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What influences women's participation in the private sector workforce in Oman?

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Keywords:	Work-life Balance, Organisational Support, Women, Private Sector, Oman, Female labour force participation

What influences women's participation in the private sector workforce in Oman?

Abstract

Purpose

Women's employment has been a contentious issue in the Arab world. However, in today's changing work conditions, workplaces, and the growth in education, women have increasingly occupied higher-level roles, and their presence in diverse industries has expanded. The study takes a holistic approach to female labour force participation (FLFP) in Oman, encompassing various theories and factors influencing women's engagement in private sector jobs.

Design/methodology/approach

The research employed an exploratory design followed by a qualitative analysis based on a constructivist grounded theory approach. The study involved 170 semi-structured face-to-face interviews with women workers in Oman's private sector. It explored work-family conflict (WFC), work-life balance (WLB), organizational and family support, and societal bias impacting female labour force participation.

Findings

The low FLFP in Oman's private sector is a complex issue shaped by various interconnected challenges. Our qualitative analysis synthesizes a conceptual framework that highlights work-family conflict (WFC) and work-life balance (WLB) as pivotal factors behind low FLFP, as women in the private sector face long work hours, low salaries, and high responsibilities. Our study confirms that these women receive substantial familial support in dealing with WFC but lack organizational support and family-friendly policies (FFPs).

Practical implications

Addressing the low participation of women in Oman's private sector labour force necessitates comprehensive strategies encompassing legislative measures, cultural shifts, and organizational reforms. Implementing these strategies creates an environment where women feel empowered to participate and actively thrive in the private sector workforce.

Social implications

This study indicates the presence of some serious social issues, such as society's bias, lack of support for working women, and the gender gap in the private sector workforce, which has broad implications and significance for Oman. The study indicates the positive role of support women receive from their families, organizations, and Oman labour law and what could improve their participation further.

Originality/value

This study addresses the limited research on challenges encountered by women in Oman's private-sector workforce. Our research addresses this gap by answering key questions, collecting and interpreting data, and developing a comprehensive conceptual framework. This framework aims to elucidate the factors contributing to women's reluctance to pursue private-sector employment, considering the diverse issues they confront.

Keywords: Work-life Balance, Family Support, Organisational Support, Women, Private Sector, Female Labour Force Participation, Oman.

Introduction

The long-prevailing discrimination against women in education and work has significantly decreased in Middle Eastern countries, particularly the Arabian Gulf, due to increased research, policy debates, and feminist activism (Moghadam, 2008; Randeree, 2012; Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015). Oman, a prominent member of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), borders Dubai, a famous tourist destination. Despite many women working in Omani government roles, fewer prefer private-sector jobs. Oman's employment statistics show a male-dominated private-sector workforce (Statistical Yearbook, 2017). Some women find private-sector work more challenging than government jobs, and certain companies exhibit gender bias, favouring men in specific roles (Belwal and Belwal, 2017).

A study shows that 76% of Omani job-seeking youth prefer government jobs over private-sector roles, even with private jobs offering 50% higher salaries (Prins, 2016). Differences in work hours, pay, retirement benefits, incentives, career advancement, job security, and societal respect drive women to government positions (Belwal and Belwal, 2017). Prins (2016) notes that only 39% of female students are willing to join the private sector, compared to 69% of male students.

Previous studies have highlighted reasons like discrimination, long working hours, and stress that deter women from private-sector jobs. Some have focused on work-family conflict (WFC) and work-life balance (WLB) issues affecting women negatively (Belwal and Belwal, 2014; Belwal and Belwal, 2017; Hallward and Bekdash-Muellers, 2019). However, research on women's issues in private-sector jobs, especially in the Islamic Arab world, remains limited (Hong et al., 2021; Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023).

The primary objective of this research is to investigate the factors hindering women's participation in the private sector workforce in Oman. Specifically, the study aims to address the following research questions:

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RQ 1: What factors contribute to women's lower inclination towards private sector employment?

RQ 2: What are women's key challenges in achieving work-life balance within private sector organizations?

RQ 3: To what extent do women experience cooperation and support from their families and organizations?

RQ 4: To what degree does societal and organizational bias affect women's participation in the labour force?

RQ 5: What factors drive working women to exit their jobs?

RQ 6: How can the entirety of this process be conceptualized?

This research draws on theories related to work-family conflict, work-life balance, government, organizational and family support, and turnover intention. Powell (2019) argues that work-life theories have lagged behind the rapid growth of work-life research and global trends. Given these complexities, no single theory can fully explain the work-life dynamics of employees influenced by varied family structures, sociocultural contexts, individual job attitudes (protean or traditional careers) and job nature (Powell, 2019). Thus, it is crucial to examine women's participation in private-sector jobs from multiple theoretical perspectives within the Arab world.

Our study combines multiple theories and grounded research to explore the significant issue of women's underrepresentation in the private sector workforce in Oman. We focus on the role theory, conservation of resources theory, job-demands-resources theory, social identity theory, self-categorization theory, cultural dimension theory, and social exchange theory detailed in the literature review. Historically, WLB research has relied on role theory, which

links WLB issues to conflicting roles (Kahn et al., 1964). Later research highlights the negative spillovers of work-family interference on behavioural and psychological involvement (Carlson & Frone, 2003).

