study. Likewise, a considerable majority of respondents had a substantial amount of work experience. This was to be expected due to the fact that the interviews were exclusively targeted at top-level managers. In this regard, the experience of respondents can be expected to add a great deal of practical value to their views about issues related to their work and the extent of the influence of the external environment on it.

6.3 Emerging Constructs

The purpose of this part of the data analysis was to produce some constructs that would emerge from the interview data and that would form the basis of the case study analysis described in chapter seven. The researcher found that the most productive method of analysis in terms of emerging constructs was to consider the responses to interview questions in a random sequence. Thus, rather than selecting question one and analysing all the responses to it at once, or selecting a respondent and recording all their responses at once, the researcher selected questions and respondents randomly and recorded responses in a table, so that his thinking with regard to constructs was not clouded by constant repetition and patterns were not dictated by his knowledge of the respondents. For example, the researcher might consider the data of respondent BC3 to question 2, and then that of OJ6 to question 5, recording emerging constructs in each case. At the end of this process the constructs emerging can be considered to have been relatively

unaffected by the researcher's bias, which can be a characteristic of qualitative research.

The process that aims to produce the emerging constructs represents the open coding part of the data analysis, as described in the methodology chapter – Chapter 4. The questions asked, and the constructs that emerged through this technique are summarised below:

a) Could you describe a typical day in your work as a manager in your current position - yesterday or the day before for example, if you consider it as a typical day?

Using the technique described above, the constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Seeking / informing others of necessary information.
- Making sure that the work they were accountable for was achieved.
- Desk work.
- Responding to emerging issues.
- Dealing with outsiders.

The frequency with which each construct was mentioned by the respondents is illustrated in table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Descriptions of a Typical Day

Interv-iewees	Seeking / informing others of necessary information	Making sure that the work they were accountable for was achieved	Desk work	Responding to emerging issues	Dealing with outsiders
OJ1	×	×	×	×	×
OJ2	×	×	×	×	×
OJ3	×	×	×	×	×
OJ4		×	×	×	×
OJ5	×	×		×	×
OJ6	×	×		×	×
OG1	×	×	×		×
OG2	×	×	×	×	
OG3	×	×	×	×	×
OG4	×	×		×	×
OG5		×		×	×
OG6	×	×		×	×
BC1	×	×	×	×	×
BC2		×	×	×	
BC3	×	×	×	×	×
BC4	×	×	×	×	×
BC5	×	×		×	×
BC6	×	×	×	×	×
BC7	×	×	×		×
BW1	×	×		×	×
BW2	×	×	×	×	×
BW3	×	×	×	×	×
BW4	×	×	×	×	×
BW5	×				×
BW6	×	×		×	×

b) Could you explain the qualities and characteristics of the work and activities that you engage in as a manager in your current position?

The constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Heavy workloads.
- Wide variety of work.
- Mostly technical aspects.
- Processed at high speed.

Table 6.3 Work Characteristics

Interv-iewees	Heavy workloads	Wide variety of work	Mostly technical aspects	Processed at high speed
OJ1	×	×	×	×
OJ2		×	×	
OJ3		×	×	
OJ4	×	×	×	×
OJ5	×		×	
OJ6	×	×	×	
OG1		×		
OG2	×	×	×	
OG3	×		×	×
OG4	×	×	×	
OG5	×		×	
OG6	×	×		×
BC1	×	×	×	
BC2	×	×	×	×
BC3	×	×		
BC4	×	×		×
BC5	×		×	×
BC6	×		×	×
BC7	×	×	×	×
BW1	×			
BW2	×	×	×	
BW3	×	×		×
BW4	×	×	×	×
BW5		×	×	×
BW6	×	×		

c) What would you say to describe the requirements of your work in terms of managerial relationships and communication inside and outside the organisation?

The constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Excess of written communication.
- The lack of managerial relationship patterns.

Table 6.4 Managerial Relationships and Communication

Interv-iewees	Excess of written communication	The lack of managerial relationship patterns
OJ1	×	
OJ2		×
OJ3	×	
OJ4		×
OJ5	×	×
OJ6	×	
OG1	×	
OG2	×	×
OG3	×	
OG4	×	×
OG5		×
OG6		×
BC1	×	
BC2	×	
BC3	×	×
BC4	×	×
BC5		×
BC6		×
BC7	×	
BW1		×
BW2	×	×
BW3	×	×
BW4	×	×
BW5		
BW6		

d) Could you classify the activities which make up your work as a manager in your current position into key groups, with an explanation that identifies the sub-activities inside each main group?

The constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Concentrating on technical activities.
- Social activities.
- Heavy mental work.
- Consultations.

Table 6.5 Classification of Activities

Interv-iewees	Concentrating on technical activities	Social activities	Heavy Mental work	Consultations
OJ1	×	×	×	×
OJ2	×			×
OJ3	×	×	×	×
OJ4	×	×		
OJ5	×			×
OJ6	×	×		
OG1				×
OG2	×			
OG3	×			
OG4	×			×
OG5	×			×
OG6	×			
BC1	×			×
BC2	×	×		×
BC3		×		
BC4		×	×	×
BC5	×			
BC6	×	×		
BC7	×		×	×
BW1	×			×
BW2	×			×
BW3				
BW4	×			×
BW5	×	×		
BW6	×			×

e) On the basis of your experience and actual everyday work-life in the current position, could you clarify a list of routine and non-routine tasks that you do?

The construct that emerged for this question was:

- A considerable degree of routine work.

Table 6.6 Routine and Non-routine Tasks

Interviewees	A considerable degree of routine work
OJ1	
OJ2	×
OJ3	×
OJ4	×
OJ5	×
OJ6	
OG1	×
OG2	×
OG3	×
OG4	
OG5	
OG6	×
BC1	×
BC2	×
BC3	×
BC4	
BC5	×
BC6	
BC7	×
BW1	
BW2	×
BW3	×
BW4	×
BW5	×
BW6	

f) As a part of this organisation, what do consider to be the contribution that you – as a manager in your current position – add to the organisation's success?

The constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Using personal relationships to benefit the company.
- Being approachable to others.
- Being a guard of the company's interests.

Table 6.7 Contribution to the Organisation's Success

Interv-iewees	Using personal relationships to benefit the company	Being approachable to others	Being a guard
OJ1	×		×
OJ2		×	×
OJ3		×	×
OJ4	×	×	
OJ5	×	×	×
OJ6	×		×
OG1		×	×
OG2		×	
OG3		×	
OG4	×		
OG5			×
OG6	×		×
BC1	×		×
BC2			
BC3	×	×	×
BC4	×	×	×
BC5		×	
BC6	×	×	×
BC7		×	×
BW1		×	×
BW2	×	×	×
BW3			×
BW4			×
BW5		×	
BW6			

g) To what extent do 'informal relationships' within your organisation affect your managerial work, and in what ways?

The construct that emerged for this question was:

- Need to build an informal relationships network.

Table 6.8 Informal Relationships

Interv-iewees	Need to build an informal relationships network
OJ1	×
OJ2	
OJ3	×
OJ4	×
OJ5	×
OJ6	×
OG1	×
OG2	×
OG3	
OG4	×
OG5	
OG6	×
BC1	×
BC2	
BC3	×
BC4	×
BC5	
BC6	×
BC7	×
BW1	
BW2	×
BW3	×
BW4	
BW5	×
BW6	×

h) Could you explain the effects of the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment on your work and behaviour, and how your work is influenced? (N.B. The terms employed in this question are wide-ranging and complex; therefore the researcher discussed them with respondents prior to the interview and clarified any issues that arose in the interviews, as outlined in section 4.4.2.3.1).

The constructs that emerged for this question were:

- Negative effects.
- Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment.
- A flexible approach to handle the effects (a balancer).

Table 6.9 Effects of External Environment

Interv-iewees	Negative effects	Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment	A flexible approach to handle the effects (a balancer)
OJ1	×	×	×
OJ2	×	×	×
OJ3	×		
OJ4	×	×	×
OJ5	×		×
OJ6	×	×	×
OG1	×	×	×
OG2	×		×
OG3	×	×	
OG4	×	×	×
OG5	×	×	
OG6	×	×	×
BC1	×	×	×
BC2	×		
BC3	×	×	×
BC4	×	×	×
BC5	×		
BC6	×	×	×
BC7	×		×
BW1	×		
BW2	×	×	×
BW3	×	×	×
BW4	×		
BW5	×		×
BW6	×	×	

i) As a leader or a member of the top management team, what would you say concerning your experience with such teams, including the way that the team was established, team tasks, roles of the leader and members, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the team?

The construct that emerged for this question was:

- Difficulties working as a top management team.

Table 6.10 Top Management Team

Interviewees	Difficulties working as a top management team
OJ1	×
OJ2	×
OJ3	×
OJ4	×
OJ5	
OJ6	
OG1	×
OG2	
OG3	×
OG4	
OG5	×
OG6	
BC1	×
BC2	×
BC3	×
BC4	×
BC5	×
BC6	×
BC7	
BW1	
BW2	×
BW3	×
BW4	×
BW5	×
BW6	

6.4 Categorising the Emerging Constructs

The process of open coding that was conducted in the preceding section resulted in twenty four emerging constructs; the following table shows all the emerging constructs along with the interview questions that produced the data necessary to generate these constructs.

Table 6.11 Emerging Constructs

Question	Emerging Constructs
(a)	• Seeking / informing others of necessary information • Making sure that the work they were accountable for was achieved • Desk work • Responding to emerging issues • Dealing with outsiders
(b)	• Heavy workloads • Wide variety of work • Mostly technical aspects • Processed at high speed
(c)	• Excess of written communication • The lack of managerial relationship patterns
(d)	• Concentrating on technical activities • Social activities • Heavy mental work • Consultations
(e)	• A considerable degree of routine work
(f)	• Using personal relationships to benefit the company • Being approachable to others • Being a guard
(g)	• Need to build an informal relationships network
(h)	• Negative effects • Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment • A flexible approach to handle the effects (a balancer)
(i)	• Difficulties working as a top management team

These emerging constructs shown in Table 6.11 above will be placed into categories in accordance to the axial coding process as described in the methodology chapter, following the open coding process.

As described previously, the product of the axial coding process was to be categories, which would allow the emerging constructs that were identified as being related to be grouped together. Each category was based on the relationships or commonalities among all the constructs within the category. It was important at this point to ensure that all the emerging constructs were considered to be a part of an identified category and that each construct belonged to only one category.

As an example to explain how the division of these constructs into five categories was arrived at, an explanation of one selected category is provided below. The analysis of these 24 emerging categories indicated that there was a

commonality between six constructs which could be grouped into one category, reflecting this commonality. These six constructs are:

From question (b): Heavy workloads; Wide variety of work; and Processed at high speed,

From question (c): Excess of written communication,

From question (d): Heavy mental work, and

From question (e): A considerable degree of routine work.

The focus of these constructs is to describe the characteristics of executives' work activity and therefore they were grouped together into one category, namely Qualities of Work.

After analysing the twenty four emerging constructs shown in Table 6.11 above, it became apparent that there was a commonality between them and that they could be grouped further; from this process five groupings appeared, the collective title for each category being as follows:

- Activities
- Qualities of work
- Technical
- Difficulties
- Informal work

As an aid to understanding the presentation of evidence in chapter seven, these categories are described below:

6.4.1 Activities

These are the routine activities of the managers; they include all the tasks formally expected of them by the organisation, and the evidence collected is designed to show what these activities consist of and which were the most important in terms of consuming time and effort. They were designed to give an outline to the regular work in the day of a manager's working life. Within this category, five constructs are included; these are briefly highlighted as follows.

Seeking / informing others of necessary information: this emerging construct refers to dealing with information in terms of seeking and informing others inside and outside the organisation. Receiving and sending information is considered as part of Libyan managers' requirement concerning their job and responsibilities. This type of Libyan managers' work activity has been frequently mentioned as an important part within the work of Western managers by many scholars – e.g. in Mintzberg's informational roles (1973). The other four emerging constructs that were grouped into this category were: **Making sure that the work they were responsible for was achieved; Responding to emerging issues; Dealing with outsiders; Consultations.** The evidence that led to the formation of the emerging constructs and subsequently to the categorisation of these constructs will be presented in chapter seven, where the data analysis will be complemented by comparisons to the literature on the nature of managerial work.

6.4.2 Qualities of Work

The emerging constructs in this grouping were intended to show the nature of the work undertaken by Libyan managers; what was required of them to complete the activities uncovered by the first category. The researcher was interested to discover whether written work or the preparation of reports was a large part of their tasks, and how much of their time was spent on attending meetings, and whether these were formal or otherwise. Within this category, six constructs are included; these are: **Heavy workloads; Wide variety of work; Processed at high speed; Excess of written communication; Heavy mental work;** and **A considerable degree of routine work.**

6.4.3 Technical

The researcher realised from the initial phases of the study that in both the banking and oil sectors managers were required to deal with a large amount of technical information in the form of reading, preparing and overseeing technical or statistical reports, and also in managing technical projects. For example, the banking managers were involved in integrating new technology into their

companies, and the oil industry managers had technical data such as exploratory surveys to manage and make decisions on. The researcher wanted to assess how they coped with these technical demands and how it impacted on the rest of their work. Therefore, the emerging constructs that were placed into this category were: **Desk work; Mostly technical aspects; Concentrating on technical activities.** It may be worthwhile to mention that from reviewing the literature, Hales (1986) in the publication *Elements of Managerial Work* acknowledged that "managers perform both specialist/technical and general/administrative work*"* (p.95).

6.4.4 Difficulties

This category was designed to collect data on the barriers that existed to the managers doing their work effectively and efficiently. The researcher was concerned to gather data on the effects of the external environment, such as socio-cultural influences and the legal-political structure, as well as any internal difficulties that impeded the managers in performing their work within their own company. Emerging constructs that were placed into this category were: **Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment; Difficulties working as a top management team; Negative effects; The lack of managerial relationship patterns.**

6.4.5 Informal Work

This category was designed to test what the Libyan managers did over and above the work expected of them by their employers. Senior managers everywhere are expected to work very hard, but often their effectiveness could be determined by the network of relationships and contacts they build up that they were able to draw upon when needed. The researcher hoped to discover from this grouping how Libyan managers formed these networks and what effort and time was required to maintain them; furthermore, how informal relationships operated within the managers' companies, how the manager's protected their companies from demands made by informal contacts and how they balanced their need to be socially active in business with the demands of

their everyday activities. The category was also intended to establish whether informal relationships were a boon or a burden to the managers. Emerging constructs included in this category were: **Being approachable to others; Being a guard; A flexible approach to handle the effects (a balancer); Social activities; Using personal relationships to benefit the company; Need to build an informal relationships network.**

These categories are illustrated, together with their emerging constructs, in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Emerging Constructs within their Categories

Group Title	Emerging Constructs
Activities	- Seeking / informing others of necessary information - Making sure that the work they were responsible for was achieved - Responding to emerging issues - Dealing with outsiders - Consultations
Qualities of Work	- Heavy workloads - Wide variety of work - Processed at high speed - Excess of written communication - Heavy mental work - A considerable degree of routine work
Technical	- Desk work - Mostly technical aspects - Concentrating on technical activities
Difficulties	- Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment - Difficulties working as a top management team - Negative effects - The lack of managerial relationship patterns
Informal Work	- Being approachable to others - Being a guard - A flexible approach to handle the effects (a balancer) - Social activities - Using personal relationships to benefit the company - Need to build an informal relationships network

The separation of the main constructs of the Libyan managers' work activity into five categories provides a structure on which to base the next chapter: the case study analysis. Within chapter seven each category of constructs will be considered in relation to the evidence collected from the four case study

companies, with the perceptions of the managers of each company with regard to their managerial work being illustrated by quotations from the respondents. This data analysis will clarify the nature of managerial work in Libya, and how the work of Libyan managers is different from or similar to the work of managers in other countries.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter explained how the researcher dealt with the raw data of the semi-structured interviews in order to produce emerging constructs that provide a conceptualisation of the nature of Libyan managers' work activity. This was achieved by a process of open coding, as described in the methodology. The chapter also explained the process of grouping the emerging constructs into categories, which enabled the researcher to organise the enormous amount of raw data produced by the interviews into conceptual groups that captured the important elements of Libyan managerial work. This allowed the researcher to deal with the raw interview data and have it fully conceptualised before introducing the observation and documentary data to supplement the interviews. This simplified the process of data analysis considerably and ensured that important data were not lost or confused with each other. In the next chapter the evidence that was used for the grounded analysis is related to the data collected from observations and documentary evidence, and the resulting synthesis is compared to previous findings from the literature: this is the case study analysis.

Chapter Seven

Case Study Analysis

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter aimed to provide a guide for case-studies analysis. This chapter includes the analysis and interpretation of data gathered from this study. Four case studies were carried out as described in Chapter Four. Each case in this chapter is examined as a whole to obtain an understanding of the opinions and perspectives of the respondents from each individual organisation. The analysis of each case was guided by the framework that was obtained from the grounded analysis undertaken in Chapter Six. After analysing each case and presenting the findings from these four cases separately, a comparison among them is made. The findings that represent the four cases together are discussed. To do so, this chapter is divided into six sections. The first section is an introduction. The following sections from two to five represent the four cases. The final section is a cross-case analysis.

7.2 Case 1: Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD)

The Commerce and Development Bank (BCD) is a private commercial bank operating in the Libyan market. It was established in 1996 under the law No.1, 1993 and its amendments. The bank was the first private bank to open in Libya since the coup of 1969. It is located in Benghazi and has 9 branches and 19 agencies around the country. Its paid capital is 50 million LYD and its total assets are more than 1800 million LYD. The bank is a member of the Union of Arab Banks; the Society of Libyan Banks; and the Union of Magreb Banks, and it is widely acknowledged to be one of the Libyan's most capable and innovative commercial banks. With a total number of 693 employees, it provides a wide range of banking products and services (Commerce and Development Bank's Annual Reports, 2008, 2009).

7.2.1 Respondents

Table 7.1 shows some details about the interviewees who participated in this case study such as job title, qualifications and work experience. The interviewees represented the totality of the executive management of the company.

Table 7.1 Profile of the BCD's respondents

Interv-iewees	Position	Qualification	Academic Background	Work Experience (years)
BC1	Manager of Banking Operations Management	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
BC2	Accounting Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BC3	Administrative Affairs Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	10 - 15
BC4	The General Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BC5	IT Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Computer Science	5 - 10
BC6	Credit Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Economics	> 20
BC7	Manager of the Legal Office	Bachelor (Libya)	Law	> 20

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7.2.2 The Work of Executive Managers at BCD

7.2.2.1 Activities

Executives at the BCD reported that there were several activities in which they engaged. These activities according to their views mainly included: firstly, activities that related to information. Dealing with information was highly emphasised by the majority of respondents. This involved both seeking and informing others of necessary information, which were considered to be an important part in their job. In particular, receiving and sending information was cited as a requirement of their job and a part of their responsibilities. For example, The Central Bank of Libya's regulations oblige commercial banks to provide regular information regarding their financial position and operations, in addition to receiving and acting upon relevant information from the CBL. For example, one respondent stated that:

I start my day by checking my incoming mail to keep myself updated concerning my work. It is very important to know what is going on and this is a part of our job ... Being a top-level manager, firstly, you have to deal with information in both ways; receiving and sending, for example, information that comes from The Central Bank of Libya and The Board of Directors, and, secondly, you have to find out what is going on within the bank: its operations, clients etc.

In this regard, the executives criticised the processes of transmitting information received from The Central Bank of Libya - and vice versa – as these activities consumed an unnecessarily large proportion of their time.

Secondly, all the respondents stressed the activity of ensuring that the work that was in the scope of their responsibilities was achieved. According to their views, several sub activities such as a continual supervision and follow-up of the work are essential in accomplishing the work effectively. A respondent stated that:

One of my priorities includes follow-up, control and supervision of the work that is within the scope of my responsibilities in order to ensure that the work is performed well. This happens on a daily basis and, by doing so, mistakes or/and delays in achieving the job are reduced.

Another respondent pointed out that the motivation of subordinates was an important part of their responsibility, but complained that he lacked the authority to authorise financial rewards to support good performance; he said

I do motivate my subordinates in order to encourage them and monitor their effort but, unfortunately, monetary rewards, which are highly preferable, are not one of the powers at my disposal.

Nevertheless, this respondent admitted that the use of motivation is limited to the non-monetary types and, as a result, it has only a narrow degree of effect.

Thirdly, most of the top level managers interviewed within this bank stated that their daily work regularly included dealing with matters and issues that arose on a daily basis for which responses had to be found. One stated that:

> *Issues and problems arise almost every day and the best way to deal with them is to face and solve them. Some fundamental issues need to be returned to the Board of Directors, and the others I either process or transfer back to the   department that referred it to me. I remember on one occasion – as an example of the fundamental issues – that a very important client (a company) wanted to close its account with us due to not being offered a special deal concerning personal loans that its employees were requesting from the bank.*

 In this respect, the response to emerging issues were seen by the respondents as an important element of their work. It may be worth mentioning that according to the researcher observations note, it was apparent that the respondents had to act in response to emerging issues several times during the interview process. In addition, it was observed that many of the up-and-coming required a rapid response.

More than one respondent mentioned that their work was complicated by the amount of issues referred upwards to them by more junior managers, who had the competence to deal with them but lacked confidence in their authority and feared to take responsibility for an action without written permission; one stated

> *A part of the work that I perform should not be reaching my office; it should be done at the lower levels in the first place. It is a matter of more junior managers avoiding blame if something goes incorrect, and the best way to do so is to heap it on my shoulders.*

Fourthly, the executives considered the activity of dealing with outsiders as an important part in their jobs. One respondent reported that:

> *... there is a significant part of my job that is connected to issues that necessitate dealing with external parties, such as governmental bodies.*

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Furthermore, respondents mentioned that this dealing with others from outside the bank included many different kinds of outsiders. For instance, the types of outsiders include governmental institutions – e.g. Taxation Department and Social Insurance Fund; and national and foreign companies that have contracts with the bank and / or that were in the scope of the bank's market.

Finally, a number of respondents within the bank highlighted the importance of giving consultations to others as a major part of their activities. In this respect, it seemed that the role of being an adviser and someone that others referred to in a specific functional area was in the managers' thinking. One argued that:

> *My typical day usually includes the role of being an expert in my job area within which I give advice, guidance and practical opinions.*

7.2.2.2 Qualities of work

The top managers described their managerial work as mainly consisting of heavy workloads, covering a diverse range of tasks, processed at high speed and characterised by an excess of written communication, as well as a considerable degree of routine work. It is a fact that the executives at the bank needed to work beyond the official working hours to meet the daily requirement of their managerial work. One respondent stated

> *There is just not enough time! I usually have to stay one or two hours after the end of the workday to finish my work, and at times I come back to my office in the evening.*

Another respondent added that:

> *I carry some work with me to look at it at home as I sometimes do need a quiet place in order to be able to concentrate on some important issues.*

A possible interpretation of the above quotation is that executives were not able to work quietly and continually in their workplace, due to constant interruptions from the telephone and employees visiting their office. The researcher also

observed that sometimes the executives were visited by outsiders who wanted to deal with the manager's personal business, for example a family matter. The researcher also observed that executives were interrupted on several occasions during the interviews.

The previous quotation as well as the researcher's observations may suggest that the executives' claims with regard to their heavy workloads was partially due to characteristics of the managers' environment instead of being caused by their managerial work itself. For example, the obligation to suspend work to make time for a social visit during office hours, or the expectation that managers should be free to attend to family duties such as taking their children to medical appointments.

With regard to the claim that top-level managers' work was characterised by an excess of written communication, this point may be understood in light of the need of assign responsibility in the executives' work environment. One expressed it thus:

> *... let me tell you something as an example of the importance of using written communication so much. There was a problem in one of our branches and the one who made the mistake that caused the problem denied his mistake, saying he did not mean what the branch understood. So, if there had been a piece of paper it would have been easy to find out who was responsible.*

There was however an additional reason, which could contribute to the explanation of the excess of written communication. The same respondent mentioned that the use of written communication is preferred for its potential to provide a definite understanding about the matter under consideration. He stated

> *... after several phone calls to one of our colleagues regarding a bank letter of guarantee that a client requested, I realised that it was better to fax the relevant documents to him in order to assure the correct understanding of this matter.*

7.2.2.3 Technical

There was some evidence that there was a heavily technical side to the work of executives at the BCD. It was mentioned that executives were typically doing an amount of technical desk work that related to reviewing and reading or / and writing reports, letters and statistics. One executive expressed his dissatisfaction about the large amount of financial reports and statistics that has to be prepared to meet the requirements of The Board of Directors and The Central Bank of Libya. He claimed that:

> *My workday is encumbered with tasks that relate to the preparation and reviewing of financial reports. We should be treated as experts whose role is principally giving consultations, not being overburdened with preparing reports.*

It seemed that the executives' classifications of their activities were dominated by their technical activities. As an example, what follows is a classification - with estimated percentages of spent time on each group of activities - that was provided by an executive within the bank:

> *Follow up activities (30%)*
> *Activities related to reports and statistics (30%)*
> *Activities related to information circulation (10%)*
> *Administrative work (10%)*
> *Others (20%)*

7.2.2.4 Difficulties

The executives mentioned that there were several difficulties that they faced. These difficulties seemed mainly to be related to the external environment. The Libyan socio-cultural environment for example was frequently mentioned as a source of causing negative effects on executives' work and behaviour. The following quotations are from three different respondents.

> *My personal live is affected as I spend so much time working away from my family and friends.*

Being in such a position creates lots of pressure on your social life and if you cannot deal with it, you may be, day after day, isolated from people you belong to.

Your social life and relationships sometimes force you to do things that you are would really prefer not to do ... it is very hard to overcome all the pressure that comes from everywhere; your family, friends and colleagues.

In addition to the socio-cultural environment effect, executives reported that the political-legal environment had a negative effect on their work. One respondent expressed his dissatisfaction about the ineffectiveness of laws and judicial systems; he stated:

It would be better to sort out issues and problems without having to deal with the judicial systems.

Concern was also expressed over the lack of managerial relationship patterns. One respondent outlined that:

There is not been yet a complete organisational directory that illustrates the relationship between my department and other departments inside the bank ... these relationships are subject to knowledge gained from previous managers in the same job and are more a matter of routine or tradition, as well as the nature of the matter you are dealing with.

The following opinions were given about the difficulties of working as a top management team

I do not think the idea of working as a team exists; there are committees that are formed to deal with particular problems or to make decisions in a particular area, but they are not teams. The Libyan workplace culture is not conducive to building teams; often, managers disagree simply to make a point or gain an advantage, and there is a lack of time to build the understanding necessary for good teamwork.

You also have to pay attention to the personal characteristics of the people who you work with in a team in order to work effectively together.

7.2.2.5 Informal work

As explained in more detail in chapter 5, informality refers to the activities Libyan managers undertook above and beyond the work outlined in their job description (if there was one) and beyond what was specifically asked of them by the bank. The notion of informality within the work of executives at the BCD appeared to have significant implications for an understanding of the roles that executives played in doing their work effectively. The task of working out the boundaries of their formal roles and activities may be reflected in the work of executives in the following areas. First, executives favoured being approachable to others as this supported building and maintaining effective relationships with those who they had dealings with. One respondent stated:

Although I don't have to be available all the time, I try to be so as much as possible as this strengthens the relationships with my employees and colleagues.

In addition, being approachable to others could help in dealing with the issues raised successfully; as one respondent said:

I believe that being available to others can solve many issues that need immediate action.

The second area that executives mentioned was to play the role of a guard. This meant that

There is a need to be aware of people who may harm the bank in different ways, so I usually spend extra effort when I doubt something.

Third, managers need to balance their work and personal life; one manager described this problem thus:

… you should not be too punctilious in keeping to rules; it is important to be flexible in response to the pressure from outside. Keeping a balance between work requirements and the requirements of our society is recommended.

The researcher observed that managers often expended time and effort in balancing the requirements of their role and the needs of a customer or group of customers, whose requirements were perhaps in conflict with the rules of the bank. This flexibility allowed them to meet customer needs, but at the expense of a lot of their time

Fourth, social activities

… it is not explicitly part of a manager's job obligations, but if you want to keep a good relationship with important clients you need to be socially connected with them. Anyway, you could not imagine a long time dealing with somebody without paying respect to the events in his social life.

This maintenance of social contacts represents another important part of the informal aspect of Libyan managers' work; it is not required, the effort is often put in outside of working hours, but the relationships it fosters can be extremely valuable to the bank. This leads to:

Fifth, the value of personal relationships

My personal relationships help me doing my work and give me advantages to effectively handle some issues concerning my work. I have been working in the banking sector for a long time and this allows me to build good and wide personal relationships, which I frequently use in my work.

7.2.3 Summary of the BCD's Findings

As a result of applying case study analysis the researcher was able to reorganise the findings of the first case – as well as the other three cases – based on

viewing the 24 constructs of managerial work from an organisational perspective rather than an individual one: this resulted in reducing the five categories identified by axial coding in the grounded analysis to four dimensions of managerial work, as shown in table 7.2. The documentary evidence collected during the interview process and the observations made in the form of field notes assisted the researcher in gaining a fuller picture of managerial work within the four case studies, because while the raw interview data were being considered using grounded analysis they were very personal and specific to the interviewee. Case study analysis combined with documentary and observational data placed the emerging constructs as concepts within the work of organisations, where it became clear that the technical category was actually an element of the dimension 'qualities of work'.

In terms of the dimensions, the first one represents executives' activities and roles that are required according to their job responsibilities – formal activities and roles. The second indicates the qualities of executives' work. The third shows difficulties that executives cope with. The fourth lays out executives' activities and roles that are undertaken above and beyond, and potentially in conflict with the work outlined in their job responsibilities – these are termed informal activities and roles. Thus, the work of executive managers at the Bank of Commerce & Development is summarised and presented in the form of four dimensions of managerial work, as follows:

Table 7.2 Dimensions of managerial work at BCD

Formal Activities and Roles Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.	**Qualities of work** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Processed at high speed. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.
Difficulties The lack of managerial relationship patterns. Difficulties of working as a top management team. Difficulties of resisting the pressure of the external environment. Negative effects of the external environment.	**Informal Activities and Roles** Being approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Social activities. Using personal relationships to benefit the company. Building an informal relationships network.

This table illustrates a progression in the study's conceptualisation, whereby the five categories of managerial work that emerged from the grounded analysis have been refined into four dimensions; specifically, the category 'technical' has been subsumed into the dimension 'qualities of work' because it represented the nature of managerial work, rather than the approach that managers took to their work. The four dimensions provide a basis for comparing the work of Libyan managers with those in other countries and cultures.

7.3 Case 2: Wahda Bank (WB)

Wahda Bank is a publically listed Libyan company. It was established in 1970 under the law No. 153. Upon issuing this law, five working Banks - African Arab Bank Company; Bank of North Africa; Al-Kafela Bank; Al-Nahda Bank; and The Commercial Bank - were merged into one bank called (Wahda Bank). Its paid capital is 108 million Libyan Dinars (LYD) and its total assets are more than 5500 million LYD. In regard to its ownership, the Social Economic Development Fund owns 54.1% of the stocks, the private sector owns 26.90%, and Arab Bank (the strategic partner) owns 19%. Wahda bank's head-offices are located in Benghazi. With a total number of 3110 employees and 76 branch and agencies spread all over the country, it provides a wide range of banking products and services (Wahda Bank's Annual Reports, 2007, 2008).

7.3.1 Respondents

Table 7.3 shows some details about the interviewees who participated in this case study such as job title, qualifications and work experience. In this case there were nine members of the bank's executive management; interviews were conducted with six of them. One of those who were not interviewed was the bank's general manager, but it was not possible to make an appointment with this person because he spent almost all of his time in Tripoli. Two of the interviewees did not want to reveal their qualifications or academic background.

Table 7.3 Profile of the WB's respondents

Interv-iewees	Position	Qualification	Academic Background	Work Experience (years)
BW1	Head of Risk Management	PhD (Egypt)	Accounting	10 – 15
BW2	Manager of Banking Operations	Bachelor (Libya)	Business Administration	> 20
BW3	Head of Administrative Affairs & Real Estate Sector	-	-	> 20
BW4	Accounting Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
BW5	IT Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Computer Science	15 – 20
BW6	Head of Credit Sector	-	-	> 20

7.3.2 The Work of Executive Managers at WB

7.3.2.1 Activities

The activities that executives at the WB typically performed can be outlined as follows: First, activities in which they are concerned with dealing with information. The majority of respondents stressed that this task consumed a high proportion of their time. This involved both seeking and informing others of necessary information, tasks which were considered to be an important part in their job. In particular, receiving and sending information was cited as a requirement of their job and a part of their responsibilities. For example, The Central Bank of Libya's regulations oblige commercial banks to provide regular information regarding their financial position and operations, in addition to receiving and acting upon relevant information from the CBL. It was mentioned that dealing with information consumed much time of executives' time because; firstly, there were very large amounts of information coming into and going out and, secondly, dealing with information included several processes in addition to sending and receiving, such as checking and analysing. One respondent explained this by saying:

> *Dealing with information in terms of receiving and sending consumes most of my time. A huge amount of information has to be dealt with every day, such as incoming mail, faxes, phone calls etc… But you should know that*

receiving and sending includes other process such as producing, checking, circulating and seeking; that is why I said it takes most of the time.

Second, the executives at this bank reported that it was of importance to ensure the work that they were responsible for was completed. The completion of work, according to their views, could be best guaranteed through a continual follow-up activity. One stated that:

… delays or mistakes within the work of a bank costs so much in comparison to other types of organisations. So, it is one of my priorities to keep following-up the work until get it done.

Third, activities concerning responses to the daily emerging issues were frequently outlined by the executives as a significant part of their managerial work.

What distinguishes my job as an executive manager is to respond to issues and matters that exist every workday. The reason for this is simply that nobody else will do it if I don't.

Another respondent added that:

… if I did not come in today, or tomorrow as well, to work, I am sure that I would find, when I got back to work, that some pressing issues had been still waiting for two days.

A possible interpretation of the two just mentioned quotations is that executives at the bank, to some degree, were exclusively responsible for responding to emerging issues even if there was some compelling or valid reason for their absence from work (e.g. a business trip to another city). This may raise questions related to the extent of their responsibilities in terms of whether the executives' responsibilities were unwillingly extended to include others' responsibilities, and what mechanisms existed to cover for their absences.

Fourth, the executives at WB mentioned that their work included activities that related to dealing with outsiders.

> *… I usually deal with - in the scope of my job's responsibilities - many outsiders who have work relationships with the bank, such as companies that provide us with technical support.*

Fifth, the activity of consultations was a part of executives' work.

> *I believe subordinates need to be advised and guided regularly in order to do the unit's work in the right way. You cannot expect that the subordinates are able to handle the work on their own without seeking guidance from the boss. My long practical experience allows me to be able to counsel others, including people who are from other related departments.*

The consultation with junior managers that this manager describes is similar to the development of staff that managers would undertake in any organisation anywhere in the world, and therefore cannot be regarded as particular to Libyan managerial work. However, the task perhaps assumes more importance in a Libyan context than it would in companies in more developed countries due to the relatively low quality of the initial training that management recruits receive. Moreover, it can be arguable that staff are often very keen to obtain the support of senior colleagues for any actions they take to feel protected from blame should anything go wrong.

7.3.2.2 Qualities of work

The executives at the BW pointed out that their managerial work could be generally characterised as consisting of excessive workloads, covering a diverse range of tasks, processed at high speed and requiring an a very large amount of written communication, as well as a considerable degree of routine work. According to their views, the amount of work within their daily function was enormous and, in addition, it was increasing continually. A respondent argued that:

> *... even during the night the fax machine does not stop working, sending more work to do. It is almost impossible to find yourself thinking about or looking for some work to do, there is always work waiting you.*

Some support to the previous comment could be made through the researcher's observations of the respondent just quoted. That is, the researcher was allowed to observe the amount of waiting work, as well as the incoming work during the interview – this interview lasted (including the interruptions) four hours approximately. Moreover, the researcher observed that (in accordance with the interviewee's notes) some work was returned to the sender as it was within the scope of the sender's work, but had been referred to the respondent so that he would take responsibility for it.

Another respondent added:

> *... it is not just that a massive amount of work we cope with, the worst thing is that it seems to be increasing day after day.*

The work characteristic of covering a diverse range of tasks was emphasised by the executives at this bank. One respondent said that:

> *Although my job contains an extreme variety of duties, I enjoy having such a responsibility.*

This quotation not only pointed out to the diverse characteristics of executives' work, but also referred to a positive view in relation to such work. However, this positive perspective with regard to the wide range of the work's variety was not mentioned by the other respondents within the bank.

The idea of executives' work being characterised by an excess of written communication was not a majority view among the executives at the WB, although half of the respondents agreed with it. In support to this view one respondent claimed that:

Both types of communication, written and oral are used to communicate with others inside and outside the bank, but the later occurs considerably more often. … It is excessive [written communication] because much of the work would not be done without something written that indicates what should be done and who is responsible for it. As you see, I do not stop adding my signature from the time I enter my office till the end of the day.

In respect to the extent of routine work that executives engaged in, it was mentioned that the managerial work included a considerable degree of routine work.

7.3.2.3 Technical

A heavily technical aspect to the work of executives at the BW was reported. The majority of the executives considered their managerial work as being largely concentrating on technical activities that related to pure banking and financial services. On respondent stated:

Most of my time is spent on analysing, reviewing, studying and discussing issues that are linked to banking and financial matters … that's what I am supposed to do to meet my job obligations.

7.3.2.4 Difficulties

Executives at this bank outlined that there were a number of difficulties that they faced. The external environment appeared to be the major source of the origin of such difficulties. The Libyan socio-cultural environment factors were considered by the executives to be the ones that had the greatest effects on their managerial work. Although the top managers at the bank mentioned that there was to some degree a positive impact, they admitted that the negative effects of the Libyan socio-cultural environment were dominant in regard to their work and behaviour. A respondent illustrated this point clearly by saying:

… look, you should understand that our work – like anything else - is affected by how people in our society live, think, believe, behave … etc. In

my work, both types of effects; positive and negative, are apparent, although the negative side is remarkably larger.

He continued:

… we are a small, tribal based society in which the relationships among each other has a powerful impact on the ways of acting and reacting.

It seemed that the executives were not able to disregard the influence of relationships on their managerial work and behaviour. In this regard, another respondent stated that:

I do have a conviction that work should not always follow the rules and regulations.

It seemed that sometimes the policies of the bank were in conflict with the social and familial responsibilities of this respondent, and that like many of the other respondents he would choose to meet his socio-cultural responsibilities.

In addition to the effects of the external environment, executives mentioned that the political-legal environment had a negative effect on their managerial work. One respondent criticised the increasing effects of the political-legal system on his work by saying:

It becomes very difficult to cope with laws and rules that are related to the process of getting a visa for people who are invited to come to the bank concerning joint business. I do not mean breaking the law as it exists, but at any moment anything could happen and new laws and rules take the place of existing ones.

These sudden changes in law make planning, the performing of routine work and building relationships very difficult.

Furthermore, a number of executives pointed out that the pressures of the external environment in the form of state intervention on their managerial work, and such behaviour was difficult to overcome. A respondent argued that:

Sometimes, you are not able to avoid doing things that are not consistent with the bank's rules and policies. It happened recently when were forced to open a new account for a new customer (a company) although some important documents were not in its file.

Concern was also expressed over the lack of managerial relationship patterns. One respondent mentioned that:

… we deal with each other [referring to his department and the other departments]without a clear vision about what these relationships should be.

In regard to the difficulties of working as a top management team, one respondent stated:

Working as a team requires an atmosphere that engages all members to respect and accept different views and opinions. There is simply a lack of working together effectively.