The other key theories shaping WLB research include the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the job demands-resources theory (Demerouti et al., 2001), and the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). According to Powell (2019, p. 57), "Although these theoretical frameworks have served us well, new theory is essential to understand the connections between work and other parts of life in contemporary society." Additionally, intersectionality is crucial for exploring the overlapping and conflicting dynamics of different theories and inequalities (Cho et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2021), as well as the interaction of multiple oppressions affecting access to opportunities and lived experiences (MacKinnon, 2013; Hong et al., 2021).

Literature review

Women's labour force participation is shaped by diverse circumstances, necessitating a nuanced exploration of relevant theories and their interconnections to develop a comprehensive framework. Role theory posits that individuals facing conflicting roles compete for limited resources like time, energy, and attention (Goode, 1960; Michel et al., 2011). Thus, when women juggle multiple roles at home and work, inter-role conflicts arise, such as work-to-family or family-to-work conflicts, unless they receive support from their families or organizations (Pedersen & Kilzer, 2014).

Work-family conflicts (WFC) and the challenges in achieving work-life balance (WLB) significantly impact women's employment choices, caregiving responsibilities, and overall workforce participation (Gatrell et al., 2013). Women require access to crucial resources to manage their professional and personal lives. As per the Conservation of Resources (COR)

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theory, these resources include 'anything perceived by the individual as contributing to achieving their goals' (Halbesleben et al., 2014, p. 1338).

COR theory suggests that women need resources from work and personal environments to manage conflicting demands effectively (Fan et al., 2021). Family and workplace support are essential, particularly considering the ever-changing nature of job demands. This discussion underscores the Job-Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory, which explains how the interplay between job demands and resources influences job continuity or turnover. Insufficient investment in resources often results in suboptimal working conditions experienced by women in the private sector (Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015). Research consistently underscores the pivotal role of job resources in shaping participation and fostering organizational commitment. In contrast, excessive job demands, if not effectively managed, can negatively impact well-being and job retention (Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola, 2008).

Furthermore, individuals often prioritize specific roles amid conflicting responsibilities, influenced by societal expectations and personal identity. According to social identity theory (SIT), individuals prioritize role obligations based on their preferences, emphasizing that the more central and salient an identity is, the more likely individuals are to engage in associated behaviours (Pedersen and Kilzer, 2014). This perception is rooted in self-categorization theory (SCT), which suggests that as individuals identify more strongly with a prominent group, their self-definition shifts from personal attributes to group characteristics, leading to greater assimilation with the group's prototype (Hornsey, 2006).

Thus, working women cannot completely disengage from their work roles due to work-to-home conflicts (Matsui et al., 1995). Balancing employment demands often results in work-life balance (WLB) issues, requiring cognitive acrobatics to manage conflicting roles, sometimes extending work into home life (Johnston and Swanson, 2007; Toffoletti and Starr, 2016). This intricate blend of diverse theories underscores that women's job participation is influenced by various factors, from specific challenges to broader cultural environments. Specifically, the Arab world, unlike the West, emphasizes collectivism, ingroup obligations, uncertainty avoidance, relatedness, and group affiliation (Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002; Obeidat et al., 2012).

In addition to formal support measures, organizations frequently provide informal support to employees (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). This reciprocal exchange aligns with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Yu, 2019), indicating that employees who receive specific benefits are likely to demonstrate positive work attitudes and behaviours, enhancing job satisfaction and reducing turnover intention (Yu, 2019). The dynamics of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions establish mutual expectations between what organizations offer and how employees respond (Ahmad, 2018).

The work-life balance (WLB) situation disproportionately affects women compared to men, as they often navigate dual responsibilities between work and family life (Ching, 2018; Kuzhabekova et al., 2018). Quality of Work Life (QWL) arrangements facilitate a harmonious balance between paid work and personal life (Daverth, Cassell & Hyde, 2016). Modern workplaces benefit from both informal family-friendly cultures and formal Family-Friendly Policies (FFPs), fostering a supportive work environment (Feeney & Stritch, 2019; Yu, 2019). Women's decision to leave jobs due to work-related issues (Blair-Loy, 2003) can potentially be mitigated through effective WLB support (McCarthy et al., 2010; Gravador & Teng-Calleja, 2018; Lee & Hong, 2011).

FLFP is also influenced by family responsibilities and gender biases rooted in societal norms and cultural influences (Coronel et al., 2010; Metz, 2011; Chung, 2018). Gender roles in GCC societies are deeply entrenched, contributing to workplace prejudices against women (Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015). Organizations face pressure to move away from traditional gender biases and adopt new paradigms like "gendered organization" (Martin and Collinson, 2002) amidst societal and governmental expectations (Adame, Caplliure & Miquel, 2016). Women's motivation to retain jobs is also shaped by the desire for achievement, driven by monetary incentives or symbols of success (Dousin et al., 2021). However, their career aspirations often conflict with their need for affiliation, such as dedicating time to family and friends (Eccles, 1987). Women's motivation also leads to exercising control over stress, schedules, and responsibilities. This drive needs resilience, i.e., an ability to withstand and rebound from crisis and adversity, as explained by the "resilience framework" (Walsh, 1996; Marques and Berry, 2021).