7.3.2.5 Informal work

Executives' informal work at the BW appeared to exist at four different levels. Firstly, executives mentioned that they favoured being approachable to others as this supported building and maintaining effective relationships with those who they had dealings with. A respondent pointed out that:

I follow an open-door policy with my subordinates as will well as with my colleagues in order to avoid being distant from them.

The second area that executives mentioned was to play the role of a guard. One respondent stated:

… considering the corruption that is around us, one has to keep an open eye on events or people who may cause damage to the bank

Third, executives emphasised that there was a need to establish a balance between the requirements of their job and the requirements of their personal life. A respondent mentioned that people outside the bank would not hesitate to use social or family connections to get what they wanted:

… people want their requests to be done regardless of anything else, and will put pressure on you until they get what they need. My way to deal with such issues is to prove to them that I am taking care of their needs, and spending extra effort to respond to their requests as much as I can. Otherwise, I would not be comfortable either in my work in or my social life.

Fourth, executives at WB highlighted the importance of building an informal relationships network in supporting the requirements of their work's achievement. One argued:

I think it is obvious, to those who have experience of our job, that informal relationships are necessary to keep the work moving.

7.3.3 Summary of the WB's Findings

Table 7.4 Dimensions of managerial work at WB

Formal Activities and Roles Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.	**Qualities of work** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Processed at high speed. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.
Difficulties The lack of managerial relationship patterns. Difficulties of working as a top management team. Difficulties of resisting the pressure of the external environment. Negative effects of the external environment.	**Informal Activities and Roles** Being approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Building an informal relationships network.

7.4 Case 3: Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC)

The Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC) is owned by the National Oil Corporation (NOC); it is therefore a state-owned company. It was established in 1983 in accordance with the General People's Committee's decision No. 577. It is located in Benghazi. It specialises in several services related to Oil & Gas activities during exploration, drilling, and production operations. With a total number of just under 900 employees, JOTC provides engineering services as well as treating chemicals to the petrochemical companies. It is managed by a Management Committee which consists of a Chairman and a number of members who are appointed by the NOC.

7.4.1 Respondents

Table 7.5 shows some details about the interviewees who participated in this case study such as job title, qualifications and work experience. In this case the executive management of JOTC consisted of eight members, six of whom were interviewed.

Table 7.5 Profile of the JOTC's respondent

Interv-iewees	Position	Qualification	Academic Background	Work Experience (years)
OJ1	Member of the Management Committee for Financial and Administrative Affairs and Services	Bachelor (Libya)	Accounting	> 20
OJ2	Information and Technical Control Manager	Master (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OJ3	Manager of the Legal Office	PhD (France)	Law	> 20
OJ4	Operations Manager	Bachelor (Libya)	Engineering	15 – 20
OJ5	Projects and General Maintenance Manager	Master (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OJ6	Member of the Management Committee for Materials, Operations and Manufacturing	Bachelor (Libya)	Geology	> 20

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7.4.2 The Work of Executive Managers at JOTC

7.4.2.1 Activities

A number of activities were mentioned by the executives within the JOTC. Mainly, these activities included, firstly, the activities that were related to information. Dealing with information was emphasised by the majority of respondents as constituting a large part in their managerial work. One respondent stated that he was responsible for seeking out information and informing others inside and outside his organisation:

> *… I deal with information at different levels, information in regard to the unit; the other units; The National Oil Corporation; the market.*

Secondly, the respondents reported that they spent a lot of their time ensuring that the work they were responsible for was achieved

> *The market does not wait, if you cannot meet the demand, competitors are ready. To make the customer satisfied, which is our goal in the company, the work must be done on time.*

Thirdly, managers reported that they were required to respond to emerging issues; in this context one said:

> *Issues and matters that need a quick response occur continuously in my job. Even in the holidays, there is work which does not stop - excavators, for example - and if something goes wrong, I have to respond rapidly.*

The researcher observed that a number of respondents indicated a close personal connection between themselves and their job; in other words, if they were unavailable or on holiday, nobody took over their responsibilities, and in the event of an emergency they always had to be available to cope with it. This suggests a certain lack of flexibility in management structures in Libya.

Fourthly, most respondents reported that they were responsible for dealing with outsiders and that protecting the company's interests in these dealings were a large part of their responsibility: within this role they undertook activities such as negotiation, information transfer, discussing tenders and dealing with government departments and companies in the same industry. One said:

It is important in my job to deal with outsiders in relation to my job responsibilities.

Finally, the respondents were often involved in internal consultations that involved them in leadership and mentoring roles; one said:

… I am a responsible for this unit and it is a part of my job to respond to my subordinates' questions about issues that relate to our work unit. I also provide my opinion and advice at the level of the company as well as the NOC or the relevant companies.

7.4.2.2 Qualities of work

The executives of this company mentioned that their work was characterised by heavy workloads, that they were involved in a wide variety of work, that this work required what they considered to be an excessive amount of written communication, and that their working day consisted of a considerable degree of routine work.

7.4.2.3 Technical

Respondents stated that they were often involved in desk work that required close concentration and time to understand. In this case it was partly a result of the company's business in oil exploration and production, but the same tendency was also found at the banks surveyed. One respondent stated:

I very often, as one of my job requirement, spend some time alone in my office dealing with technical reports and statistics.

The researcher gathered evidence designed to illustrate the balance of responsibility from the evidence of three respondents in this company; they reported that as a proportion of their time they were involved in:

(1) 70% technical activities & 30% managerial and financial activities

(2) 60% technical activities & 40% managerial activities

(3) 70% technical activities & 30% monitoring activities

7.4.2.4 Difficulties

Respondents found it difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment and its negative effects; for example, one said:

At times, employees who have been dismissed from their job come to my office and say: 'I did not come to you because of your position, but I come to you because of your humanity'. In this case, I cannot avoid meeting them … it will take your time, affect your personal life … many managerial problems arise because social relationships are used badly. The social pressure is very difficult.

This response indicates that a person who has power in Libya is expected to use it to help others, and there is great social pressure to do this, especially if the person is related in any way.

Similarly, work is sometimes created with a specific person in mind, in order to give them a position or an income; one manager stated that:

(They) bring someone in and design a job for him, instead of vice versa.

Often managers are obliged to create these roles to fulfil a social responsibility or in response to pressure from their family or friends, or from powerful agencies within the government who seek preferment for their friends.

Several respondents mentioned the difficulties of working as a top management team; one respondent mentioned that top managers were usually concerned only

with their own agenda and advancement, and that therefore it was difficult to build teamwork or to make ideas heard; he said:

> *It is not enough to say your point of view only, it has to be repeated more than once in order to be understood by the others.*

Managers reported that telling someone to do something once is not enough in Libya, whether they are a fellow manager or a junior employee, they expect to be told more than once; this is time-consuming. This problem was also related to the next….

Often the roles and responsibilities of top managers are not explicitly stated, and areas of responsibility can overlap or shift over time; as a result one respondent observed:

> *… it is sometimes hard to know where this document should be sent or who should deal with it, or you may not be able to decide clearly which department shares the responsibility with you for some tasks, and how it is to be achieved*

This lack of clarity around job responsibilities relates back to the point that responsibilities in Libyan management adhere to a person rather than a role, and people guard their areas of power carefully; this means that tasks often become trapped between managers who deny responsibility for performing it, and will block attempts by anyone else to clarify these responsibilities.

7.4.2.5 Informal work

Managers generally expressed that it was necessary for them to be approachable to others; one said that it was important to be visible and available as an example to his team, stating:

> *I think one of the most important qualities of a successful executive is a constant presence in his office unless it conflicts with the need to be out for*

work – e.g. a tour or a meeting. This will send a double message, being available and being disciplined.

Managers also stressed the importance of being a guard

… it is very possible that you may harm the company if you do not double check the work that you delegate to others, for example many documents appear to be legally correct, but they are not. Although you may not be responsible for discovering such an issue, I think we as managers are responsible for protecting the company.

Respondents also reported that they needed a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment (a balancer). One said:

… I can strictly follow the responsibilities of my job, but it will cost me too much in my personal and social life. In addition people who you work with either within or outside the company will stay close and support you as long as you do not make things difficult for them.

If managers fail to meet their perceived social obligations they face being excluded from normal conversation, and losing the support structure that ensures their own access to information and help.

Some respondents stressed the importance of social activities in building networks helpful to their work; for example one said;

… I have dealt with some customers and suppliers for long time; it becomes not only a work relationship, but also it extends to include social relationships. This gives me advantages in my work with them.

This indicates that the manager quoted could use his social contacts to make arrangements even at holiday times or when other managers would be refused.

In the same vein, other managers reported using personal relationships to benefit the company

> *I have personal relationships with people and I do not hesitate to use them to help the company's business keep going.*

Therefore, while individual managers sometimes suffered from the pressure they felt to meet social obligations, at the same time the company benefited from personal contacts established by the managers, many of whom stressed the need to …

Build an informal relationship network

> *Informal relationships affect positively on my work – and increase the possibility of successful achievement. When you have a good and widespread network of informal relationships, the work becomes much easer.*

The maintenance of these networks required time and effort from the managers, and this time and effort was not explicitly a part of their job responsibilities according to the company; however, as an informal activity it can be considered to be helpful to both managers and the company. The formation and maintenance of these relationships was similar to the 'networking' activities that are undertaken by Western managers (see for example Kotter, 1982); however, in a Libyan context they are more likely to be based on family or/and tribal connections than purely business ones, and they involve a range of time consuming and demanding social obligations that are not always expected of Western managers. For example, managers would be expected to attend the funerals of relatives of their business contacts at short notice, interrupting their work schedules to do so.

7.4.3 Summary of the JOTC's Findings

Table 7.6 Dimensions of managerial work at JOTC

Formal Activities and Roles	**Qualities of work**
Dealing with information.	Heavy workloads.
Ensuring achievement.	Wide variety of work.
Responding to emerging issues.	Heavy technical emphasis.
Dealing with outsiders.	Excess of written communication.
Consulting others.	A considerable degree of routine work.
Difficulties	**Informal Activities and Roles**
The lack of managerial relationship patterns.	Being approachable to others.
Difficulties of working as a top management team.	Protecting the organisation against harm.
Difficulties of resisting the pressure of the external environment.	Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment.
Negative effects of the external environment.	Social activities.
	Using personal relationships to benefit the company.
	Building an informal relationships network.

7.5 Case 4: Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO)

The Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO) is owned by the National Oil Corporation (NOC), and as such is a state-owned company. It was established in 1977 under the law No. 115. It is located in Benghazi and its activities and operations are widely dispread in many areas around the country. It is one of the largest Libyan oil companies. With a number of employees that reaches 5807, the company runs nine oil fields and two refineries. Its activities and operations include exploration and drilling, production, maintenance, manufacturing (such as spare parts), and co-production units that share their production with some international companies operating in Libya. The AGOCO is managed by a Management Committee which consists of a Chairman and a number of members who were appointed by the NOC.

7.5.1 Respondents

Table 7.7 shows some details about the interviewees who participated in this case study such as job title, qualifications and work experience. The executive

management of AGOCO consisted of ten members, six of whom were interviewed.

Table 7.7 Profile of the AGOCO's respondent

Interv-iewees	Position	Qualification	Academic Background	Work Experience (years)
OG1	Administration and Staff Manager	Master (U.S.A)	Business Administration	> 20
OG2	Manufacturing Manager	Masters (Libya)	Engineering	> 20
OG3	Maintenance Manager	Master (Libya)	Environment	> 20
OG4	Member of the Management Committee for Engineering and Projects	Master (Canada)	Engineering	> 20
OG5	Member of the Management Committee for Supply, Transportation and Services	Master (U.K.)	Engineering	> 20
OG6	Finance Affairs Manager	Master (Libya)	Accounting	> 20

Reproduced

7.5.2 The Work of Executive Managers at AGOCO

7.5.2.1 Activities

Most managers confirmed that a large proportion of their time was spent seeking necessary information and informing others of it.

> *Typically I spend the most time on attending meetings and dealing with information ... I feel sometimes that there is not enough time to deal with all the information that I am receiving and sending out. It seems that this is a 'show' more than anything else.*

By this quotation the manager intended to indicate that some of the information is circulated to give the impression of work, rather than because it is of much use to anyone.

Managers also spent much of their time making sure that the work they were responsible for was achieved, and that there was no lag in achieving tasks; for example, one expressed this idea thus:

The first thing on my mind when I get to work is that none of the work will shift to tomorrow.

In common with the other companies surveyed, the managers stated that they were expected to respond to emerging issues and to deal with outsiders who perhaps represented either a threat to or an opportunity for their company. In this respect, the responses were very similar to those reported for the other cases, and no quotations of particular interest are available.

7.5.2.2 Qualities of work

The respondents were also unanimous in reporting the pressure of heavy workloads; one observed that:

It is known that executives' work is considered to represent a heavy workload; it is true, but a part of it is because some managers at a lower level do not want to use their power to do a job, instead they prefer to delegate it upwards to you. And, secondly, some managers prefer to keep reviewing work with their superiors, and sometimes their superiors are happy with this.

This quotation accords with the opinion expressed in the first case study that often junior managers fear to take responsibility for a project and prefer delay if it means that their position in the organisation is not threatened.

In common with respondents in the other cases, the managers of this company reported that they were involved in a wide variety of work, that this work required what they considered to be an excessive amount of written communication, and that their working day consisted of a considerable degree of routine work. In this respect the comments received were very similar to those presented in the previous cases.

7.5.2.3 Technical

Managers in this company mentioned the highly technical aspects of their work and, like respondents in the other cases, reported that they were obliged to concentrate on technical activities to a considerable extent. One stated:

As a head of the technical unit, I would classify my activities as mainly technical. There are managerial activities within my job, but not as much as the technical activities.

This point hints at an important point, which was noted by the researcher in his observations and is confirmed by the profiles of the respondents given at the beginning of each case, which is that the senior managers in Libyan organisations (or at least in banks and oil companies) tend to be specialists who have advanced through promotion, rather than individuals with general managerial qualifications. Therefore, it is notable that of the six managers surveyed in this company, five had specialist training in vocational areas and only one held a qualification in business management.

7.5.2.4 Difficulties

Managers responding to this point indicated that it was difficult for them to resist the pressure of the external environment, and that this pressure often brought negative effects. In the case of this company, the pressure was reflected in the influence of the regime on Libyan oil industry, and their requirement to make certain diplomatic or political gestures; for example, one manager reported:

On one occasion, we were forced to employ engineers from a foreign country although they were not high qualified, there was no way to object or to express an opinion.

This comment reveals that Libyan managers sometimes had to cope with pressures beyond normal commercial and regulatory ones, and that their range of responses to these pressures was very limited.

Respondents in this company also mentioned the lack of managerial relationship patterns, and confirmed the tendency in Libyan organisations for responsibilities and duties to lie with a person rather than a job. This is illustrated by the following comment:

> *… in regard to your question about managerial relationship, in our job we rely on person's name more than a department's name.*

This quotation indicates a process of work built upon personalities; this, if the person required for a task is not available, it is necessary to wait; and when he is available that person should be approached on a personal level with a direct request, before a more formal approach to his department is made. This is not always the case, but it is a distinctive element of much Libyan managerial work.

7.5.2.5 Informal work

As with the other cases, respondents indicated that they needed to adopt a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment and to act as a balancer between these pressures and the goals of their company. One manager stated:

> *… the external environment deeply influences my work in terms of what I should and should not do … my work comes first, but at times I have to respond to the pressure and handle it to trying to achieve some balance between the pressure (e.g. someone who I know asking for a job) and the company …for example, I might help him in find a job in anther place, if I could not here.*

This quotation illustrates the social pressures that Libyan managers can find themselves under, and the respondents in this company confirmed the previous respondents in highlighting the need to build an informal relationships network that enabled them to take advantage of the ties of responsibility and obligation that they themselves sometimes found they were under.

7.5.3 Summary of the AGOCO's Findings

Table 7.8 Dimensions of managerial work at AGOCO

Formal Activities and Roles Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.	**Qualities of work** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.
Difficulties The lack of managerial relationship patterns. Difficulties of working as a top management team. Difficulties of resisting the pressure of the external environment. Negative effects of the external environment.	**Informal Activities and Roles** Being approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Building an informal relationships network.

7.6 Cross Case Analysis

This section of the chapter will provide analysis in the form of comparisons at two levels:

Firstly, the case study companies will be compared with each other using tables to illustrate the constructs identified by respondents in each dimension of their managerial work; this will allow the researcher to comment on the reasons for any differences in terms of the companies ownership structure, size, source of budget and age.

Secondly, the approach of Libyan managers to their work and the activities and initiatives that they identified as being important will be compared to descriptions of managerial work from the literature; this will provide an insight into how Libyan managers' work activity differs from findings in other countries and cultures.

The following are tables showing the dimensions of managerial work and the constructs that were identified with them. In terms of the criterion for inclusion, if three or more managers in a company identified a constructs as being important, it is included in the dimensions below:

7.6.1 Formal Activities and Roles

Table 7.9 Comparison of the Formal Activities and Roles dimension

Case 1 **Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD)** Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.	Case 2 **Wahda Bank (WB)** Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.
Case 3 **Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC)** Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.	Case 4 **Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO)** Dealing with information. Ensuring achievement. Responding to emerging issues. Dealing with outsiders. Consulting others.

This table shows that the constructs that emerged from the grounded analysis in chapter six were confirmed by the majority of managers in each case study, suggesting a similarity in the formal activities and roles of Libyan managers. In terms of previous studies these constructs are consistent with those presented in reviews of the literature on the nature of managerial work undertaken by Hales (1986, 2001) and Tengblad (2012).

7.6.2 Qualities of Work

Table 7.10 Comparison of the Qualities of work dimension

Case 1 **Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD)** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Processed at high speed. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.	Case 2 **Wahda Bank (WB)** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Processed at high speed. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.
Case 3 **Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC)** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.	Case 4 **Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO)** Heavy workloads. Wide variety of work. Heavy technical emphasis. Excess of written communication. A considerable degree of routine work.

While there is a high degree of agreement in the tables above, the key difference is that the managers in the two banking companies reported that their work had to be 'processed at high speed', whereas this is not a construct that emerges from the oil sector companies. This can partly be explained by the nature of banking work and that it is a customer-facing service, but the researcher's observations of the work of Libyan banking managers over the interview process showed that banking managers felt under more pressure to work at a high pace, and that problem solving rather than strategic planning formed a large part of their day-to-day responsibilities.

Heavy workload, which was reflected in working long hours, as Libyan executives emphasised, is consistent with many of previous studies – e. g. Carlson (1951), Burns (1954, 1957), Mintzberg (1973), Hales (1986), and Tengblad (2012). Here, it may worth mentioning that research concerning the nature of managerial work not only points to the characteristic of excessive workloads, but also suggests that "executives continue to work increasingly longer hours"; indeed, executives work more nowadays (Matthaei, 2010, p. 150). According to Matthaei (2010), the nature of executive work is demanding with remarkable time pressures as executives are expected to act immediately, respond rapidly and work on various activities at the same time. Moreover, "flatter hierarchies and virtualization of organizations and increased use of information and communication technologies seem to intensify the pressures on executives" (Matthaei, 2010, p. 150).

It is important to recognise, however, that the characteristic of working long hours within the nature of Libyan executive work is partially due to, firstly, executives' work-time being affected by constant interruptions that are not related to their work (e.g. family or personal matters; social obligations) and secondly, executives' work-load being affected by the work that has been referred upwards to them by more junior managers, who have the competence to deal with it but lack confidence in their authority and fear to take responsibility for an action without written permission.

The two characteristics of a wide variety of work as well as processed at high speed were frequently reported in many prior studies (Tengblad, 2012). The

findings show that Libyan managers' work activity was characterised by a necessity to undertake a wide variety of work. In regard to the previous research on managerial work the work characteristic of covering a diverse range of tasks was not an exception in the work of Libyan executives. Indeed, Tengblad (2012, p. 40) maintains that empirical evidence has consistently found that amongst the most frequently observed commonalities of managerial work practices in almost all sitting and times are that managerial work is varied, it is complex and involves intense time pressures, and it is generally processed at high speed. This last commonality of the speed of managerial work was also a finding of this study, although this was in the case within the banking sector in particular; the findings of this study did not provide evidence that this work characteristic was found in the work of managers in the oil sector. This suggests that the type of sector that an organisation is within can be expected to be a factor in the characteristics of the work of managers.