Female Labour Force Participation in the GCC

Women's participation in the Middle Eastern labour markets (MENA) is lower compared to other regions (Yount et al., 2015; Sidani and Al-Ariss, 2013). The level of women's agency, or the ability to make purposeful choices, varies across Muslim countries (Samman and Santos, 2009). Women in these regions face cultural challenges, including family responsibilities, guardianship, and wasta (influence or personal recommendation) (Alfarran, Pyke & Stanton, 2018). Their limited workforce involvement is linked to economic-legal factors, acceptance of discriminatory conditions, and attitudes towards gender roles (Alfarran, Pyke & Stanton, 2018; Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023). Consequently, female participation in the private sector is lower in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region compared to global averages, with Oman showing even lower rates than other GCC countries (Young, 2016; Murray and Zhang-Zhang, 2018; González, 2018; Mansour et al., 2022). The UAE is an

exception, where more female nationals work in the private sector than males (Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023).

According to the Global Gender Gap Report (GGGR, 2023), the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region ranks lowest in gender parity, with a score of just 62.6% (World Economic Forum, 2023). This reflects a 0.9 percentage point decline since 2006, with Morocco, Oman, and Algeria having the lowest parity in the region. Oman is ranked 113th out of 146 countries for educational attainment. Additionally, Oman lags behind other GCC countries in economic participation, ranking 135th, compared to the UAE at 128th, Kuwait at 118th, Bahrain at 122nd, Qatar at 132nd, and Saudi Arabia at 130th (World Economic Forum, 2023). Oman's labour market nationalization measures have recently facilitated Omani women's entry into the private sector. Omani women comprised 41% of the public sector workforce and 24% of the private sector in 2015 (Buttorff et al., 2018). By 2018, these figures rose to 42% in the public sector and 26% in the private sector, and by 2022, they were 42% and 31%, respectively (<https://data.gov.om/>). Government-funded university education has significantly encouraged females to pursue higher education and employment (Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015; Mansour, 2018). Understanding native employees and their challenges is essential to developing effective policies (Elbanna, 2022; Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023).

Despite their superior human capital, Arab women in the private sector face poor work conditions, challenging norms, lower salaries, limited management roles, fewer promotions, longer hours, no overtime payment, and a lack of family care responsibilities, role models, mentors, and networking opportunities (Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015; Al-Asfour et al., 2017; González, 2018; Murray and Zhang-Zhang, 2018). Belwal and Belwal (2017) categorize challenges into biological factors, workplace attitudes, post-marital challenges, sociocultural barriers, job characteristics, organizational readiness, governance, employer biases, and work-life balance (WLB) issues. Additional challenges include a lack of financial support,

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knowledge management, technical support, and training opportunities (Mansour et al., 2022). Whilst WFC negatively impacts employees' satisfaction and job life, WLB and family support have positive effects (Lari, 2021; Tahir et al., 2022; Belwal et al., 2023). Consequently, women demand flexible hours, workplace privacy, and benefits similar to those in the government sector (Belwal et al., 2019).

Multiple factors influence female participation in the labour force, necessitating a comprehensive conceptual understanding from situational and theoretical perspectives in the GCC. Hong et al. (2021) aim to construct a conceptual model of WLB based on Qatari adults' perspectives, differing from those in WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) countries. Their research, limited to Qatar's public sector adults, calls for more conceptually oriented studies to explore boundary conditions and their impact on WLB, recognizing it as a relational construct shaped by context. Rutledge and Kaabi (2023) examine female nationals' continuance intentions in the UAE's private sector, noting that job nature, pay, benefits, and career opportunities enhance participation, while negative social sentiments reduce it. They recommend similar studies in other GCC countries. Developing a theoretical framework incorporating Role Theory, Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, Social Identity Theory (SIT), Cultural Dimension Theory, and Social Exchange Theory would provide insights into these complexities. Given the limited participation of women in Oman's private sector and the scarcity of studies, a systematic exploration of our research questions within the broader Arab context will offer valuable contributions.

Methodology

We employed an exploratory research design to address our research questions (Creswell, 2013). Using the constructivist grounded theory approach, we explored the research objects based on the meanings people assign to them (Glaser and Strauss, 2009; Strauss and Corbin, 1994). Grounded theory progresses from descriptive reflection to higher-level

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3 abstractions through theoretical categories that build explanatory models of experience (Wertz,
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5 2011). The research drew samples, using quota sampling followed by snowballing, from
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7 private organizations across Oman, targeting organizations operating over three years with over
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9 100 employees. According to the Oman Statistical Yearbook (2017), 38,000 Omani women
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11 work in the private sector. An online calculator determined a sample size of 170 with a 10%
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13 confidence interval and a 99% confidence limit. Interview quotas for each region were based
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15 on the distribution of working women across various governorates, as shown in Table 1. The
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17 theoretical saturation criterion was applied to ensure a representative sample (Mack et al.,
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19 2005).
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28 Employees were approached at their organizations after proper approval. Each
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30 respondent participated in a 30-minute interactive session with well-trained Omani women
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32 research investigators. These investigators conducted one-on-one private conversations,
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34 gaining employees' trust and recording subjective responses, maintaining objectivity (Crabtree
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36 & Miller, 1999). A semi-structured interview schedule (see Appendix 1) was designed in
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38 Arabic and English to examine the key research questions (Bearman, 2019). Although no
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40 specific sequence was followed to probe the research questions, RQ1, RQ4, and RQ5 were
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42 explored using a range of questions presented under Point 1 of the interview schedule.
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44 Similarly, RQ2 was addressed using Point 2, RQ3 with Point 3 and Point 4, and RQ6 was
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46 examined through all points in the schedule. Responses were voice-recorded, translated, and
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53 "Personal narrative methods which form a silent frame on the material" are used in the
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55 constructivist grounded theory approach (Wertz, 2011; p. 292). Accordingly, we used
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57 categorizing and contextualizing strategies to analyze the personal narratives from the
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perspective of both content and form, concentrating not only on what was told but also on how it was told (Maxwell, 1996). Atlas-ti 8 software was used for qualitative data analysis (QDA), using processes such as searching, marking, coding, linking, organizing data, and storing reflections and ideas (Weitzman, 2000). The transcripts of responses, i.e., the primary documents (PDs), were coded and analyzed after adding them to a project (a hermeneutic unit in Atlas-ti). The codes were assigned conceptual labels (e.g., WLB, organizational support, reasons to quit) and were synthesized into thematic groups to present the findings. To deter biases and skewed logic, validity checks (cross-questioning), triangulation, and feedback were used to counterbalance the flaws inherent in a single method (Maxwell, 1996; Yin, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Analysis and findings