A further characteristic of the work of Libyan managers that emerged from the findings and that is consistent with a number of previous studies is the heavy technical emphasis of much of what Libyan managers do. Hales (1986, 2001) reports that much literature in this area has identified that managers are required to undertake technical work relating to their professional or functional specialisation, and similarly Libyan managerial work is characterised as having a heavy technical emphasis. It was also noticeable that the senior Libyan managers interviewed tended to have reached their positions as a result of promotions from technical jobs, especially in the case of the oil sector companies, where engineers held many of the most senior posts. There was also a considerable degree of routine work in the activities of Libyan managers, with a large amount of paperwork to be dealt with and many documents to be signed in order to give them the necessary authority. According to Hales (2001, p. 51), when asked managers in almost all settings tend to emphasise that they are required to manage routine information - this was confirmed by the findings of this study.

The characteristic of an excess of written communication is not widely cited in overviews of the literature on managerial work activities (Hales, 1986, 2001;

Tengblad, 2012) but was a finding of this. The requirement for a very large amount of written communication within the work of Libyan managers was due, to some degree, to the need to assign responsibility in the executives' work environment and, in addition, its potential to provide a definite understanding about the matter under consideration. For example in the form of the registers of decisions mentioned previously. While Western managers are also required to undertake a lot of written work, they generally do so using new technology such as email and word processing, whereas even senior Libyan managers have to hand write much of their communication and reiterate decisions taken by word of mouth in written form. Managers are often also required to deal with written communications from junior colleagues on relatively trivial matters; this point therefore also suggests a failure by Libyan organisations to sufficiently delegate authority to middle managers.

7.6.3 Difficulties

Table 7.11 Comparison of the Difficulties dimension

Case 1 **Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD)**	Case 2 **Wahda Bank (WB)**
The lack of managerial relationship patterns.	The lack of managerial relationship patterns.
Difficulties of working as a top management team.	Difficulties of working as a top management team.
Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment.	Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment.
Negative external environment effects.	Negative external environment effects.
Case 3 **Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC)**	Case 4 **Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO)**
The lack of managerial relationship patterns.	The lack of managerial relationship patterns.
Difficulties of working as a top management team.	Difficulties of working as a top management team.
Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment.	Difficult to resist the pressure of the external environment.
Negative effects of the external environment.	Negative external environment effects.

Again, in this dimension the respondents expressed a unified view in terms of the characteristics of the difficulties facing them in their work. What should be of concern for both managers and policy makers is the fact that Libyan organisations seem to have difficulty forming united and cooperative management teams, with respondents reporting much competition for prestige and influence at the expense of efficient management, and a lack of clarity over

the responsibilities that go with specific jobs in organisations. The endemic over-staffing noted by Otman & Karlberg (2007), which they attribute to the mass nationalisation programmes of the 1970s, may be a contributory factor in the uncertainty around job roles and responsibilities in Libyan organisations, and may contribute to Libyan managers' tendency to seek control over as many functions as possible. As Shernanna (2012) observes, the constant interventions by the state aimed at ensuring full employment has led to the appointment of workers whether there was a need for their presence or not. As a result, Libyan managers were obliged to find work for these persons even if there seemed no apparent need. In this regard, the government's interventions can be seen as contributing to confusion and duplication of responsibilities within Libyan organisations.

The companies surveyed were also facing increased pressure from the international companies entering into the Libyan market and creating new competitive pressures. For the companies in the oil sector this was nothing new, but for the banks it was. Furthermore, all the companies felt the pressure of regulatory and legal constraints, but this pressure was intensified if the company was smaller, or not wholly publically-owned. For example, managers at the JOTC felt constrained by Law no. 15, which limited their ability to reward good workers with higher salaries, and moreover their ownership structure meant that although they were owned by the NOC, unlike ARGCO they did not receive an annual budget which allowed them to plan remuneration in advance; instead, they had to generate the funds for rewarding productive employees through profits. Thus, although the case studies reported the same difficulties, the pressures they were subject to varied, and this affected their approach to managerial work.

The findings suggest that to some extent Libyan companies suffered from many of the drawbacks associated with a command economy (close regulatory control, political interference, influence of a ruling clique) while enjoying none of the potential benefits (long term stability, consistency of decision making, respect for the rule of law). Agnaia (1997) observed that in Libya managerial behaviour was greatly affected by the uncertainty and instability caused by constantly

mutating government policies and the continual changes in laws, rules, regulations and government organisational structure. Agnaia (1997) also cites 'informal political influences' as having a negative impact on the predictability of managerial decisions and observes that senior positions are sometimes granted on the basis of favouritism and not necessarily performance. As Shernanna (2012) states, the interventions of statist institutions into managerial work can lead to an increase in instability, which can impact productivity negatively and impose extra costs on an organisation.

In combination with the effects of the political-legal and economic environments, managers in Libya have also to contend with social pressures and responsibilities that interrupt their daily work and impinge upon their decision making and administrative roles. While the UKTI (2010) acknowledges that Libya is not alone in being a society where social obligations play a significant role in managerial work, it is also relevant to state that in some cases a Libyan manager may owe their position to family influence, and may depend for much of the power they themselves wield to the network of familial, tribal and social connections they are able to maintain (Agnaia, 1997; Hajjaji, 2012). Agnaia (1997) even goes so far as to state that for many managers the development of good social relationships within the organisation and in the external environment among people who can be helpful to the organisation is a more important goal than the job itself. Thus, if a manager is not able to draw upon the help of members of his/her extended family, clan, tribe, and village in order to play an active role in shaping the scope and effectiveness their influence they will be unable to overcome the negative effects of the external environment (Agnaia, 1997). Al Obeidi (1995) pointed out the impact of factors such as customs and traditions, beliefs, social manners and mores and personal connections on managerial work in Libya and the effect that these factors have on organisations as a result. In Agania's 1997 study managers who were interviewed stated that their social responsibilities were unavoidable and could not be subsumed to the requirements of the organisations they worked for; to do so would make them socially unacceptable. Therefore, the balancing act Libyan managers have to make between their social (external environment) and organisational (internal environment) responsibilities is a constant one.

7.6.4 Informal Activities and Roles

Table 7.12 Comparison of the Informal Activities and Roles dimension

Case 1 Bank of Commerce & Development (BCD)	Case 2 Wahda Bank (WB)
Approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Social activities. Using personal relationships to benefit the company. Building an informal relationships network.	Approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Building an informal relationships network.
Case 3 Jowef Oil Technology Company (JOTC)	Case 4 Arabian Gulf Oil Company (AGOCO)
Approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Social activities. Using personal relationships to benefit the company. Building an informal relationships network.	Approachable to others. Protecting the organisation against harm. Using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment. Building an informal relationships network.

In this dimension some interesting differences emerge: managers at BCD and JOTC declared that social activities were an important part of their managerial work, and that they used personal relationships to benefit their companies. These differences may possibly be attributed to the following reasons:

JOTC and BCD were smaller, younger and less well established than their competitors WB and ARGCO.

WB and ARGCO were very large state owned entities with, in the case of ARGCO budgets set by the NOC. Therefore, the funding of their activities was less dependent on the entrepreneurial initiative of their senior management, and they were perhaps more inclined to routine and stasis. The two smaller companies (BCD and JOTC) depended on the revenue streams their managers could produce, and therefore their managers placed a greater emphasis on social activities and the leverage they could derive from personal relationships. For example, BCD is a privately owned medium-sized bank, and thus depended on the initiative of its managers to generate the profits necessary for its continuation. Its size also made it vulnerable to foreign competition, and as a young company it needed to establish a range of contacts and connections to

integrate itself into Libyan business environment; given these facts, it is perhaps not surprising that managers reported a focus on social activities and building up personal relationships; these roles were a function of the companies' status and position.

While there was a difference between the smaller and larger organisations in the constructs identified by a majority of managers, two constructs were consistent, and their effect on managerial work is perhaps related; the constructs were: 'using a flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment' and 'building an informal relationships network'. The notion of the informal side in the work of managers is not new, for example, Dalton (1959 as cited in Tengblad, 2012) provides an extensive empirical description of the a variety of managers' informal activities such as the power struggles between management cliques seeking to secure or defend resources, the systems of informal reward and negotiation. The successful manager is seen by Dalton (1959) as the one who can negotiate these informal systems (Hales, 1986). One of the important informal aspects in the managers' work activity explored by Dalton (1959) is the description of the interplay between manager's work life and his/her private life (Tengblad, 2012). However, these western perspectives on managerial work see the choices a manager makes in terms of a potential conflict between his/her personal wishes and ambitions and the interests of the organisation. The evidence of this study suggests a rather different dilemma for Libyan society: a potential conflict between the interests of the organisation and the manager's responsibilities to his/her social group, be it family, community or tribe.

Hales (1986) in his critical review of the evidence regarding studies about what managers do refers to the informal elements of managerial work as 'what else managers do' and argues that it is difficult to set a clear differentiation between what is the formal or informal side in the managerial work as *practised*. The observed 'informality' seen from one angle, that of the organisation, can be perceived as activities a manager undertakes to further the interests of the organisation outside the roles specifies in his/her job description. However, in the present research the informal activities and roles of Libyan managers are not just performed as an organisation member but also as a member of a society,

which has claims on the manager's loyalty that cannot be ignored. These claims could lead to conflict (negative) as well as benefits (positive) between social and organisational demands.

The term 'flexible approach to handle the effects of the external environment' was chosen to express the requirement on Libyan managers to balance different and potential conflicting responsibilities and reach compromises that do not necessarily reflect his/her organisation's interests or even his/her own, but meet the social obligations the external environment imposes. In one sense the need to 'build an informal relations network' is a major priority for Libyan managers, for it is this network that will be used to achieve ends that may need to be concealed and not formally recorded. In this way, accommodations can be made to conflicting responsibilities without exposing the manager to excessive risk. This is not the only use to which informal relations networks are put, but it is an important one and one that possibly distinguishes such networks from their equivalents in the west.

Chapter Eight

Conclusion

The aim of this final chapter is twofold; firstly to map the journey of the present research, and secondly to assess the research findings and state its contributions, limitations, implications and the potential for future research. In doing so, an introduction that briefly summarises the research journey is presented first. Second, the research questions are discussed in accordance with research findings. The third section is allocated to highlight the research contributions to knowledge. The limitations of the study and the implications for research as well as for practice are considered in the fourth and fifth sections respectively.

8.1 Introduction

The present research is a study of the nature and characteristics of managerial work, examining to what extent it is influenced by its national context. It seeks to explore how deeply Libyan managers' work activity is influenced by its socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment, and whether or not the universal practice assumption (Lubatkin et al., 1997) can be supported by the managerial work of Libyan executives.

The methodological approach undertaken, including the philosophical stance that underpinned the present research, is reviewed in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: The Methodological Approach to the Present Research

Research Philosophy	Ontology: *The nature of reality* (Subjectivist)	The ontology adopted in the current research accepts that reality is subjective, multiple, and inseparable (life-world).
	Epistemology: *What constitutes valid knowledge* (Interpretivism)	Knowledge of the social world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience. Within this research, the social phenomena is observed by seeing what meaning people give to it and interpreting these meanings from their viewpoint.
	Axiology: *The role of values* (Value-laden)	The present researcher acknowledges that research is value-laden.
Research Approach	Inductive	The research approach in the current study is inductive, where the emphasis is on acquiring understanding of the meanings that individuals attach to events, thereby gaining a close understanding of the research circumstance.
Research Strategy	Case study	Case study was the preferred research strategy for this research, selected for its potential to explore and understand the phenomena being investigated. By employing it, the opportunity to collect data from participants in their working environments; to capture data rich in detail; and to have a considerable degree of flexibility to manage and explore issues raised from participants during conducing the research was feasible.
Research Methods	Semi-structured interviews incorporating observations/documentation.	The semi-structured interview allows the researcher to explore and understand the issues being investigated and to mine a rich source of information from respondents.
Participants	Purposive sampling	The sample focused on one criterion: all participants were Libyan top-level managers.

Next, an account of how the present research was born, conducted and ended is considered. Figure 8.1 encapsulates the whole research journey, which will be used as a guide in mapping the concluding discussion that follows.

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Figure 8.1: Research Map

To what extent is the nature of Libyan managerial work influenced by its own national context?

Researcher's knowledge → **Motivation for the research** ← Researcher's experience

What are the fundamental characteristics of managerial work in Libyan organisations?
How do Libyan managers perceive their managerial work?
How does the national context make the managerial work of Libyan managers distinctive?

Pilot Study
targeting executives in banking and oil sectors to identify issues & areas for further enquiry

Interviews (5)
QDAP analysis
(Miles & Huberman, 1994)

Questionnaire
(111)
Descriptive statistical analysis

Pilot study outcomes: Highlighting research areas to be investigated - e.g. influences of social and cultural characteristics on Libyan managers' activity; the informal & personal side within executives' work and behaviour...

Interviews (25)
incorporating observations/documentation

Main Study
targeting executives in 2 banks & 2 oil companies

Grounded Analysis:
24 themes and 5 categories emerged

Case Study
Analysis: within and across cases

Research Findings

In terms of the researcher's motivation for beginning the research, the impetus came from a perceived dislocation between the roles the researcher was undertaking. Firstly, as a lecturer in Business Management, I was teaching western principles and models of management practice to Libyan students. At the same time I was working as a consultant to a number of Libyan companies advising on change management, while also collecting data for research projects on reorganisation in Libyan companies. This experience in participating in conducting business research projects in Libya aimed at evaluating the managerial performance of a number of organisations in Libya suggested that Mintzberg's claim that "the basic characteristics of managerial work know no national boundaries" (1973, p. 104) may not have been valid for Libyan manager's work activity within their country's national boundary (a view that was supported by observations made in my consultancy work) and that therefore the teaching I was providing to my Libyan management students may not have been the appropriate training they needed for work in Libyan organisations..

The research into managerial work that exists has a fundamental weakness; that environmental influences are regarded as a peripheral concern rather than being included as part of the research criteria (Gadsden, 2000). By and large, many researchers have tended to devise methods to categorise managerial work assuming that the categorisation that results characterises the work of all managers without paying sufficient attention to the impact of the national context in which managers have to work and operate. Existing research (e.g. Mintzberg, 1973) has adopted this assumption, underestimating the possibility that the work of managers could significantly differ according to the culture and national context in which individual managers work and the peculiar circumstances existing therein. Difference, therefore, "had best be assumed until similarity is proven, as opposed to the more traditional approach of assuming similarity until difference is proven" (Adler, 1984, p. 39). Indeed, it is not necessarily what managers who live in non-western cultures do in terms of the managerial practices they undertake in their own societies that have to be similar to western managerial work; managers are influenced by their own cultures when they perform managerial roles, so the skills and techniques relating to the performance of managers' work activity that are suitable for one national culture

are not inevitably suitable for another (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 2007). In this regard, Drucker (1988) emphasises the importance of managers' environment as a factor in shaping the managers' work activity, and goes a step further saying:

> Because management deals with the integration of people in a common venture, it is deeply embedded in culture. … one of the basic challenges managers in a developing country face is to find and identify those parts of their own tradition, history, and culture that can be used as building blocks. The difference between Japan's economic success and India's relative backwardness, for instance, is largely explained by the fact that Japanese managers were able to plant imported management concepts in their own cultural soil and make them grow (p. 75).

The social environment and its impact on managerial work behaviour has been under researched, especially in terms of its influence on managers operating in cultures and societies outside the mainstream assumed by most previous research. Research into the relationship between the practice of management and its social environment has not been adequately understood and there are gaps in our knowledge about the nature of this relationship (Martinko & Gardner, 1990, Iguisi, 2009). Indeed, the influence of this relationship is more prevalent in management research related to the international dimensions of management than in the field of research that limits its focus to the study of managers' work in its national context. Research into managers' work in non-western contexts therefore requires a deeper understanding of the role of the external environment on management practices. In fact, research into the nature of managerial work and behaviour could fail to capture the reality of managers' work if the social context and its impact on managers' work activity is neglected. Consequently, the notion of universal managerial practice across nations is also questioned.

Within the Libyan context, as it was documented in chapter three, management is heavily influenced by the characteristics of the society in which it functions, such as traditions, tribal loyalties, family patterns, and so on. Libyan managers cannot be isolated from their surroundings and therefore managers' work

activity is deeply subject to the influence of Libyan conditions and culture. Therefore, the present research addresses the question "To what extent is the nature of Libyan managerial work influenced by its own national context?" More specifically, it seeks to explore Libyan managers' work activity and how it is influenced by its economic, legal, political as well as cultural and social environments. In order to do this in the most efficient way possible, the study focused on senior managers who were making decisions that affected their whole companies. Adopting an interpretive position and relying on case study strategy, this research was designed to conduct the field study in two sequential phases. As illustrated in Figure 8.1 above, the empirical work began with a pilot study aiming to discover the main issues affecting the managers' work activity in general and the influences of the external environment on their work in particular. The existing literature and the findings from the first stage informed the second phase of the empirical work of the present research, examining the managerial work of executive managers in four different organisations in Libya: two banks and two oil companies. The discussion of research findings in accordance with the three research questions mentioned in the Figure 8.1 follows.

8.2 The Discussion of Research Questions

8.2.1 What are the fundamental characteristics of managerial work in Libyan organisations?

The findings of the present research show that Libyan senior managerial work suffers from a lack of structural clarity and designated responsibility that result in confused and inefficient allocation of workloads and resources. These findings of unclear and less defined job responsibilities within Libyan management have been frequently reported by several Libyan researchers (see for example, Eljaaidi, 2012; Shernanna, 2012).

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Furthermore, in Libyan organisations, the work of managers can be characterised as consisting of: firstly, excessive workloads that force the executives to work beyond the official working hours to meet the daily requirement of their managerial work. This characteristic of the work of managers as being subject to heavy workloads is "firmly rooted in empirical evidence … in almost all settings and times" (Tengblad, 2012, p. 40). It is important to recognise, however, that the enormous amount of work or, in other words, the lack of sufficient time within the work of Libyan managers was partially due to:

Managers' work-time was affected by constant interruptions that were unrelated to their work (e.g. family matters) and;

Managers' work-load was affected by the work that had been referred upwards to them by more junior managers, who had the competence to deal with them but lacked confidence in their authority and feared to take responsibility for an action without written permission.

Secondly, Libyan managers' work activity is characterised as consisting of a wide variety of work. In regard to the previous research on managerial work (e.g. Tengblad, 2012), the work characteristic of covering a diverse range of tasks was not an exception in the work of Libyan executives.

Thirdly, the Libyan managerial work is characterised as involving an excessive amount of written communication. The requirement for a very large amount of written communication within the work of Libyan managers was due, to some degree, to the need to assign responsibility in the executives' work environment and, in addition, its potential to provide a definite understanding about the matter under consideration; for example in the form of the registers of decisions mentioned previously. While Western managers are also required to undertake a lot of written work, they generally do so using new technology such as email and word processing, whereas even senior Libyan managers have to hand write much of their communication and reiterate decisions taken by word of mouth in written form. Managers are often also required to deal with written communications from junior colleagues on relatively trivial matters; this point

therefore also suggests a failure by Libyan organisations to sufficiently delegate authority to middle managers.

Fourthly, the Libyan managerial work is characterised as having a heavy technical emphasis. It was also noticeable that the senior Libyan managers interviewed tended to have reached their positions as a result of promotions from technical jobs, especially for the engineers in the oil sector companies

Fifthly, the Libyan managers' work is characterised as being processed at high speed. However, this was in the case of the banking sector only. The findings of this study did not provide evidence that this work characteristic was found in the work of managers in the oil sector. This indicates that the type of the sector that an organisation is within can be expected to be considered a factor in characterising the work of managers. Finally, the work of Libyan managers is characterised as requiring a considerable degree of routine work.

8.2.2 How do Libyan managers perceive their managerial work?

Libyan managers' perception of their managerial work is twofold. One is in response to their job responsibilities – formal activities and roles. The other one is in response to their external environment – informal activities and roles.