Profile of Sample Respondents

A total of 157 women from various Omani governorates participated in the study: 11 were under 25, 79 were aged 25-30, 62 were aged 31-40, and 4 were over 40. Job-wise, 110 worked indoors, two outdoors, and 31 both indoors and outdoors (Table 2). Sixty-five percent were in the manufacturing sector, and 35% were in services. Salary-wise, 70 women earned below 500 OMR, 48 earned between 500-1000 OMR, and 29 earned above 1000 OMR. Education-wise, 1 had less than a high school education, 21 completed high school, 46 secondary school, 24 had diplomas, 12 had advanced/higher diplomas, 45 had bachelor's degrees, and 8 had master's degrees. Anonymous profiles of the respondents (coded from D1 to D157) are available in the Appendix 2. The mean work experience was 7.20 years, with a median and mode of six years. Experience distribution was positively skewed, with 25% having less than four years and more than nine years of experience.

<Take in Table 2>

Factors contributing to women's lower inclination towards private-sector employment

Women cite several reasons for their lower inclination towards private sector employment, including extended working hours, low salaries, high responsibilities, limited employee rights, inconvenient shift work, and inflexible schedules. Sixty-one percent of women work more than 8 hours daily, with 39% working 9 hours. "Women in the government sector are at home by 2 pm and look after their family, while those in the private sector work for 9 hours" (D2). Consequently, private-sector women cannot give time to their families and remain annoyed (D4). In the government sector, "working hours are less than 8, work is routine, rules and policies are simple and clear, and more excuses (for absence) are granted without any salary cut" (D63). Women complain of lower pay in the private sector (D56, D60, D112), for example, 600 OMR per month for nine work hours in the private sector versus 900 OMR per month for 6 hours in the government (D113). Nearly 45% of women earn less than 500 OMR monthly, while just over 18% earn more than 1000 OMR per month. Work-related challenges such as overtime, feeling distanced from family activities, and missing family events due to inconvenient work schedules are reported by 38%, 63%, and 73% of women, respectively. About 18% of women express discomfort working with men, and almost 50% feel unsafe working on holidays or late hours (D99, D105, D131, D106).

Job uncertainty in the private sector, stemming from layoffs or bankruptcy, is a concern for about 33% of women. They perceive government-sector jobs as more convenient, flexible, secure, respectable, and less pressurized (D95, D104, D123). "Authorization for vacations and leaves are very difficult in private, and any missing hour is adjusted in the salary..." (D55). In contrast, the government sector is seen as providing more resources and benefits, including training courses, promotions, bonuses, better pensions, and incentives (D52, D92).

Only 16% of women prefer the private sector due to perceived opportunities for creativity (D8), skill development (D133), incentives (D116), and a perception of occasional, not permanent,

work pressure (D107). Here, women's intrinsic needs for affiliation and achievement significantly influence their decision to join the private sector workforce and define the roles they wish to assume. Women in the private sector highlight significant gains in confidence, experience, knowledge, skills, and interpersonal dealings. Conversely, they also acknowledge notable losses, including limited time for spouses, children, and parents and a considerable reduction in comfort, engagement in hobbies, quality of sleep, and mental peace (Figures 1 and 2).

<Take in Figure 1>

<Take in Figure 2>

Women's key challenges in achieving work-life balance within private sector organizations

Our analysis reveals that women face significant challenges in achieving work-life balance within private sector organizations at home and work. These challenges are presented below:

Challenges faced at home

The majority of women, excluding those who are single, attribute work-related challenges to their heightened stress levels at home. Approximately 76% return home too exhausted from work to engage in family activities, 55% feel emotionally drained, and 78% experience stress due to work pressure. Married women, in particular, struggle to find time for their children and often harbour feelings of guilt for not providing them with sufficient attention. One participant expressed, "I return home tired and exhausted, and I have to look after the kids" (D139). Another shared, "I feel that I am not doing right for my children, and sometimes I want to cry as I don't stay with them for long" (D6). The demanding routine of nine hours of work,

extensive commuting, and additional responsibilities such as caring for ageing parents (D63, D102) contribute to chaos at home and add further stress (D3, D61).

Stress at home affects 30% of women at work, with 40% struggling to concentrate and 43% experiencing weakened job performance due to tension and anxiety. Women face increased stress when a family member is unwell, needs special care, or has additional social obligations like family visits, significant life events, ceremonies, and part-time studies (D46, D87, D67, D68, D69, D70). One participant shared, "If any of them [family members] are admitted to the hospital, visiting time ends before I reach home" (D70). The responsibility of raising children and attending to their needs and studies adds another layer of pressure (D94, D108). Some women (3%, 2%, and 5%, respectively) face unique challenges, such as having a husband working abroad, living far from their workplace, or dealing with a runaway domestic worker (D117, D119, and D155). Conversely, some women (4%) hesitate to leave their children with domestic workers or relatives, managing tight schedules themselves (D128, D132, D143, D147, D154). On the other hand, 12% of women are less susceptible to work-family conflict (WFC) issues and associated stress. These women are typically unmarried or childless, well-prepared, adept at managing issues systematically, or receive support from family members or domestic help.

While some findings align with other researchers (e.g., Ching, 2018; Kuzhabekova et al., 2018), women in the Arab world face more pronounced challenges than men, primarily due to larger families (5 to 6 children) and a patriarchal society that expects women to manage domestic responsibilities. Consequently, social identity theory, cultural dimension theory, role theory, and social exchange theory (regarding help from family or domestic help) collectively shape women's work-life balance in the Arab world.

Challenges faced at work

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Most women strongly express significant work challenges, including long working hours (61%), shift work (3.9%), inflexible timings (24%), high workload pressure (74.8%), and tight deadlines (73.9%) (D52, D60, D62, D56, D85). These adversities often lead to working late at the office or continuing work at home. Additionally, women face issues such as a lack of clarity about their roles and responsibilities, job insecurity, and irregularities in receiving monthly salaries (D64, D107).

The toll of working late manifests in health-related issues such as back pain, insufficient time for rest, mental and psychological pressure, negative thoughts, and other ailments. Bringing work home affects nearly 20% of women workers. Our analysis identified six primary factors influencing this practice: restrictions, conviction, family concerns, occasions, preferences, and routine. Restrictions refer to company policies prohibiting it (D40, D102, D111, D143). Conviction shows a firm decision against it (D67, D95, D97, D98, D122, D151, D66, D60). Family concerns highlight conditions that prevent it (D89, D96, D123, D149, D154). Occasions mean it's done only for emergencies (D85, D107, D108, D126, D145, D148). Preferences indicate a choice (D1, D2, D51, D81, D147), and routine implies a habit of carrying work home (D3, D88, D106, D120, D124, D127, D128, D146).

The absence of cooperation, support, and empathy from managers and a lack of understanding from peers contribute to growing discontent at work. This dissatisfaction intensifies when employees cannot take annual leave or holidays due to work pressure and job demands (D71, D58, D78). Some women become frustrated, attributing their irritation to a lack of workplace motivation, appreciation, and opportunities for promotion (D52, D126), unfair treatment, gender stereotypes, pressure tactics (such as compulsory biometric attendance), and salary conditions (D41, D46, D60, D71, D78, D114, D119, D121, D123, D131).

Only 16% of women maintain a positive outlook while navigating work challenges. This group includes those who have adapted to their work routine (D5), work for only six hours (D11), have a clear understanding of the nature of their work and expectations (D12, D17), effectively manage their workload (D31), can handle pressure and overstretch (D70, D100), and make efforts to complete tasks ahead of schedule (D109). These findings underscore that work-life balance challenges, particularly the interplay of job demands and job resources, significantly impact women's physical and psychological well-being. This minority of women effectively coping with these challenges aligns with the motivation and resilience framework proposed by Marques and Berry (2021).

Cooperation and support from their families and organizations

Family support

Most employed women acknowledge receiving diverse forms of support from their parents, spouses, and relatives, including babysitting, tutoring their children, preparing evening meals, providing transportation, offering morale-boosting and consolation, expressing appreciation for their work, providing educational support, and occasionally offering advice on problem-solving (D1, D2, D6, D128, and D137). One participant shares, "I derive my strength from my family, especially my parents and husband. My husband always accompanies me on long-distance travels" (D115).

However, 17% of women choose not to share workplace issues with family members and prefer handling difficulties independently (D7, D63). Some face resistance from their families regarding employment in the private sector (D20). Narratives reveal apprehension, with one participant expressing, "If I complain to my mom, she asks me to quit..." (D78). Additionally, 15% of women encounter family resistance due to work-family conflict (WFC) (D3), while 33% gain support due to earnings. One participant explains, "Initially, my family

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did not support my job, but now they cooperate" (D29, D147). Another participant notes, "They are helpful but not very adaptable; somehow, they accept it because of financial needs" (D143).

The receipt of family support by women is deeply rooted in cultural aspects, reflecting collectivism, relatedness, and group belonging (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Obeidat et al., 2012). In contrast, the resistance they encounter can be attributed to sociocultural factors, particularly gender biases and the predefined roles that families and society expect women to fulfil.

Organizational Support

Based on thematic analysis, we explored organizational support from two angles: (i) culturally, examining whether employees communicated WLB issues to their employers formally or informally, and (ii) structurally, assessing employees' perception of formal support through organizational policies and procedures.

More than two-thirds of women admit to discussing their concerns with their line managers, typically focusing on personal circumstances, leave requests, tardiness, early departures, or addressing emergencies. Rather than using emails, women often prefer informal face-to-face conversations, text messages, or phone calls. These discussions primarily revolve around work-related challenges rather than personal issues at home.