8.2.2.1 Formal Activities and Roles

Libyan managers' perception of their managerial work is linked with their responsibilities. They perceive their work in terms of what they are responsible for. The work of Libyan managers according to their responsibilities consists of, firstly, dealing with information. This involves both seeking and informing others of necessary information. Secondly, the work of Libyan managers includes activities aimed at ensuring the achievement of work tasks. These activities are mainly continual supervision and follow-up of the work. Thirdly, the work of Libyan managers includes the activity of responding to emerging issues. Fourthly, the work of Libyan managers includes activities related to dealing with outsiders. This dealing with others from outside the organisation includes many different kinds of outsiders – e.g. governmental institutions,

competitors, foreign partners. Here, it is worth noticing that this activity of dealing with outsiders includes some activities that have been reported by the managerial work studies as a part of managers' work – e. g. negotiation. Fifthly, consulting others is one of the roles within Libyan managers' work activity. Consulting others was also often a part of the work of Libyan managers because of their expertise and specialisation in a specific functional area.

8.2.2.2 Informal Activities and Roles

Informality within the work of Libyan managers refers to the activities and roles Libyan managers undertake above and beyond the work outlined in their job description and beyond what was specifically asked of them by the organisation. The notion of informality within the work of Libya managers does have significant implications for an understanding of the roles that Libyan managers played in doing their work effectively. The task of working out the boundaries of their formal roles and activities may be reflected in the Libyan managers' work activity in the following areas. First, Libyan managers play the role of being approachable to others. This gives them two advantages: building support and maintaining effective relationships with others; and help in dealing effectively with issues raised. The second informal role is to play the role of a guard, which is a role aimed at protecting their organisations against harm. Third, the role that aims at balancing their work with their personal and social life. Fourth, Libyan managers use their personal relationships to benefit the organisation. The fifth informal activities are related to building an informal relationships network.

8.2.3 How does the national context make the managerial work of Libyan managers distinctive?

The effects of the external environment, which in Libya particularly includes the social expectations and obligations of family, clan, and tribe, alongside legal and political constraints, is the factor that most affects Libyan managers and requires them to develop a range of informal roles, which are performed alongside their more formal responsibilities. In addition, the fact that these formal responsibilities are often ill-defined and open to interpretation further blurs the

distinction between the formal and informal, and Libyan managers as a result adopt a dual approach, devising solutions to what they must get done to meet their formal obligations, but also assessing what they can get done to meet their informal obligations without compromising their formal role to too great an extent. This parallel concern with obligations to the formal and informal spheres is what distinguishes Libyan managerial work from descriptions of managerial work in the literature, which are mostly concerned with North American and European studies.

Libyan managers' obligations to both formal and informal spheres is reflected in figure 8.2, which draws on elements of Mintzberg's (1973) model of managerial work roles but adds the effect of the external environment in creating additional informal roles to which a Libyan manager must give some attention. While Mintzberg (1973) mentions the effects of the external environment, he sees it as influencing the formal roles that derive from a manager's authority; this study's findings suggest additional influences on managerial work that are particular to the Libyan context and the data collected indicate that many informal roles are influenced by the manager's obligations to the external environment, which have to be balanced with their formal roles.

Figure 8.2: The Work and Role of Libyan Managers
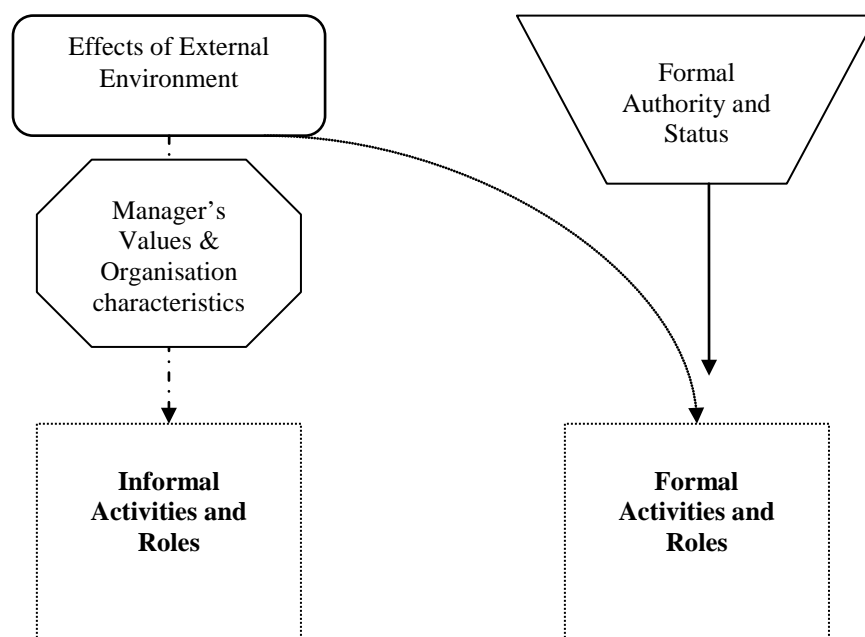
8.3 Original Contribution to Knowledge and Approach

This thesis was written at a time of truly momentous change in the history of Libya (2009-2013). Libya now is under a new and completely different regime. Recent events have signified that profound change in the nature of Libyan managerial work may be imminent. As a result of these changes, it can be stated that the data that were gathered for this thesis would not be obtainable again. This study can provide a starting point for all subsequent studies and allows the comparison between the previous environmental circumstances and situation with new ones in regard to the work of managers. This will strongly help in assessing the extent of the impact of the external environment factors on managerial work.

The study contributes to the limited number of existing studies regarding the nature of managerial work in developing and non-western countries, which research on managerial work has hitherto mostly overlooked. The study was born out of an observation that there might be a dislocation between western managerial principles and managerial work as it was practised in Libya. The research set out to explore the relationship between managerial theory and the reality of practice and found that there were differences, and that the external environment, consisting of cultural, social, economic and political-legal factors, plays a role in affecting formal managerial roles and creating informal roles.

The study also contributes to the debate related to whether or not the nature of managerial work is a universal practice, by gathering evidence to determine whether or not the universal practice assumption can be supported by the Libyan managers' work activity. The findings of this study suggest that the external environment in the form of responsibilities and obligations deriving from social and familial bonds are a major influence on the work practices of Libyan managers, and are a factor that must be appreciated by investors, policy makers, business leaders and other researchers.

This study has also contributed to the research into managerial work by recognising the role that the external environment plays in creating informal roles which constitute an additional part within the managers' work activity. Libyan managers are therefore required to balance their formal obligations and responsibilities as managers with their informal responsibilities and obligations. This can involve weighing the best interests of their employer against the interests of the social group they to some extent represent, and making a compromise between the needs of each. This is an insight into managerial work in Libya, and may have implications for understanding managerial work in other Arab, Islamic, African and developing countries. For example, other countries may also suffer from a degree of corruption that means that formal documents cannot necessarily be trusted, and managers may therefore also have to act as a guard to their organisation's interests, as was found by this study in Libya. Similarly, organisations in other less developed countries may experience a degree of political interference in managerial decision making, or from a weak regulatory and/or legal system that does not offer the protection companies need to make decisions in good faith. It is possible that managerial work may also be influenced by national culture in ways similar in kind to those found in Libya but different in particulars, depending on the nature of the national culture. All of these differences in external environment will have implications for managerial work and the way managers negotiate the various demands placed upon them. What is clear is that in addition to the impact of culture the nature of managerial work is affected by forces that may be described as being elements of globalisation and which require the manager to adopt certain patterns of behaviour or decision making skills that are new to him or her. These forces (for example, the influence of supra-national economic bodies such as the IMF and World Bank [Dimmock and Walker, 2000]) have powerful and far-reaching effects and require managers to adopt behaviours that may be uncomfortable or alien to their cultural sensibilities. However, alongside these forces are other pressures from the external environment that pre-exist globalisation and which cause a tension for managers in terms of what they perceive is required of them by their organisation and its commercial environment, and what is expected of them by the society they inhabit and that helped to form them.

The findings of this study indicate that the work and behaviour of Libyan managers has elements that are distinctive to the Libyan environment, and this is an important insight that Libyan managers need to take account of. For example, the findings include work roles that are particular to the Libyan environment and are not included in Mintzberg's (1973) set of managerial work roles. Among the work roles and activities identified in this study are those of 'guard' and 'balancer', which are distinctive aspects of the Libyan work environment that derive from forces in the external environment. Both of these roles are informal, indicating that managers perform them, but they are in addition to what is expected of them in terms of their formal work role. Moreover, in assuming the role of a 'balancer' a Libyan manager is seeking to balance the requirements of the organisation with the pressure imposed by the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment, which requires him or her to behave in certain ways that are not necessarily aligned directly with the organisation's interests, or may even be contrary to them.

These findings are a contribution to the ongoing debate between theorists who take a universal view of the nature of managerial work (e.g. Mintzberg, 1973; House et al., 2004) and those whose view of managerial work roles is more particular (e.g. Adler, 1984; Pearson & Chatterjee, 2003; Hofstede, 2007). According to Koen (2005) followers of the Universalist approach expect a convergence of managerial work roles and behaviours as a result of globalisation, while Particularists seek to stress the differences between working environments based on differences in national culture. This study's findings offer support to the perspective that managerial work is significantly influenced by the society in which it takes place, and supports Koen's (2005) argument that convergence in managerial behaviour is a myth. Bottery (1999 as quoted in Dimmock and Walker, 2000, p. 307) claims that "while management concepts seem global in nature, the actual practice of management is context-bound, mediated by the beliefs, values and aspirations of the managers and the managed"; a warning that while the forces of globalisation and modernisation can seem inexorable, the resilience of national cultures is also a formidable obstacle to the process of convergence. As Koen (2005) observes, the mere fact that Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture are still used in much

recent research and have been found to still be reflective of national cultures more than 30 years after they were formulated is in itself evidence of the durable nature of societies and their cultures, despite the criticism of Hofstede's dimensions made by McSweeney (2002) and reviewed in chapter two.

Alongside the role of 'balancer' developed from the findings of this study, a further informal role was that of 'guard'. Within this role Libyan managers sought to protect their organisations' interests from threats from the national context that were particular to Libya and that would in all likelihood not be faced by managers in North America or Western Europe. For example, time taken and the use of the manager's informal network of contacts to authenticate documents used to support a loan application to a bank, no matter how reputable their provenance was, indicated that there were elements of Libyan society that managers felt they could not trust, and had to guard against. This contradicts Mintzberg's (1973, p. 104) claim that managerial work is fundamentally the same across nation states with, he claims, managers being "remarkably alike", and explains why Libyan managers were required to undertake a number of informal work roles and adopt certain informal behaviours in order to balance the needs of their organisation and the requirements of their society.

On the other hand, the findings offer support for researchers such as Deresky (2011) who maintains that all nations and their cultures are unique and that they strongly influence not only the attitudes and values of individuals but also their on-the-job behaviour, which in turn affects how groups and whole organisations behave. This study is a refutation of the view that management is becoming a field of human activity unconstrained by boundaries; rather, this study suggests that not only are there boundaries, and that these boundaries coincide to some extent with national boundaries (Koen, 2005; Needle, 2010). Furthermore, in some environments it is not possible to simply adopt Western managerial practices and wait for the benefits to accrue; in fact, the adoption of such practices causes a tension between one culturally bounded set of expectations (Western work models) and another (the traditions, mores and expectations of a national culture). In Libya this study suggests that managers seek to resolve this tension by undertaking informal roles to reach a compromise between the sometimes conflicting demands placed upon them.

The forces that impact the work roles and behaviours of managers outside of their immediate responsibilities are shown in the diagram below (figure 8. 3), which illustrates societal pressures on managers that are sometimes in conflict with the interests of their organisation and the expectations of Western models of managerial practice.

Figure 8.3: The Impact of the National Context in the Work and Role of Libyan Managers
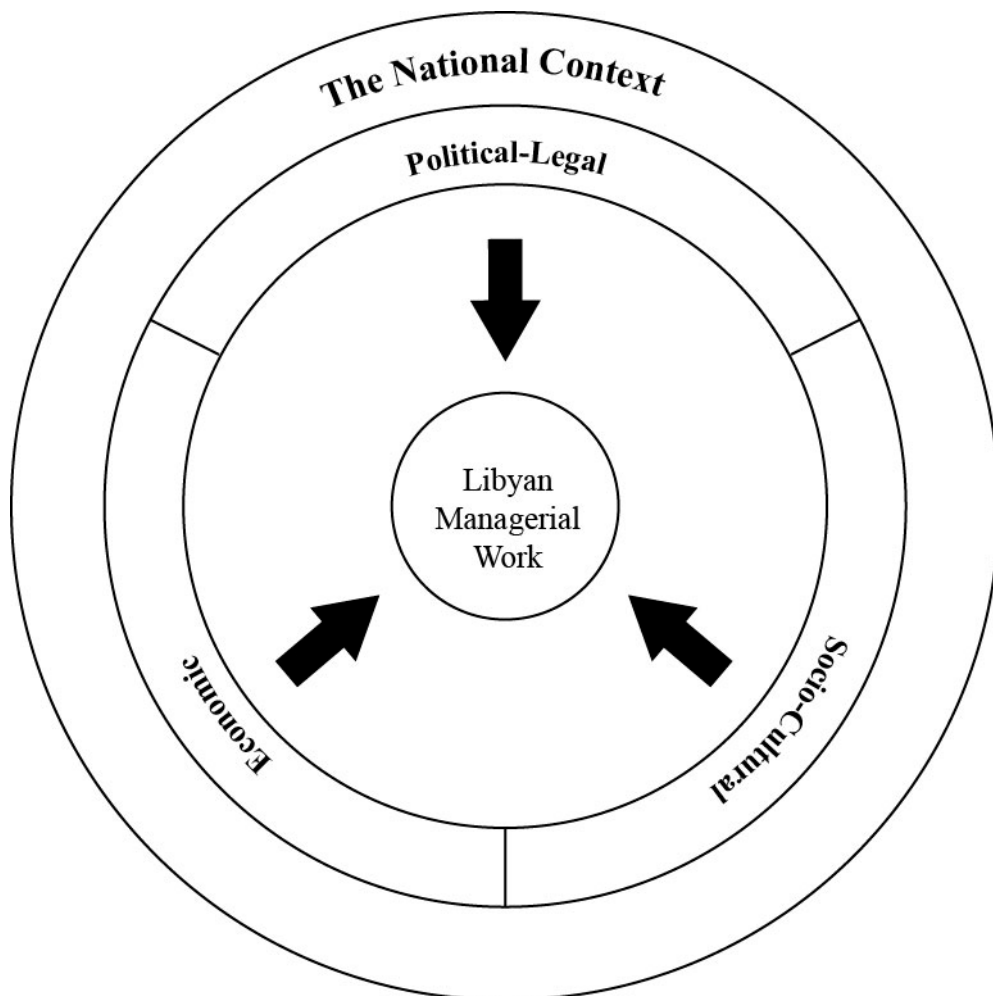
The value of this diagram lies in a number of different areas. Firstly, it is of value to Libyan managers themselves, in that it acts as a way to recognise and begin to categorise the different pressures and influences that impact upon their roles in their organisations. Here managers need to consider the benefits of

adoption as opposed to adaptation; an understanding of the effects of his/her own national culture does not mean that Libyan managers should disregard Western models of managerial work, but rather that they should look within their own culture for ways in which these models can be adapted to the Libyan environment. Drucker (1988) cites the example of Japan as a distinctive, indeed unique, national culture that was able to assimilate the management theories of other cultures and adapt them to the Japanese environment to create a hybrid management approach that combined rationality with cultural sensitivity. This approach suggests that organisations need to take account of national culture if they are to be successful in their own environment, as well as in new markets or territories. The diagrams (8.2 and 8.3) combined with the findings presented in chapter seven allow Libyan managers to comprehend the forces acting upon them and the responses they have developed as a result, but also through this comprehension open a path to future research into how the tensions between formal expectations and informal roles can be resolved.

The findings and diagrams discussed above also have implications for the teaching of management in Libyan institutions. As stated in chapter one, a part of the rationale for this study was a perception on the part of the researcher of a dissociation between his knowledge of the theory of managerial work and his experience of managerial work as it occurred in Libyan workplaces (see figure 8.1). The use of figure 8.3 in educational and training settings can help students to anticipate the forces they will experience in the workplace that will affect their actual managerial work. Sometimes these two sets of requirements will run parallel to each other and will seemingly be in harmony, but as the study's findings indicate, on other occasions the requirements of the organisation and those of society will be tangential or even contradictory, and managers will need to take on informal roles to cope with this. It is therefore better that future managers are prepared for this eventuality and are given some of the skills they will need to navigate a path through these conflicts of interest.

Alongside the informal work roles and activities of 'guard' and 'balancer' already discussed above, the study has found evidence of the impact of the national context in the form of economic, political/legal and socio-cultural

impacts on both formal and informal roles and activities in Libyan managerial work, affecting both the nature of the work itself and the behaviours of the managers. For example, in addition to performing the roles of 'balancer' and 'guard', all four case studies surveyed in the main study identified the role of 'being approachable' as an important informal role, stating that the rigid hierarchies of Libyan organisations made junior employees unwilling to express opinions or give bad news in formal situations, but if they could speak to their superiors face-to-face at short notice they would provide valuable information informally, which often enabled managers to resolve problems before they became serious. Allowing this kind of access also helps to make employees feel appreciated and trusted, building morale and creating a sense of teamwork that many managers expressed was difficult to foster in the more formal setting of meetings.

Moreover, the work activity of 'building an informal relationships network' that emerges from the findings is crucial to Libyan manager's ability to further the interests of their organisation in ways that other organisation members might not even be aware of, particularly in dealing with issues associated with the Difficulties dimension of the findings. For example, the difficulty of 'dealing with the external environment' can sometimes be resolved informally through close relationships formed through social and cultural ties of family or tribe, so that political-legal or economic forces acting on the organisation can be mitigated by personal and social relationships. Such relationships exist in Western organisations as well, but it is easy to assume that traditions of equitable treatment combined with close regulatory oversight keep their impact to a minimum, or at least that is the assumption of the Universalist approach to management work and behaviour. However, culture in general is too strong an influence to be simply ignored or brushed aside as if it did not matter because what is needed is to find a way of working with this culture, with its characteristics, with its strains, with its unique Libyan characteristics, in order to make Libyan managerial work effective in the conditions of Libyan society.

Furthermore, it is a profound mistake to think that globalisation means that all managers everywhere perform the same roles and carry out the same activities

in exactly the same way; that they think exactly the same, act and behave exactly the same, because in practice people come from different cultures. Much effort has been put into the study of the effect of culture on management; for example, the GLOBE study into perceptions of leadership conducted between 1994 and 1997 in 62 different countries found that while a wide range of perceptions of what constitutes an effective leader exists there was evidence of convergence in terms of cross-cultural perceptions (Jackson and Perry, 2011). Meanwhile, the longitudinal studies that constitute the successive waves of the World Values Survey found that while economic development had brought about huge social change in many parts of the world, culture remained notably resistant to change, and that "values endure despite modernization" (Koen, 2005, p. 543). Moreover, even within cultures that are outwardly similar, there can be differences of approach or emphasis that can have profound impacts on the work and behaviour of managers. Jackson and Perry (2011) cite the example of attitudes to the concept of leadership and claim that even in research that might be described as 'Western' there are differences. Cultures with a strong Anglo-Saxon tradition tend to emphasise the transformational power of a charismatic and dominant leader, whereas researchers from other European traditions are more concerned with the social legal and political context within which organisations operate, being more mistrustful of leadership dominated by one individual. Similarly, it would be a mistake to regard the findings of this study to be relevant to all Arab or all Islamic countries – each context requires its own understanding. Therefore, in order to be successful, Libyan managers, and any other manager working in Libya, need to be aware of the forces acting upon them, and it would be better if they were helped to discover them through education rather than only through experience. Of course, the findings of this study only relate to Libya, and cannot be expected to explain managerial work elsewhere; however, the forces acting on managers in Libya will be similar whether the manager is Libyan or not, and whatever organisation he or she works for. If an organisation wants to do business successfully in Libya its personnel also need to know how the Libyan mind works, understand Libyan expectations, and appreciate the influence of Libyan culture.

In terms of contribution to approach, as described in chapter six the research adopted a sequence of data collection and analysis approaches that combined to give rich and accurate data. The pilot study served to investigate managers' perceptions of their work roles based on existing items while also comparing this with interview data to obtain a fuller picture. The discrepancies evident in these two data sets allowed the researcher to compile interview questions for the main data collection phase that probed the discrepancies further. At the stage of analysis of the main interview data, grounded analysis using open coding allowed the researcher to organise an enormous amount of material into conceptual groupings that allowed 24 constructs to emerge; axial coding then grouped these constructs into five categories. This was followed by the case study analysis, where the data could be compared with the documentary and observational data collected during the interview process to produce a rich and full picture of managers' work activity. This systematic and carefully sequenced approach enabled the researcher to keep data organised and relevant to the research questions, and as an element of methodology represent a contribution to practice.

8.4 Limitations

In order to help the reader to view the results of this research appropriately, several limitations must be acknowledged. Firstly, the limited number of participants (25) from four organisations - two banks and two oil companies - in the main phase of the study restricts the range of data collected and the views obtained. In addition, the four cases were all based in one major Libyan city (Benghazi) which limits the breadth of data collected. Nonetheless, these kinds of limitations should be considered in the light of the fact that the prior research, as well as the pilot study (which targeted all Libyan executives in both sectors) did inform the inputs of the main stage of the study. Within the present research no claim or aim towards generalisation was made.

Secondly, although the participants were all at the top level, they did not hold the same managerial positions – for example they included General Managers (CEO), Heads of Credit Sectors and Administrative Affairs Managers. Furthermore, these executives were from organisations that differed in size, ownership structure and the type of sector. This may, to some extent, limit the results of this research when compared with studies that have exclusively focused on the role of CEO and/or a specific type of sector or/and organisation.

Thirdly, the use of the interview method constitutes a possible limitation as it includes the possibility of the participants' statements not coinciding with reality. Moreover, misinterpretations on the part of the researcher may take place within the stage of data analysis. In addition, the interviews were transcribed and analysed in Arabic. Within this research, the participants' quotations were translated into English by the researcher. This may create a further possible limitation in regard to a clear understanding of the interview results.

8.5 Implications and Directions for Future Research

8.5.1 Implications for Research

This study positions itself among an enormous amount of previous research related to the field of managerial work and behaviour. However, the study is distinctive in being conducted in a non-western and developing country, which is rare in the prior research of managerial work. Therefore, implications for future research can be drawn.

Studying the work of managers is still very limited in cultures that widely differ in many aspects from those where research into managerial work has originated (primarily the US and Western Europe) and has developed in. Therefore, there is a need to conduct further such study into the nature of managerial work in other different cultures and countries. The extent to which the external environment influences managerial work in other Arab, African and Muslim counties needs

to be further investigated. Moreover, there is a perception among some researchers that the link between managerial theory and the actual work of managers has become too distant; for example, Tengblad (2012) suggests that "there is an urgent need to establish a strong research tradition based on the realities of managerial work" (p.7). In this context, figure 8.3 provides an insight into why managers behave and act as they do; it acknowledges that managers' work activity does not exist in a vacuum, insulated from any requirements other than those of the organisation. Furthermore, it requires researchers to consider a more holistic set of influences on managers as a means of widening and deepening the perspective they have of managerial work. It is a way of removing the study of managerial work from a concern primarily with detailed description of what is done when, by whom, and how this aligns with strategic objectives; and situating it instead within a social environment subject to many pressures and constraints external to the organisation, within which it must be studied if it is to be better comprehended.

This research includes a main phase that investigates four organisations in two sectors that are of vital strategic importance to Libya: banking and oil. Future research could usefully be based on different sectors in order to provide a point of comparison to this study's findings in order to determine the extent to which the nature of managerial work and the external pressures upon managers are sector dependent. This study's findings suggest that the nature of the work and the influences faced were similar in both sectors; however, there was some difference in, for example, the speed with which work had to be completed in the banking sector. Moreover, researcher adopting the methodology of this study in other Muslim, Middle Eastern or developing countries would need to consider what were the key strategic sectors in their own national context, and how broad a range of sectors they wished to study in order to reach useful conclusions about the nature of managerial work in their chosen context.

In addition to the choice of strategic sectors for the focus of this study, the researcher also chose to study managers working in large organisations. It is possible that the nature of managerial work may differ in small and medium-sized companies (SMEs) and that the impacts of the external environment may differ in terms of strength if not kind. Further research in this area could identify

whether such differences exist and contribute a new perspective to the growing body of literature on management in SMEs.

This study's findings reveal that the effects of the external environment, within which the managers work, were key to providing an insight into the informal work side that characterises managerial work and behaviour in Libya. The extent of this informal side in other cultures and contexts requires further research.

8.5.2 Implications for Practice

The findings of this study and in particular figures 8.2 and 8.3 have implications for the teaching of management studies in Libya and the ways in which managers are taught and trained. Figure 8.3 enables researchers to better understand actions and behaviours and situate them within the wider social and cultural context in which they occur. This has some practical implications for management studies in Libya; for example:

There needs to be a much stronger link between the study of business and management on the one hand, and the broader social sciences such as sociology, law, and anthropology on the other. This will provide management students with the knowledge to understand their work roles in a broader context.

As a result of the greater link between business and social sciences, it will be possible to design training packages that emphasise the impact of the external environment and require trainees to consider the impact of culture on their work and behaviour.

At a practical level, the tradition of including periods of placement in real businesses that once existed in Libyan business courses should be revived and included for all management trainees. Therefore, courses would be spread over an extra year, to include one year's placement within a business. In this way the theoretical understanding of figure 8.3 can be transformed into a tool that allows

young managers to understand what they do and observe in-work placements in terms of activities that have a socio-cultural dimension, not just a business one.

Researchers into management in Libya who are interested in the effects of the national context should be encouraged to consider figure 8.3 as possible framework for establishing the linkage between what managers do and think, and the society they live in. Publication of findings based on this understanding can help to advance the debate on how Libya develops a set of management practices that are informed by the best ideas from abroad but which remain distinctively Libyan.

In terms of the implications of this study for research into managerial work elsewhere, as stated above the findings themselves are particular to the Libyan context and are necessarily based on the characteristics of the Libyan national context. However, the method employed could usefully be followed by researchers in other contexts in order to understand the influence of their own external environment. This is particularly true in contexts where socio-cultural traditions are substantially different from those existing in the areas of the world from which most management theory derives; for example, it is likely that other Middle Eastern and Islamic countries will benefit from understanding what their socio-cultural, political-legal and economic characteristics are and how this influences the nature of their managerial work and behaviour. As a result it is possible that researchers in these areas can meet Tengblad's (2012) challenge to build research traditions that seek to study and understand managerial work in order to develop theory, rather than using theory (often imported from other cultures) to understand managerial work. In this way it is possible that the reality of day-to-day, real-life decisions and actions can be reflected in the theory taught to managers who are being prepared for managerial work in their own national contexts.

As it opens itself to greater competition and welcomes foreign companies into its economy, Libya will find itself with the same tensions that exist in many other Arab countries between the taken-for-granted primacy of family, clan and tribe and the meritocratic assumptions of companies based in North America,

Europe and Scandinavia. Some of the assumptions and practices which are identified in this study may be strongly challenged by the values that pertain to these international companies

Further research into the area covered by this study could therefore be helpful for international companies seeking to invest in Libya; within the organisation, managers can pragmatically investigate the effects of the external environment to benefit their organisations. By rooting the informal side of managers' work into the organisation culture, new directions concerning their work and behaviour could grow.

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Appendix

A. Pilot Study: The Questionnaire (English version)

Business School

PhD Research

"Exploring the Impact of National Context in the Role and Work of Managers in Libya"

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a Lecturer at the Department of Business Administration, University of Garyounis -Benghazi, Libya. I am currently a PhD student at the University of Gloucestershire - Cheltenham, U. K.

I am attempting, through this study, to explore the Impact of National Context on the Role and Work of Managers in Libya. My principal research question is as follows: *"To what extent is the nature of Libyan managerial work influenced by its own national context?"*

I am carrying out an exploratory survey as a first step. I seek your help by answering the enclosed questionnaire. The survey is straightforward and should take no more than 35 minutes approximately. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all questions in a way that best describes you.

I appreciate your participation in this study on the nature of managerial work and many thanks in advance for your cooperation. The data collected will be treated confidentially and anonymously and used only for the purposes of this research.

Thank you in advance for participating in this research.

Yours faithfully
Adel El Gareidi
Doctoral Candidate
University of Gloucestershire
s0612016@glos.ac.uk

Part I: General and Demographic information:

1. Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

2. Age: (30 and below) ☐   (31 - 35) ☐   (36 - 40) ☐   (41 - 45) ☐

(46 - 50)☐   (51 - 55) ☐   (56 - 60) ☐   (61 and above) ☐

3. Qualification:

a) Highest degree earned**:**

Bachelors ☐   Masters ☐   Doctorate ☐

Other (please specify) --

b) Country of study for this qualification:

  Libya ☐   Middle-East ☐   Europe ☐   USA ☐

Other (please specify) ---

 c) Field of Study: **--**

d) Other professional certifications: ---

4. Your job title: ---

5. Experience:

a) Years in your current Position:

  (Less than a year) ☐   (1 - 3) ☐   (4 - 6) ☐   (7 - 9) ☐   (10 and above) ☐

b) Years in your current company:

  (3 and below) ☐   (4 - 6) ☐   (7 - 9) ☐   (10 and above) ☐

 c) Total experience in managerial work inside and outside the company (years):

(5 and below) ☐   (6 - 10) ☐   (11 - 15) ☐   (16 and above) ☐

d) Most previous position other than your current position: **-----------------------**

e) Have you worked as a chief executive or senior manager within organizations

which are located outside Libya?   **Yes** ☐   **No** ☐

6. Number of employees reporting *directly* to you: -------------------------------

Part II: Information about nature and characteristics your managerial work.

7. On an average, what percentage (%) of your time do you engage in fulfilling the following basic functions of management?

        Organizing   --------------**%**   Planning   ---------------**%**
         Leading   --------------**%**   Controlling ---------------**%**
        Others (please specify):
        --   --------------**%**
        --   --------------**%**

8. The following questions describe managerial work roles. Please use the scale and tick (✓) the box that indicates the appropriate response as correctly as it was required while you are in this position. Please give your answer on every statement and tick only one response for each item.

Items \ Scale	Not at all	Rarely	Some times	Often	Very Often
1. I seek and receive information in different ways to maintain or improve my understanding of the unit (the organisation / the department / the division /…) and its environment.					
2. I scan the internal and external environments to find out and evaluate the opportunities.					
3. I use and develop my own contact in different ways to gather information.					
4. I share relevant information received from outside or inside with the appropriate internal units or individuals.					
5. I brief subordinates or other managers on pertinent information.					
6. I ensure that subordinates or other managers are updated with information relevant to them.					
7. I represent the unit to outside people.					
8. I answer inquiries about the unit.					
9. I inform and serve people outside the unit about information they look for.					

10. I keep other people informed about the organization's future plans and activities.					
11. I search the unit and its environment to determine situations and issues that require organisational change.					
12. I implement and control the change in the unit.					
13. I design and initiate the needed changes in the unit.					
14. I face unexpected problems or crises and work to resolve them.					
15. I resolve conflicts among subordinates and put a stop to unacceptable behaviour.					
16. I take corrective action to face and cope with unexpected pressure.					
17. I develop and distribute budget resources and allocate resources within the unit (monies, equipment, materials, etc.).					
18. I spend time and make decisions about resource allocation for personnel in the unit.					
19. I make decisions about time scheduling for upcoming programmes and decide which programmes to provide resources.					
20. I manage time and approve various authorizations within the unit.					
21. I represent the unit in various discussions or negotiations.					
22. I negotiate the matters offered (e.g. price, services, etc.) with relevant teams.					
23. I resolve problems that arise with others.					
24. I discuss and work with two parties within and outside the unit to come to an agreement.					
25. I participate in a variety of symbolic, social, and ceremonial activities (e.g. attending / speaking at feasts and convocations).					
26. I provide recommendations for employees.					

27. I direct the work of subordinates and motivate them and evaluate the quality of job performance.					
28. I allocate employees to specific jobs or tasks and ensure that subordinates are alert to issues that need attention.					
29. I encourage teamwork between subordinates and resolve conflicts among them.					
30. I interact with others within the unit to improve and develop activities and duties.					
31. I create environmental conditions in which employees will work effectively and maintain supervision over changes in the unit.					
32. I maintain a personal network of contacts outside the unit and develop new contacts in different ways (e.g. passing information).					
33. I establish a close bond between the unit and its pertinent people.					
34. I develop and establish contacts in different ways (e.g. attending meetings in other units, attending social functions, etc.).					

9. How much stress *(difficulties to achieve your work in the way that you want or prefer to do it)* are you facing in your job? (Circle please)

Low   1   2   3   4   5   High

Please write down the three most important reasons which might be causing the above stress: **1:** --
2: --
3: --

Part III: Information about the impact of societal environment on your managerial work.

10. In view of the aspects of *external environment* and their effects on the organisation and therefore on your managerial work and behaviour, Please fill in the corresponding circle that best describes your opinion on each of the external

environment factors listed below. A "1" on the scale indicates a low level of Influence, a "5" on the scale indicates a high level of Influence.

External Environment *(societal environment)* Factors "their aspects may affect your job in certain way"	Level of Influence Low High				
	1	2	3	4	5
National Policies and Legislation	1	2	3	4	5
Family and Tribal Relationships and Personal Connections	1	2	3	4	5
Foreign Investment Policy	1	2	3	4	5
The extent of Economic Circumstances Pressure	1	2	3	4	5
Classes; Castes and Literacy	1	2	3	4	5
Social Customs and Traditions	1	2	3	4	5
Education's System and Structure	1	2	3	4	5
Beliefs, Values and Attitudes of society	1	2	3	4	5
Government Controls and Legal Requirements	1	2	3	4	5
The Extent of Stability of Government	1	2	3	4	5
The System and Structure of Justice	1	2	3	4	5
Business Law	1	2	3	4	5
Government Attitudes toward both Business and Labour	1	2	3	4	5
Social Institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Tax Levels and Regulation	1	2	3	4	5
Relative Costs of Labour; Materials; Overheads; Capital and Equipment	1	2	3	4	5
Availability of Credit	1	2	3	4	5
Status Symbols	1	2	3	4	5
Distribution System	1	2	3	4	5
Mass Media for Communications	1	2	3	4	5
Others : --	1	2	3	4	5
|--	1	2	3	4	5
|--			|		

11. Any other relevant information about the nature of Libyan managerial work and its environment you would like to add:

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

B. Pilot study: The Questionnaire (Arabic version)

كلية الإعمال

استبيان لبحث دكتوراه بعنوان:

إستكشاف أثر البيئةالخارجية (الليبية) على دور و عمل المدراء في ليبيا

الأخوة المشاركون في هذه الدراسة /

بداية أود توجيه الشكر الجزيل لكم لتفضلكم في المشاركة بهذه الدراسة، كما يتوجب علي إحاطتكم علماً بأن وظيفتي هي محاضر بقسم إدارة الاعمال ، جامعة قاريونس ـ بنغازي ، ليبيا ، و حالياً طالب دكتوراه بجامعة جلوسِتر شير ـ جلوسِتر، المملكة المتحدة.

أحاول ـ من خلال هذه الدراسة ـ أستكشاف و دراسة طبيعة العمل الإداري الليبي ضمن سياق خصوصيّة بيئتِ الليبية التي يعمل فيها. و التساؤل البحثي الأساسي لهذه الدراسة هو كالتالي: **إلى أي مدى تُعتبر طبيعة العمل الإداري الليبي متأثرة ببيئتها (البيئة الليبية)؟**

أقوم بتنفيذ مسح أستطلاعي كخطوة أولى ، و أنشد مساعدتك بالأجابة على الأستبيان المرفق. و يمكن القول أن هذا المسح الأستطلاعي ليس من الصعوبة بمكان ، كما أنه لن يستغرق أكثر من35 دقيقة تقريباً لإستكماله. لا توجد أجابات صحيحة أو أجابات خاطئة ، فقط ـ لطفاً ـ أجب عن جميع الأسئلة بالطريقة التي تراها أكثرتمثيلاً وملائمةً لك.

أُثّمِن عالياً مشاركتك في هذه الدراسة عن طبيعة العمل الإداري و الشكر الجزيل لك سلفاً لتعاونك. و تأكد أن كل البيانات المجمعة ستكون طي السرية ولن يتم استخدامها إلا لأغراض هذا البحث.

مع الشكر سلفاً لقبولكم المشاركة بهذا البحث.

و تفضلوا بقبول فائق التقدير و الأحترام

عادل عبدالحميد الجريدي
جامعة جلوسِتر شير ـ المملكة المتحدة
البريد الالكتروني: s0612016@glos.ac.uk

القسم الأول: معلومات عن المشاركين:-

1- الجنس: ذكر ☐   أنثى ☐

2- العمر: (30 أو أقل) ☐   (35-31) ☐   (40-36) ☐   (45-41) ☐
(50-46) ☐   (55-51) ☐   (60-56) ☐   (61 أو أعلى) ☐

3- المؤهل العلمي:
أ) أعلى مؤهل تحصلت عليه:
مؤهل جامعي ☐   إجازة عُليا (ماجستير) ☐   إجازة دقيقة (دكتوراه) ☐   أخرى ، رجاءً
أذكرها --------

ب) بلد الدراسة (لهذا المؤهل):
ليبيا ☐   الشرق الأوسط ☐   أوروبا ☐   الولايات المتحدة ☐   أخرى، رجاءً
حدّد -------

ج) حقل أو مجال الدراسة: -------------------------
د) مؤهلات أخرى: ----------------------------

4- المسمى الوظيفي: ---------------------------

5- الخبرة:
أ) عدد السنوات في وظيفتك الحالية:
(أقل من سنة) ☐   (3-1) ☐   (6-4) ☐   (9-7) ☐   (10 أو أكثر) ☐

ب) عدد السنوات بهذه المنظمة:
(3 أو أقل) ☐   (6-4) ☐   (9-7) ☐   (10 أو أكثر) ☐

ج) إجمالي سنوات الخبرة في مجال العمل الإداري داخل و خارج المنظمة:
(5 أو اقل) ☐   (10-6) ☐   (15-11) ☐   (16 أو أكثر) ☐

د) الوظيفة السابقة لوظيفتك الحالية مباشرة: ---------------------------

ه) هل سبق و أن كنت مديراً تنفيذياً بمنظماتٍ تقع خارج ليبيا (المدير التنفيذي للمنظمة أو المدير
الأعلى لأحد أنشطتها الرئيسية)؟   نعم ☐   لا ☐

6- عدد المرؤوسين التابعين أليك مباشرة *(الذين تقوم بالإشراف المباشر على أعمالهم وهم بدورهم
يرفعون التقارير إليك مباشرة)*:   --------

القسم الثاني: معلومات حول طبيعة وخصائص عملك الإداري:-
**7- في المتوسط، ما هي النسبة المئوية (%) من وقتك التي تقضيها في إنْجاز الوظائف الإدارية
الأساسية التالية:**

تنظيم ------------- (%)   تخطيط ----------- (%)
قيادة ------------- (%)   رقابة ----------- (%)
وظائف إدارية أخرى(رجاءً أذكرها):
-----------------   ------------ (%)
-----------------   ------------ (%)

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8ـ الفقرات التالية توصّف الإدوار الإدارية ، رجاءً إستخدم المقياس المصاحب و ضع إشارة √ في الخانة التي تشير إلى مدى تكرار قيامك بها أثناء شغْلِك لمنصبك الحالي *(رجاءً أجب عن جميع الفقرات، و ضع إجابة واحدة فقط لكل فقرة)*