Most women (66%) acknowledge their managers' cooperation and understanding regarding their circumstances, such as childcare responsibilities, poor health conditions, or unexpected sickness (D82, D30, D92, D153). Some (15%) find Omani managers more adept at addressing their issues due to language and cultural familiarity, while a larger group (70%) perceives expatriate managers as more approachable and flexible. A small fraction (8%) feel managers listen but offer no solutions (D82, D99, D127, D131), and a few express dissatisfaction with non-cooperation and disrespect (D62, D69).

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3 A majority of women (63%) reported receiving informal support, including
4 appreciation, honouring ceremonies, financial rewards, cooperation, respect from superiors,
5 colleagues, and administrators, empathy, unofficial leaves, and work excuses. Twenty-five
6 percent of these women appreciated managers who considered their health conditions, sought
7 their opinions, allowed autonomy in decision-making, and fostered a family-like atmosphere
8 and friendly environment.
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18 Twenty-five percent of the surveyed women felt that current policies supporting them
19 and their families are inadequate. The majority (75%) were unaware of Family Friendly
20 Policies (FFPs) but recognized organizational support through workshops, education and
21 training courses, study leaves, women's day celebrations and gifts, and annual bonuses. In some
22 organizations, women received extensive support, including medical insurance, 59-60 days of
23 maternity leave, breastfeeding breaks for a year (allowing early departure), 14 days of leave
24 for accompanying a sick family member, and amenities like a library, canteen, and women's
25 lounges.
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37 Whether formally or informally provided, this support is consistent with the principles
38 of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Yu, 2019), which posit that employees who receive
39 specific benefits are likely to demonstrate positive work attitudes and lower turnover intention.
40 Additionally, it connects WLB issues and their solutions to the principles of role theory,
41 Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, and the Job Demands-Resources theory.
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52 *Societal and Organizational bias affecting women's participation*

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55 Local societal factors significantly influence women in the private sector.
56 Approximately 23% of respondents perceive societal disapproval of women working in this
57 sector (D14, D32, D33, D39, D48, D52, D114). Some segments also express disapproval of
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women working alongside men (D39, D69, D76, D77). Additionally, parental or spousal restrictions prevent women from pursuing careers in the private sector (D71, D87). One participant highlighted, "A potential suitor would not accept my working late until 5:30 pm" (D69). Others recounted instances where friends' husbands forbade them from private sector jobs due to societal pressures (D87).

Urban families generally display more tolerance towards women working in the private sector. Some participants argue that the issue lies more with women themselves than with society (D106, D113, D120, D122). These women suggest that societal attitudes have evolved, becoming increasingly accepting of working women. They highlight regional differences, noting varying attitudes between places like Salalah and Muscat. For instance, according to one participant, Salalah tends to be less accepting of workplace mixing compared to Muscat's more open society (D109). Despite ongoing challenges, perceptions are shifting. As one respondent noted, "Five years ago, society viewed it negatively, but now they accept it due to limited job opportunities in the government sector" (D132).

These findings support the notion that gender roles are highly differentiated in society, and prejudices against women in the workplace are deeply ingrained in culture and tradition (Coronel et al., 2010; Metz, 2011; Chung, 2018; Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki, 2015; Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023).

Employers' preferences for female workers vary, with some private organizations showing bias. While 70% of women did not comment on this issue, eight respondents strongly felt organizations tend to favour males in hiring practices (D2, D3, D67, D72, D100, D101, D118, D148). On the other hand, five respondents perceived women as committed, responsible, and high performers (D56, D66, D98, D104, D142). A small minority (2%) rejected gender biases, emphasizing that selections are based on factors like ability, experience, and job

requirements (D4). Some suggested preferences for male employees stem from perceived capabilities in handling fieldwork and safety concerns (D66, D80, D102, D109, D115, D144, D154).

Interestingly, in specific workplaces like nursing, teaching, banking, and fish processing and packaging, women noted that employers prefer to hire unmarried women. This preference stems from the perception that unmarried women have fewer responsibilities, are more active, and make fewer excuses compared to their married counterparts (D123, D137, D142, D104, D156, D122).

Factors driving working women to quit their jobs

Most women (76.4%) cited WFC as the main cause of WLB challenges. Factors like marriage-related changes such as relocation, childbirth, and nursing needs often lead to job resignations. These transitions involve moving to new locations and are compounded by challenges related to childcare, caregiving, and inadequate employer support for women in post-childbirth circumstances, worsening WLB issues.

Women face multifaceted Work-Life Balance (WLB) challenges, spanning work, home, and personal circumstances, which significantly stress many, prompting thoughts of resignation. Work-related issues include initial job instability, inadequate employer support, long hours, job dissatisfaction, lack of recognition, insecurity, and limited career growth. Home challenges involve managing household duties, caring for family, addressing domestic worker concerns, and handling personal health and stress. Circumstantial factors encompass life events such as marriage, maternity leave, educational pursuits, commuting difficulties, and general frustration.

Statistically, only 31% of women express genuine job satisfaction, whereas 45% indicate overall contentment. Only a minority are completely happy with their jobs, affirming,

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"Alhamdulillah [Thank God], I like my job, and I am comfortable with my job" (D7, D8, D10, D13). Some employ coping strategies like hiring domestic help (D5), taking necessary leaves (D60), seeking family assistance (D104), or adjusting to challenging circumstances (D109). These findings align with Powell's (2019) research, highlighting the context-specific nature of WLB issues influenced by various factors.