غالباً جداً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	لم أقم بها مطلقاً	الفقرات
					1-أسعى للحصول على المعلومات وإستلامها بطرق مختلفة للأبقاء أو تحسين معرفتي وفهمي للوحدة (المنظمة/الإدارة...) وبيئتها
					2- أقوم بدراسة البيئة الداخلية والخارجية لإكتشاف وتقييم الفرص المحتملة
					3-إطوّر وأستخدم إتصالاتي وصلاتي الخاصةبطرق مختلفة لتجميع وأكتساب المعلومات
					4- أقوم بمشاركة المعلومات المُتحصل عليها من خارج/داخل الوحدة مع الأفراد أو الوحدات الداخلية ذات الصلة
					5- أطَّلِع المرؤوسين والمدراء الآخرين على المعلومات ذات الصلة بهم.
					6- أعمل على ضمان أبقاء المرؤوسين أو المدراء الآخرين مزودون بما يستجد من معلوماتٍ ذات صلةٍ بهم
					7- أمثّل الوحدة أمام الأطراف الخارجية (خارج الوحدة)
					8- أجيب عن التساؤلات والأستفسارات المطروحة حول الوحدة
					9- أتحدث مع الأطراف خارج الوحدة وألبي حاجتها للمعلومات التي يبحثون عنها
					10- أبقي الآخرين على علم بأنشطة المنظمة وخططها المستقبلية.
					11- أجري الأستقصاءات و الأبحاث عن الوحدة وبيئتها الخارجية لتحديد الأوضاع والقضايا التي تتطلب تغييراً تنظيميا
					12- أقوم بتصميم و أدخال التغييرات التنظيمية المطلوبة في الوحدة
					13- أقوم بالرقابة على التغيير داخل الوحدة
					14- اواجه الأزمات والمشاكل غير المتوقعة و أعمل على حلّها.
					15- أقوم بفض وحلحلة الصراعات بين المرؤوسين (الأتباع) و أضع حداً للسلوكيات غير المرغوبة
					16- أتخذ الأفعال والأجراءات التصحيحية لمواجهة ومكابدة الضغوطات غير المتوقعة
					17- أقوم بتعيين وتخصيص الموارد ضمن نطاق الوحدة (أموال ، أجهزة ، ومعدات ، مواد ...ألخ).
					18- أصنع القرارات و أبذل الوقت اللازم بشأن تخصيص الموارد للعاملين بالوحدة
					19- أتخذ القرارات بشأن جدولة الوقت للبرامج القادمة وأقرر البرامج اللازمة للتزود بالموارد
					20- أقوم بإدارة الوقت وأفوّض التفويضات المتعددة في نطاق

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					الوحدة
					21- أمثّل الوحدة بالمفاوضات و النقاشات المختلفة.
					22-أتفاوض بشأن الأمور والموضوعات المطروحة(الأسعار،الخدمات..ألخ) مع فرق العمل ذات العلاقة
					23- أقوم بحلّ المشاكل التي تنشأ مع الآخرين.
					24- أقوم بالنقاش والعمل مع طرفين (من داخل ومن خارج الوحدة) للتوصل لإتفاق
					25 أشارك في تشكيلة متنوعة من الأنشطة الإجتماعية و المتعلقة بالضيافة والأستقبال والمناسبات الرمزية (الحضور والتحدّث بالمناسبات والدعوات)
					26 - أزوّد المستخدمين بالتوصيات اللازمة.
					27 - اقوم بتوجيه وتحفيز المرؤوسين و أقيّم جودة أداء العمل.
					28 -أقوم بتخصيص وتعيين مستخدمين لوظائف أومهام معينة و أتأكد من المرؤوسين يقظين للمسائل والقضايا التي تستدعي إنتباهاً خاصاً
					29 - أشجّع فرق العمل (التي تنشأ بين المرؤوسين) و أحلّ الصراعات فيما بينهم
					30 - أحرص على التفاعل و العمل مع الآخرين بالوحدة لتحسين وتطوير الأنشطة والواجبات
					31 -أعمل على توفير الظروف البيئية الملائمة لتمكّن المستخدمين من العمل بشكل فعّال وأُبْقي إشرافاً على التغييرات في الوحدة
					32 -أحرص على أبقاء شبكة إتصالات شخصية خارج الوحدة وأطوّر علاقات إتصاليّة جديدة بطرق مختلفة (كتمرير معلومات مثلاً)
					33 - أقوم بتأسيس علاقة متينة بين الوحدة والأفراد وثيقي الصلة بها
					34 - أطوّر وأؤسسّ إتصالاتٍ بطرق مختلفة (مثلاً:حضور إجتماعات بوحدات أخرى ، التواجد بمناسبات و أعمال إجتماعية ...ألخ)

9- ماهي مقدار الضغوطات *(الصعوبات التي تحول دون إنجاز عملك بالطريقة التي تريدها أو تفضلها)* **التي تواجهها في وظيفتك؟** (رجاءً ضع دائرة على بما يتناسب و مستوى الضغوطات التي تواجها وفقاً للمقياس المذكور):

منخفضة 1 2 3 4 5 عالية

رجاءً أذكر أهم ثلاثة أسباب التي قد تكون مُسببةً لهذه الضغوطات:

1:--

2:--

3:--

القسم الثالث: معلومات حول التأثيرات البيئية على عملك الإداري:-

10- في إطار سمات وخصائص البيئة الخارجية وتأثيراتها على المنظمة و بالتالي على عملك وسلوكك الإداري ، رجاءً ضع O حول الرقم الذي يمثل - بحسب رأيك - أفضل وصف لمدى تاثير كل عامل من عوامل البيئة الخارجية الموضحة أدناه على عملك وسلوكك الإداري.

| | مستوى التأثير | | | | عوامل البيئة الخارجية |
عالٍ 5	4	3	2	منخفض 1	سماتها وخصائصها قد تؤثر على عملك بطريقة أو أخرى
5	4	3	2	1	تشريعات الدولة و سياساتها العامة
5	4	3	2	1	العلاقات والصلات الشخصية و العائلية و القبلية
5	4	3	2	1	الأطر و السياسات المنظمة للأستثمار الأجنبي
5	4	3	2	1	مدى الضغوطات الناجمة عن الظروف و الأوضاع الإقتصادية
5	4	3	2	1	طبقات و طوائف المجتمع و مستويات الأميّة
5	4	3	2	1	العادات و التقاليد الإجتماعية
5	4	3	2	1	هيكل و نظام التعليم
5	4	3	2	1	معتقدات وقيم وإتجاهات المجتمع
5	4	3	2	1	المتطلبات القانونية و الرقابة الحكومية
5	4	3	2	1	مدى استقرار الحكومة (الأمانات العامة)
5	4	3	2	1	هيكلية و نظام العدالة و القضاء
5	4	3	2	1	القوانين المنظمة للعمل والأعمال
5	4	3	2	1	إتجاهات الحكومة نحو العمل و الأعمال
5	4	3	2	1	المؤسسات الإجتماعية
5	4	3	2	1	التشريعات الضريبية
5	4	3	2	1	التكاليف النسبية للعمل و رأس المال
5	4	3	2	1	مدى توافر الأئتمان
5	4	3	2	1	مؤشرات و دلالات و رموز المكانة الأجتماعية
5	4	3	2	1	نظم التوزيع و النقل
5	4	3	2	1	الوسائط و الأجهزة و الوسائل الإعلامية لأغراض الإتصالات و الإعلام
5	4	3	2	1	عوامل أخرى (رجاءً أذكرها) -------------------------- --- |

11- أية معلومات اخرى تود إضافتها فيما يتعلق بالعمل الإداري الليبي و ومدى تأثره ببيئته الخارجية:

شكراً جزيلاً لتعاونكم و تخصيص جزءاً من وقتكم لإستكمال الأستبيان

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C. Pilot Study: Interview's Questions (English version)

Semi-structured interview questions of the PhD research under the title of

Exploring the Impact of National Context in the Role and Work of Managers in Libya

The first (pilot) stage

Q. a- How would you classify the types of activities which make up your work as a manager? (Please give an estimate of percentage time spent on them)

Q. b- What do you view to be the main difficulties of being a manager in such position?

Q. c- Could you explain how you as a manager contribute to the success of your organisation? (Please give three specific examples of ways in which you have done this contribution over the last year)

Q. d- In light of the influence of the external environment over your organisation and therefore on your managerial work and behaviour, what would you consider to be the main obstacles that you face to achieve your work effectively and efficiently? (Please give examples as much as possible).

Q. e- What would you consider to be the main characteristics of your work as a manager?

Q. f- What do you prefer to do (and prefer not to do) about your job as a manager in such position?

Q. g- What are the most important challenges hindering the better performance of your organisation?

Q. h- Regarding the organisation's performance, to what extent is a "top team" important in the organisation? Why?

D. Pilot Study: Interview's Questions (Arabic version)

كلية الإعمال

أسئلة مقابلات المرحلة الأولى لبحث دكتوراه بعنوان:

إستكشاف أثر البيئة الخارجية (الليبية) على دور و عمل المدراء في ليبيا

أسم الشركة: --
وظيفتك: --
التاريخ: ---

س1: كيف تصنّف أنواع الأنشطة التي تقوم بها بصفتك مديراً؟ (رجاءً ضع نسبة تقديرية للوقت الذي تنفقه في ممارستهن)

س2: ما الذي تضعه في إعتبارك إذا طُلب منك تحديد الصعوبات الرئيسية التي تواجه مديراً يتقلّد مركزاً كمركزك هذا؟

س3: رجاءً وضّح الكيفية التي يمكن أن تساهم بها ـ بصفتك مديراً ـ في نجاح منظمتك؟ (أذكر ثلاث أمثلة محددة تبيّن كيفية مساهمتك في إنجاح منظمتك العام الماضي)

س4: في ضوء تأثيرِ البيئةِ الخارجيةِ على منظمتِك و من ثم على عملك و سلوكك الإداري، ما الذي تعتبره أهم الموانع و العوائق التي تواجهك لكي تنجز عملك بكفاءة و فعالية؟

س5: ماهي الخصائص و السمات المميزة لعملك بصفتك مديراً؟

س6: ما الذي تفضّل القيام به (و الذي لا تفضّل القيام به) فيما يتعلق بعملك كمديراً في منصبك هذا؟

س7: ما هي أبرز التحديات التي تعيق و تحدّ من أداءٍ أفضل لمنظمتك؟

س8: بالأخذ في الأعتبار أداء المنظمة، إلى أي مدى يُعتبر "الفريق الإداري الأعلى" مهم في المنظمة؟ لماذا؟

E. Main study: Interview's Questions (English version)

Semi-structured interview questions of the PhD research under the title of

Exploring the Impact of National Context in the Role and Work of Managers in Libya

The second (main) stage

a) Could you describe a typical day in your work as a manager in your current position - yesterday or the day before for example, if you consider it as a typical day?

b) Could you explain the qualities and characteristics of the work and activities that you engage in as a manager in your current position?

c) What would you say to describe the requirements of your work in terms of managerial relationships and communication inside and outside the organisation?

d) Could you classify the activities which make up your work as a manager in your current position into key groups, with an explanation that identifies the sub-activities inside each main group? (Please give an estimate of the percentage of your time spent on each).

e) On the basis of your experience and actual everyday work-life in the current position, could you clarify a list of routine and non-routine tasks that you do?

f) As a part of this organisation, what do consider to be the contribution that you - as a manager in your current position - add to the organisation's success? (Please cite examples wherever possible).

g) To what extent do 'informal relationships' within your organisation affect your managerial work, and in what ways? (Please give examples from actual events and your experience).

h) Could you explain the effects of the socio-cultural, economic and political-legal environment on your work and behaviour, and how your work is influenced? (Please give examples as much as possible).

i) As a leader or a member of the top management team, what would you say concerning your experience with such teams, including the way that the team was established, team tasks, roles of the leader and members, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the team?

F. Main study: Interview's Questions (Arabic version)

أسئلة المقابلة ــ المرحلة الثانية

الأخوة المشاركون في هذه الدراسة /

بداية أود توجيه الشكر الجزيل لكم لتفضلكم في المشاركة بهذه الدراسة، كما يتوجب علي إحاطتكم علماً بأن وظيفتي هي محاضر بقسم إدارة الاعمال ، جامعة قاريونس - بنغازي ، ليبيا ، و حالياً طالب دكتوراه بجامعة جلوستِر شير ـ جلوستِر، المملكة المتحدة.

أحاول ـ من خلال هذه الدراسة ـ أستكشاف و دراسة طبيعة العمل الإداري الليبي ضمن سياق خصوصيّة بيئتةِ الليبية التي يعمل فيها. و التساؤل البحثي الأساسي لهذه الدراسة هو كالتالي:

إلى أي مدى تُعتبر طبيعة العمل الإداري الليبي متأثرة ببيئتها (البيئة الليبية)؟

أُثمّن عالياً مشاركتك في هذه الدراسة عن طبيعة العمل الإداري و الشكر الجزيل لك سلفاً لتعاونك. و تأكد أن كل البيانات المجمعة ستكون طي السرية ولن يتم استخدامها إلا لأغراض هذا البحث.

مع الشكر سلفاً لقبولكم المشاركة بهذا البحث.
و تفضلوا بقبول فائق التقدير و الأحترام

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س) فضلاً ، صِفّ يوم عمل روتيني (اعتيادياً) من ايام عملك كمدير في منصبك الحالي (يوم أمس أو اليوم السابق له ،على سبيل المثال ، إذا كنت تعتبره يوما روتينياً.

س) في ضوء ما تقوم به من أعمال و نشاطات بصفتك مديراً بمنصبك الحالي ، رجاءاً وضّح الصفات و الخصائص التي تميّز طبيعة هذه الأعمال و النشاطات ؟

س) استناداً إلى ما قد يتطلبه عملك الإداري من علاقات و إتصالات مع أطراف مختلفة من داخل وخارج المنظمة ، فضلاً بيّن طبيعة و مجال هذه العلاقات و التعاملات التي تقوم بها بصفتك مديراً شاغلاً لهذا المنصب.

س) فضلاً ، صنّف الأنواع المختلفة من الأنشطة التي تقوم بها و التي تشكّل في مجملها عملك كمدير في مجموعات أو انشطة رئيسية موضحاً ما تحويه كل مجموعة من أنشطة تفصيلية. (نسبة الوقت المنفق)

س) من خلال تجربتك الإدارية الفعلية بموقعك الحالي ، رجاءاً وضّح قائمة المهام (الروتينية و غير الروتينية) التي يتعين عليك القيام بها.

س) بصفتك جزءاً من هذه المنظمة ، ما الذي تعتبره مساهمة منك (كمدير في منصبك الحالي) في نجاح المنظمة ؟ (رجاءاً دلّل بالأمثلة كلما كان ذلك ممكناً).

س) إلى أي مدى يؤثر العلاقات غير الرسمية بعملك الإداري و كيف يكون ذلك ؟ (فضلاً وضّح بإستخدام أمثلة من واقع تجربتك الفعلية)

س) في ضوء تأثيرمتغيرات و عناصر البيئة الخارجية (البيئة الإجتماعية / الثقافية ، البيئة الإقتصادية ، البيئة القانونية / السياسيّة) على عملك و سلوكك الإداري ، فضلاً وضّح طبيعة هذه المتغيرات والكيفيّة التي تؤثر بها. (رجاءاً استخدم الأمثلة كلما كان ذلك ممكناً)

س) بالأخذ في الإعتبار الفريق الإداري الأعلى ، رجاءاً تحدّث عن تجربتك الفعليّة في العمل مع أو كقائد لهذا الفريق مستعرضاً طبيعة وآليّة تشكيل وعمل الفريق ، مهام الفريق و أدوار القائد والأعضاء ، كفاءة و فعّالية الفريق .

G. Pilot Study: Sector Tables

Respondents' Profile

Gender	Banking Sector	Oil Sector
Male	78 (97.5%)	31 (100%)
Female	02 (02.5%)	-

Age		
40 and below	17 (22.1%)	02 (06.5%)
41-50	22 (28.6%)	13 (42%)
51 and above	38 (49.4%)	16 (51.6%)

Qualification: Highest degree earned		
Bachelors	47 (63.6%)	14 (45.2%)
Masters / Doctorate	15 (20.3%)	17 (54.8%)
Other	12 (16.2%)	-

Qualification: Country of study for this qualification		
Inside Libya	66 (84.6%)	12 (38.7%)
Outside Libya	12 (15.4%)	19 (61.3%)

Qualification: Field of Study		
Management, Accountancy and Economics	47 (69%)	13 (43.3%)
Engineering	-	13 (43.3%
Finance & Banking	07 (10.3%)	-
Other	14 (20.6%)	04 (13.3%)

Experience: Total experience in managerial work		
5 years or below	02 (02.7%)	-
Between 6 and 10 years	12 (16.2%)	03 (09.7%)
More than 10 years	60 (81.1%)	28 (90.3%)

Experience: Years in the current Position		
Less than a year	14 (18.9%)	04 (13.8%)
1-3 year(s)	16 (21.6%)	03 (10.4%)
4 years and above	44 (59.5%)	22 (75.8%)

Experience: Years in the current company		
3 and below	23 (32.4%)	01 (03.2%)
4-9 years	19 (26.8%)	01 (03.2%)
10 and above	29 (40.8%)	29 (93.6%)

Experience: worked as a chief executive or senior manager outside Libya		
Yes	07 (09.25)	02 (06.5%)
No	69 (90.8%)	29 (93.6%)

Gender

	Gender					
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
Male	78	97.5	31	100	109	98.2
Female	02	02.5	-	-	002	01.8
Total*	80	100	31	100	111	100

Age

Age						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
(30 and below)	02	02.6	-	-	02	01.9
(31 - 35)	10	13	-	-	10	09.3
(36 - 40)	05	06.5	02	06.5	07	06.5
(41 - 45)	15	19.5	03	09.7	18	16.7
(46 - 50)	07	09.1	10	32.3	17	15.7
(51 - 55)	08	10.4	09	29.0	17	15.7
(56 - 60)	18	23.4	06	19.4	24	22.2
(61 and above)	12	15.6	01	03.2	13	12.0
Total	77	100	31	100	108	100

Qualification

Qualification (Highest degree earned)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
Bachelors	47	63.5	14	45.2	61	58.1
Masters	12	16.2	16	51.6	28	26.7
Doctorate	03	04.1	01	03.2	04	03.8
Other	12	16.2	-	-	12	11.4
Total	74	100	31	100	105	100

Qualification

Qualification (Country of study for this qualification)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
Libya	66	84.6	12	38.7	78	71.6
Middle-East	06	07.7	03	09.7	09	08.3
Europe	03	03.8	11	35.5	14	12.8
USA	02	02.7	05	16.1	07	06.4
Other	01	01.3	-	-	01	00.9
Total	78	100	31	100	109	100

Qualification

Qualification (Field of Study)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
Engineering	-	-	13	43.3	13	13.3
Management	12	17.6	05	16.7	17	17.4
Accountancy	29	42.6	07	23.3	36	36.7
HRM	-	-	02	06.7	02	02.0
Computing	05	07.4	01	03.3	06	06.1
Economics	06	08.8	01	03.3	07	07.1
Finance & Banking	07	10.3	-	-	07	07.1
Other	09	13.2	01	03.3	10	10.2
Total	68	100	30	100	98	100

Experience

Experience (Total experience in managerial work inside and outside the company)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
(5 and below)	02	02.7	-	-	02	01.9
(6 - 10)	12	16.2	03	09.7	15	14.3
(11 - 15)	09	12.2	05	16.1	14	13.3
(16 and above)	51	68.9	23	74.2	74	70.5
Total	74	100	31	100	105	100

Experience

Experience (Years in your current Position)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
(Less than a year)	14	18.9	04	13.8	18	17.5
(1 - 3)	16	21.6	03	10.4	19	18.5
(4 - 6)	08	10.8	05	17.2	13	12.6
(7 - 9)	09	12.2	-	-	09	08.7
(10 and above)	27	36.5	17	58.6	44	42.7
Total	74	100	29	100	103	100

Experience

Experience (Years in your current company)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
(3 and below)	23	32.4	01	03.2	24	23.5
(4 - 6)	11	15.5	01	03.2	12	11.8
(7 - 9)	08	11.3	-	-	08	07.8
(10 and above)	29	40.8	29	93.6	58	56.9
Total	71	100	31	100	102	100

Experience

Experience (worked as a chief executive or senior manager outside Libya)						
Category	**Banking Sector**		**Oil Sector**		**Total**	
	Numbers	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**	**Numbers**	**%**
Yes	07	09.2	02	06.5	09	08.4
No	69	90.8	29	93.6	98	91.6
Total	76	100	31	100	107	100

Management Functions

The basic functions of management. Time (%)		Banking	Oil	Total
Organising	Arithmetic mean (**AM**)	25.36	20.95	23.84
	Standard Deviation (**Ơ**)	12.79	08.92	11.79
	Coefficient of Variation (**CV**)	0.504	0.426	0.495
Planning	Arithmetic mean (**AM**)	19.46	23.97	21.01
	Standard Deviation (**Ơ**)	08.02	09.59	08.86
	Coefficient of Variation (**CV**)	**0.412**	0.400	**0.422**
Leading	Arithmetic mean (**AM**)	31.91	29.31	31.01
	Standard Deviation (**Ơ**)	14.76	10.48	13.49
	Coefficient of Variation (**CV**)	0.463	**0.358**	0.435
Controlling	Arithmetic mean (**AM**)	21.01	19.57	20.57
	Standard Deviation (**Ơ**)	10.77	11.30	10.98
	Coefficient of Variation (**CV**)	0.513	0.577	0.534

Informational Roles: Monitor

Managerial Work Roles (Informational Roles: Monitor)															
Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	*N**	*R**	*S**	*O**	*V**	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
1. I seek and receive information to maintain or improve my understanding of the unit and its environment.	-	04	18	36	19	-	01	08	14	08	-	05	26	50	27
2. I scan the internal and external environments to find out and evaluate the opportunities.	03	03	30	32	06	-	03	12	12	03	03	06	42	44	09
3. I use and develop my own contact in different ways to gather information.	-	05	08	43	20	-	02	07	15	07	-	07	15	58	27
Total	03	12	56	111	45	-	06	27	41	18	03	18	83	152	63
WA	3.806					3.772					3.796				
Ơ	0.859					0.835					0.852				
CV	0.227					0.221					0.225				

* **N**: Not at all = (1); **R**: Rarely = (2); **S**: Some times = (3); **O**: Often = (4) and **V**: Very often = (5).

WA: Weighted Average. **Ơ**: Standard Deviation. **CV**: Coefficient of Variation.

Informational Roles: Disseminator

Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
Managerial Work Roles (Informational Roles: Disseminator)															
4. I share relevant information received from outside/inside with the appropriate internal units or individuals.	01	07	16	31	19	-	-	02	18	11	01	07	18	49	30
5. I brief subordinates / managers on pertinent information.	03	01	12	38	28	-	-	05	15	11	03	01	17	53	39
6. I ensure that subordinates or other managers are updated with information relevant to them.	03	03	10	38	21	-	01	07	14	09	03	04	17	52	30
Total	07	11	38	107	68	-	01	14	47	31	07	12	52	154	99
WA	**3.944**					**4.161**					**4.006**				
Ơ	**0.959**					**0.708**					**0.899**				
CV	**0.243**					**0.170**					**0.224**				

Informational Roles: Spokesman

Managerial Work Roles (Informational Roles: Spokesman)															
Items	**Banking** Number of responses					**Oil** Number of responses					**Total** Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
7. I represent the unit to outside people.	04	07	23	24	19	-	03	08	09	11	04	10	31	33	30
8. I answer inquiries about the unit.	-	01	17	34	24	-	-	10	09	12	-	01	27	43	36
9. I inform and serve people outside the unit about information they look for.	03	02	24	33	15	01	02	09	13	06	04	04	33	46	21
10. I keep other people informed about the organisation's future plans and activities.	07	08	23	29	08	01	06	07	11	06	08	14	30	40	14
Total	14	18	87	120	66	02	11	34	42	35	16	29	121	162	101
WA	**3.675**					**3.782**					**3.706**				
Ơ	**1.023**					**1.005**					**1.019**				
CV	**0.278**					**0.266**					**0.275**				

Decisional Roles: Entrepreneur

Managerial Work Roles (Decisional Roles: Entrepreneur)															
Items	**Banking** Number of responses					**Oil** Number of responses					**Total** Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
11. I search the unit and its environment to determine situations and issues that require organisational change.	09	14	28	19	05	03	06	06	13	03	12	20	34	32	08
12. I implement and control the change in the unit.	05	05	29	32	05	-	06	10	11	04	05	11	39	43	09
13. I design and initiate the needed changes in the unit.	07	04	13	44	09	02	01	04	21	03	09	05	17	65	12
Total	21	23	70	95	19	05	13	20	45	10	26	36	90	140	29
WA	**3.298**					**3.452**					**3.343**				
Ơ	**1.063**					**1.032**					**1.057**				
CV	**0.322**					**0.299**					**0.316**				

Decisional Roles: Disturbance handler

Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
14. I face unexpected problems/crises and work to resolve them.	-	-	17	38	18	01	-	04	12	14	01	-	21	50	32
15. I resolve conflicts among subordinates and put a stop to unacceptable behaviour.	01	04	20	28	25	-	04	03	16	08	01	08	23	44	33
16. I take corrective action to face and cope with unexpected pressure.	03	03	22	38	11	02	01	04	17	07	05	04	26	55	18
Total	04	07	59	104	54	03	05	11	45	29	07	12	70	149	83
WA	3.864					3.989					3.900				
Ơ	0.871					0.967					0.901				
CV	0.225					0.242					0.231				

Managerial Work Roles
(Decisional Roles: Disturbance handler)

Decisional Roles: Resource allocator

Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
17. I develop and distribute budget resources and allocate resources within the unit.	14	05	15	30	13	02	-	07	12	09	16	05	22	42	22
18. I spend time and make decisions about resource allocation for personnel in the unit.	08	05	18	32	10	01	02	02	17	09	09	07	20	49	19
19. I make decisions about time scheduling for upcoming programmes and decide which programmes to provide resources.	08	07	22	29	07	01	-	11	16	03	09	07	33	45	10
20. I manage time and approve various authorizations within the unit.	05	05	18	31	13	01	01	08	15	06	06	06	26	46	19
Total	35	22	73	122	43	05	03	28	60	27	40	25	101	182	70
WA	**3.393**					**3.821**					**3.519**				
Ơ	**1.180**					**0.937**					**1.131**				
CV	**0.348**					**0.245**					**0.321**				

Decisional Roles: Negotiator

Managerial Work Roles (Decisional Roles: Negotiator)															
Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
21. I represent the unit in various discussion or negotiation.	05	04	16	39	12	01	01	07	12	09	06	05	23	51	21
22. I negotiate the matters offered with relevant teams.	10	06	20	29	09	-	05	04	12	09	10	11	24	41	18
23. I resolve problems that arise with others.	01	07	27	29	11	01	03	08	11	08	02	10	35	40	19
24. I discuss and work with two parties within and outside the unit to come to an agreement.	05	07	25	28	11	-	01	06	15	07	05	08	31	43	18
Total	21	24	88	125	43	02	10	25	50	33	23	34	113	175	76
WA	3.485					3.851					3.588				
Ơ	1.055					0.968					1.044				
CV	0.303					0.251					0.291				

Interpersonal Roles: Figurehead

Managerial Work Roles (Interpersonal Roles: Figurehead)															
Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
25. I participate in a variety of symbolic, social and ceremonial activities.	18	16	21	19	02	03	07	14	04	02	21	23	35	23	04
26. I provide recommendations for employees.	04	05	19	35	12	-	01	08	19	03	04	06	27	45	15
Total	21	22	40	54	14	03	08	22	23	05	25	29	62	77	19
WA	3.113					3.312					3.170				
Ơ	1.199					0.967					1.141				
CV	0.385					0.292					0.360				

Interpersonal Roles: Leader

Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	R	S	O	V	N	R	S	O	V	N	R	S	O	V
27. I direct the work of subordinates and motivate them and evaluate the quality of job performance.	02	01	13	34	26	-	01	02	21	07	02	02	15	55	33
28. I allocate employees to specific jobs or tasks and ensure that subordinates are alert to issues that need attention.	12	06	14	32	11	03	01	03	17	06	15	07	17	49	17
29. I encourage team work between subordinates and resolve conflicts among them.	02	08	22	31	11	-	04	05	16	06	02	12	27	47	17
30. I interact with others within the unit to improve and develop activities and duties.	-	-	11	42	23	-	01	04	17	09	-	01	15	59	32
31. I create environmental conditions in which employees will work effectively and maintain supervision over changes in the unit.	01	02	14	39	18	01	-	07	20	03	02	02	21	95	21
Total	17	17	74	178	89	04	07	21	91	31	12	24	95	269	120
WA	3.813					3.896					3.837				
Ơ	0.995					0.862					0.959				
CV	0.261					0.221					0.250				

Interpersonal Roles: Liaison

Items	Banking Number of responses					Oil Number of responses					Total Number of responses				
	N	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*	*N*	*R*	*S*	*O*	*V*
32. I maintain a personal network of contacts outside the unit and develop new contacts.	05	07	21	30	07	03	06	08	11	02	08	15	29	41	09
33. I establish a close bond between the unit and its pertinent people.	01	04	17	38	15	-	02	09	15	05	01	06	26	53	20
34. I develop and establish contacts in different ways.	05	05	22	34	08	01	01	12	12	05	06	06	34	46	13
Total	11	18	60	102	30	04	09	29	38	12	15	27	89	140	42
WA	3.552					3.489					3.534				
Oʹ	0.990					0.984					0.989				
CV	0.279					0.282					0.280				

Table title: Managerial Work Roles (Interpersonal Roles: Liaison)

Work Stress

Category	Banking Sector Low High					Oil Sector Low High					Total Low High				
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
Responses	07	02	19	24	13	01	06	09	08	03	08	08	28	32	16
WA	3.523					3.222					3.435				

Table title: Stress you are facing in your job

The Influences of Societal Environment on Managerial Work

External environment factors	Banking Sector					Oil Sector					Total				
	Low				High	Low				High	Low				High
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
National policies and legislation	05	10	13	24	18	-	02	05	12	11	05	12	18	36	29
	(WA)		(O)		(CV)	(WA)		(O)		(CV)	(WA)		(O)		(CV)
	3.571		1.214		0.340	4.143		0.875		0.211	3.735		1.157		0.310
Family and tribal relationships and personal connections	15	16	17	16	11	10	06	05	06	04	25	22	22	22	15
	2.893		1.342		0.464	2.613		1.430		0.547	2.811		1.374		0.489
Foreign investment policy	12	13	20	18	08	08	06	09	07	-	20	19	29	25	08
	2.958		1.250		0.423	2.500		1.118		0.447	2.823		1.230		0.436
The extent of economic circumstances pressure	06	14	18	25	06	01	06	07	15	02	07	20	25	40	08
	3.159		1.112		0.352	3.855		0.969		0.251	3.220		1.073		0.333
Classes, castes and literacy	09	09	24	17	13	05	05	12	09	-	14	14	36	26	13
	3.222		1.239		0.385	2.807		1.029		0.367	3.097		1.195		0.386
Social customs and traditions	10	12	22	20	09	06	08	05	10	02	16	20	27	30	11
	3.082		1.214		0.394	2.807		1.255		0.447	3.000		1.233		0.411
Education's system and structure	03	10	22	21	14	01	05	08	12	05	04	15	30	33	19
	3.493		1.099		0.315	3.484		1.043		0.299	3.490		1.082		0.310
Beliefs, values and attitudes of society	06	09	27	18	12	05	10	13	02	01	11	19	40	20	13
	3.292		1.136		0.345	2.484		0.946		0.381	3.049		1.144		0.375
Government controls and legal requirement	03	10	11	28	19	04	01	04	13	09	07	11	15	41	28
	3.704		1.131		0.305	3.710		1.275		0.344	3.706		1.177		0.318
The extent of stability of government	11	06	11	19	25	03	02	06	11	08	14	08	17	30	33
	3.569		1.422		0.398	3.633		1.224		0.337	3.588		1.367		0.381
The system and structure of justice	12	-3	16	16	23	05	06	09	07	01	17	09	25	32	24
	3.500		1.422		0.406	2.750		1.122		0.408	3.286		1.385		0.422
Business low	06	09	14	25	18	02	07	06	10	05	08	16	20	35	23
	3.556		1.224		0.344	3.300		1.187		0.360	3.480		1.219		0.350
Government attitudes toward both business and labour	09	09	21	21	12	02	09	07	08	05	11	18	28	29	17
	3.250		1.233		0.379	3.161		1.194		0.378	3.223		1.222		0.379
Social institutions	14	21	23	11	02	10	11	09	-	-	24	32	32	11	02
	2.521		1.060		0.421	1.967		0.795		0.404	2.356		1.020		0.433
Tax levels and regulation	09	18	14	22	09	04	08	08	06	05	13	26	22	28	14
	3.056		1.246		0.408	3.000		1.270		0.423	3.039		1.254		0.413
Relative costs of labour; material; capital …	07	09	30	17	06	02	04	12	10	02	09	13	42	27	08
	3.087		1.060		0.343	3.200		0.980		0.306	3.121		1.037		0.332
Availability of credit	08	05	23	23	11	05	10	08	06	01	13	15	31	29	12
	3.343		1.170		0.350	2.600		1.083		0.417	3.120		1.194		0.383
Status symbols	10	12	27	15	05	11	06	09	04	01	21	18	36	19	06
	2.899		1.118		0.386	2.290		1.169		0.511	2.710		1.169		0.431
Distribution system	09	18	29	08	05	05	10	09	03	02	14	28	38	11	07
	2.739		1.059		0.387	2.552		1.101		0.431	2.684		1.075		0.401
Mass media for communications	06	19	16	21	09	06	13	06	05	01	12	32	22	26	10
	3.113		1.181		0.379	2.419		1.071		0.443	2.902		1.192		0.411

H. Selected Examples of Documents and

Field Study Notes (Observations Notes)

(N.B. These selected examples are: one page from one case study's Annual Report; two pages from the Banking Law No.1 (2005) and one page from the field study notes).

(a)

Executive Management

Acting Assistant General Manager

Acting Administration & Personnel Manager

Acting Systems Manager

Acting Credit Manager

Acting Banking Operations Manager

Acting Inspection Manager

Audit Department

Acting Internal Audit Manager

Acting Risk Manager

Compliance Section Head

Branches & Agencies

Acting Benghazi Main Branch Manager

Acting Tripoli Main Branch Manager

Acting Datelemad Branch Manager

Acting Misurata Main Branch Manager

Acting Azzawia Main Branch Manager

Acting Zletin Main Branch Manager

Acting In Charge Sirte Main Branch

Acting Tobruk Main Branch Manager

Acting Albaida Main Branch Manager

Acting Alberka Agency Head

Acting Alforosia Agency Head

Acting Addawa Alislamia Agency Head

Acting Agency Head

Acting Alhadaiq Child Agency Head

Acting Benina Airport Agency Head

Acting Alwahda Alarabia Agency Head

Acting Alfwaihat Agency Head

Acting Muaad Border Agency Head

Acting Markaz Afrtiqia Agency Head

Acting Funduk Alkabir Agency Head

Acting Gout Ashaal Agency Head

Acting Burj Alfateh Agency Head

Acting Tripoli Airport Agency Head

Acting Gargarish Agency Head

Acting Adjedabia Agency Head

Acting Zwara Agency Head

(b)₁

Article 69

I. The governor of the Central Bank of Libya must be notified of nominees for membership on the board of directors and for the position of general manager of any bank and must be given all information on such nominees at least one week before the meeting scheduled for making the appointment decision. The governor may object to a nomination within one month of the date of receiving notification of the nominees.

II. Any person appointed to serve as member of the board of directors or general manager in any commercial bank must convey to the governor, within one month of his appointment, a statement of the stocks and shares that he owns in commercial companies. If any change occurs in the information on this statement, said person must inform the governor of the change within one month of the occurrence of the change.

Article 70

I. A person's membership on the board of directors shall be dropped in any of the following cases:
1. The person is appointed the general manager of the bank.
2. The person no longer fulfills a condition for membership stipulated in Article 68 (III) and (IV) of this law.
3. The person dies or is unable to discharge the functions of his position for any reason for more than four consecutive months.
4. The person is absent from three consecutive board meetings or five non-consecutive board meetings during a single fiscal year.
5. The person resigns.

II. Without prejudice to the provisions in Article 69 (I), if the position of one of the members of the board becomes vacant for any reason stipulated in the previous paragraph, the bank's board of directors shall assign a person to fill the position until the general assembly meets and decides to approve that person or appoint an alternate to serve out the remaining tenure of the board.

Article 71

1. Commercial banks shall be subject to the supervision and control of the Central Bank of Libya. The Central Bank of Libya shall be responsible

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Article 72

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Article 73

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Article 74

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for regulating its relations with the commercial banks, coordinating their actions, and monitoring their activity in the framework of the government's general policy.

2. Without prejudice to the provisions of Articles 69 (1) and 78 (4) of this law, the decisions of the boards of directors of the commercial banks on long-term investments and the opening or closing of branches must be conveyed to the Central Bank of Libya within ten days of the date on which the decisions are issued. The implementation of these decisions shall be contingent on the Central Bank of Libya's approval thereof.

Article 72

1. The national sector may acquire shares of the capital of state-owned banks. The general assembly of such banks shall be composed of the shareholders. Each [shareholder shall have voting rights] according to the percentage of his share of the bank's capital.

2. The financial treatment of employees in each commercial bank shall be determined by decision of the bank's board of directors.

Section 2 – Duties of the Banks

Article 73

Each bank must retain a capital reserve. Before distributing profits, it must transfer to this reserve no less than 25 percent of is net profits until the reserve totals one-half of its paid capital. It must then transfer to the reserve 10 percent of net profits until the reserve equals capital.

Article 74

Any bank whose head office is abroad must appoint, with the approval of the Central Bank of Libya, a resident director for its branch(s) in Libya pursuant to an official document that: authorizes the director to receive judicial notices, requests, announcements, and other documents entailed by the nature of the bank's activity; and makes the director fully responsible before Libyan public agencies. An official copy of this document shall be lodged with the Central Bank of Libya.

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﷽ تقنية اتصالات . مباراة أمنية . تاريخ و رسم ▬▬▬▬

ـ اتصالاته هاتفي ← ٧ ٧ ٧ ٧ ٧

← دخول الفريقين سلفية و الملاحم ٧ ٧ ٧

ـ مراجعات من الرئيسيين ٧ ٧ ٧ ٧

ـ البريد الوارد : كمية كبيرة : منشورات سياسية وغيرها + مراسلات مع
البريد + أخبار الفروع .

ـ يجب الإشراف على قراءتها لتفريغ من الملاحم

← شروط سد الكتب (توزيع ما قابلة) للجهة وكذلك

ـ الاطلاع من خارج ـ من الوزارات وغيرها : تعليم مباشرة / أمور أخرى عمليّة وغيرها

ـ دخول صريح مشترك من الخارج وغيرها الأمنية الأجنبية

﴾ اتصالاته هاتفي : تبادل معلومات عن مشاريع معينة بالعمل ، هناك سرب من في أوراقهم
مراسلتهم المتبادلة مباشرة بالإدارة و غيره . تجميع أكثر و زيادات ناكد بأمورهم .
(معلومات غير مكاملة) ، ٣-٥ دفاتر . اتصالات شخصية .
اتصال من هاتفي لحلب + الملف لبعضهم لبعضهم

﴾ المراسلات و الأوراق الواردة إذا كانت من توزيع توزيع الأمري بالتكبير علماً بأنّ
أوقاتهم خارجية : المباني (يتجمعون الأرامل كبير) + الإدارة ذات صفة (بعضها من أماكنهم)
باسماء طارئة ؟ وجود ؟ + بعضها من طارئ (بيت بعمان)
أحد الموثوقين ؟ من ؟

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