How it connects altogether: The derived Conceptual Framework

The insights into WLB challenges and factors influencing women's labour force participation can be linked through Figure 3's conceptual framework. It is evident that WFC, individual traits and situations, work environments, and sociocultural contexts jointly contribute to WLB challenges. The interplay of organizational and legal support, together with women's assessment of associated financial and non-financial benefits, shape their WLB perceptions and influence their decisions about joining the labour force.<Take in Figure 3>

Discussion

Women in various countries face unique circumstances that require tailored strategies to manage work-life balance (WLB) challenges (Bagger & Li, 2011; Chandra, 2012; Bae & Yang, 2017). In Oman, where women's job opportunities are predominantly in urban areas, they often face lengthy waiting periods averaging 4.5 years before securing their first job post-graduation. FLFP is influenced by their reluctance to work in remote locations or take night shifts, prioritizing proximity to home and family. The investigation into women's disinclination towards private sector employment highlights challenges in achieving WLB and negative social and family perceptions. Factors such as long working hours, long travel time, travel or dislocation expenses, low salaries, high responsibilities, and inflexible work conditions contribute to this reluctance. These findings are consistent with Shaban (2016). Comparatively generous benefits in public sector jobs often overshadow the appeal of private sector positions (Rutledge and Kaabi, 2023). These findings support the job demand-resource theory,

emphasizing the importance of job resources for employee commitment, while excessive job demands can lead to dissatisfaction (Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola, 2008). Conversely, women who choose to pursue careers despite these challenges may be influenced by the principles of Social Identity Theory.

The second inquiry reveals that working women face challenges balancing work and life responsibilities, particularly struggling with time constraints for personal, family, and community engagements (Kwong, Chau, & Kawase, 2013). Many express frustration over their inability to participate in community activities and prioritize personal and family well-being. Friedman (2014) argues for moving beyond the traditional work/life balance paradigm towards a holistic work/life integration approach. This approach involves integrating work, home, community, and personal aspects seamlessly. Friedman proposes three principles: authenticity in aligning actions with personal values (be real), recognizing the interconnectedness of various life domains (be whole), and fostering creativity by experimenting with strategies that benefit both oneself and others (be innovative). Counselling could potentially assist women in achieving a more integrated and fulfilling work-life balance.

Our investigation into the support mechanisms for working women, particularly in terms of familial versus organizational support, highlights significant reliance on family support over formal organizational backing. The conflict between work and life responsibilities aligns with role theory, while family support resonates with cultural dimension theory (Obeidat et al., 2012). Organizational support is viewed through the lens of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Yu, 2019), and the challenges faced by employees seeking WLB are consistent with the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Halbesleben et al., 2014). McElwee and Al-Riyami's study (2003) initially underscored Oman's collectivist societal nature and the prevalence of mutual support among women. However, our findings reveal that organizations generally lack formal organizational support akin to well-established HR policies like FFPs in developed

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nations. The term "family support" highlights that domestic responsibilities largely fall on women, reflecting a patriarchal family structure rather than a model of shared parental care and responsibilities.

Our investigation into societal and organizational biases reveals that women largely refrain from disclosing organizational bias. Evidence presents a nuanced perspective: while some workplaces exhibit a bias towards hiring males, sectors like nursing, teaching, banking, and fish processing and packaging favour employing women, as noted by Belwal and Belwal (2017). Conversely, societal disapproval of women in the private sector persists, reflecting concerns about interactions with male colleagues and familial restrictions driven by social pressures. Urban families are generally more tolerant, indicative of shifting societal perceptions towards greater female workforce acceptance, consistent with regional disparities noted by Al-Waqfi and Al-Faki (2015).

Our subsequent inquiries into why working women quit their jobs contribute significantly to this study, particularly in the Arab world. The overarching conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 3 encapsulates the complexity, focusing on women aged 25-40 in operational and supervisory roles earning less than 1000 OMR per month rather than senior positions. The results emphasize a shared understanding that women often lack control over factors such as job accessibility, sociocultural barriers, support from spouses and in-laws, the nature and location of workplaces, and domestic challenges.

Furthermore, the study underscores the influential role of various factors shaping the landscape. These include work hours, wages, incentives, gender-specific concerns related to maternity and childcare, expectations and behaviour of managers, suboptimal working conditions, lack of motivation, growth opportunities, and access to counselling. These elements significantly impact women's work-life balance, quality of work-life, job satisfaction, retention, and,

ultimately, their participation in the female labour force. However, female labour force participation in the private sector job market is increasing in urban areas with diverse economic structures and more formal sector organizations offering facilities and favourable work conditions (Mansour et al., 2020).

Limitations and directions for future research

The study's qualitative approach offers insightful findings but may lack the precision of quantitative investigations, potentially limiting the depth of understanding. Respondent bias, influenced by social desirability or personal perceptions, could compromise reliability and validity. Analyzing qualitative data with a large sample introduces challenges in consistency and objectivity, relying heavily on subjective judgment. Context-specific focus on Omani women may restrict generalizability beyond this setting. Furthermore, the study overlooks the impact of a 2023 Omani government law introducing paternity, childcare, maternity, sick, and bereavement leave provisions. Future research could adopt sections of the conceptual framework for quantitative cross-sectional surveys and confirmatory analysis.

Additionally, the study identifies informal family support, suggesting further research into formal support from peers, supervisors, and organizations. Future researchers can study the role of mentoring and awarding in alignment with the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, as these roles of managers are crucial for enhancing subordinates' commitment and confidence (Ragins et al., 1998; Ilies et al., 2007). Investigating women's awareness and perceptions of FFPs could inform HR policy development in Oman, aligning with organizational and legal frameworks to enhance job satisfaction, commitment, and retention (Bae & Yang, 2017; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Caillier, 2016; Bae & Yang, 2017).

Policy Implications

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A multifaceted approach to policy implementation is recommended to enhance women's participation and retention in the private sector workforce in Oman. Introducing flexible working hours and remote work options can alleviate challenges related to long hours and commuting, fostering a better work-life balance. Gender sensitivity training for managers and colleagues is crucial to creating an inclusive workplace culture that addresses biases. While new maternity leave provisions are beneficial, implementing comprehensive family-friendly policies (FFPs), including childcare support, is essential for supporting women in managing family responsibilities without hindering their careers.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) and mentorship programs can aid women's professional development by offering guidance and insights. Awareness campaigns targeting families and society should challenge stereotypes and promote a more accepting attitude towards women in the private sector. Rationalizing facilities and benefits between government and private sector organizations is recommended to ensure fairness and attract talent.

Building resilience among women from an early age is essential to help them face life challenges. Women's education in Western-style, privately-educated institutions and their exposure to the industry through internship programs in the post-secondary stage may develop stronger continuance intentions, akin to the UAE (Rutlette and Kaabi, 2023). Fried's (2014) holistic work/life integration model, emphasizing equal opportunities, career development, recognition, and Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) for mental health, may contribute to a healthier and robust work environment. Community engagement initiatives and regular policy audits ensure ongoing relevance and effectiveness. These measures would create a more supportive, inclusive, and accommodating environment for women in the private sector, addressing identified challenges and increasing their participation in the labour force.

Conclusions

The low participation of women in the labour force in Oman is a multifaceted issue rooted in interconnected challenges. WFC and WLB challenges emerge as pivotal factors, with concerns about long working hours, low salaries, and high responsibilities in the private sector being prominent. The lack of flexibility, convenience, and security further exacerbates these challenges, creating a significant disincentive for women pursuing private-sector careers. Gender biases and societal norms also play a substantial role, influencing organizational biases and impacting women's decisions to join or leave the workforce. A significant imbalance in familial and organizational support in Omani society is reflected, with the former providing considerable aid and the latter lacking formal measures. Despite contrasting narratives of biases in hiring practices, societal disapproval of women working in the private sector persists, especially in certain regions, reflecting a complex interplay of cultural dynamics.

The conceptual framework developed in this study illustrates how WFC, individual characteristics, work conditions, sociocultural perspectives, and organizational and legal support influence women's employment decisions. It comprehensively explains the challenges women face in private-sector jobs and the factors affecting their labour force participation. These factors collectively shape women's inclination to work, with Work-Life Balance (WLB) challenges and financial and non-financial benefits playing a significant role in their employment choices.

In conclusion, addressing the low participation of women in Oman's private sector labour force requires comprehensive strategies, including legislative measures, cultural shifts, and organizational reforms. Prioritizing initiatives that enhance work-life balance, challenge gender biases, and foster familial and managerial support is essential to creating an environment where women are empowered to participate and thrive in the workforce.

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Table 1. Region-wise Breakdown of Sample respondents for Interviews

Governorates	Muscat	Al Batinah	Musandam	Adh-Dhahirah	Ad-Dakhiliyah	Ash-Sharqiyah	Al-Wusta	Dhofar	Al-Buraymi	Total
No. of women Targeted	40	45	5	10	20	25	5	15	5	170
No of women interviewed	40	44	5	10	15	22	0	15	6	157

Table 2. Profile of Sample Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent	Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Qualification			Age		
Below High School	1	0.6	Less than 25	11	7
High School	21	13.4	25-30	79	50.3
Secondary School	46	29.3	31-40	62	39.5
Diploma	24	15.3	More than 40	4	2.5
Advanced Diploma	9	5.7	Not disclosed	1	0.6
Higher Diploma	3	1.9	Sector of work		
Bachelor's Degree	45	28.7	Mining and quarrying	14	8.9
Master's Degree	8	5.1	Manufacturing	76	48.4
Position			Electricity, gas, and water supply	2	1.3
Operational & Technical	43	27.4	Construction	6	3.8
Professional	8	5.1	Wholesale and retail trade	3	1.9
Supervisory & Managerial	106	67.5	Hotels and restaurants	1	0.6
Nature of work			Transport, storage, and communications	4	2.5
Indoor	110	70.1	Financial intermediation	6	3.8
Mixed	31	19.7	Education	12	7.6
Outdoor	2	1.3	Health	1	0.6
Not disclosed	14	8.9	Others	32	20.4
Personal Income (per month)			Total		
Below OMR 500	70	44.6		157	100
OMR 500-1000	48	30.6			
Above OMR 1000	29	18.5			
Not disclosed	10	6.4			



Figure 1. What women gain from working in the private sector



Figure 2. What women lose by working in the private sector

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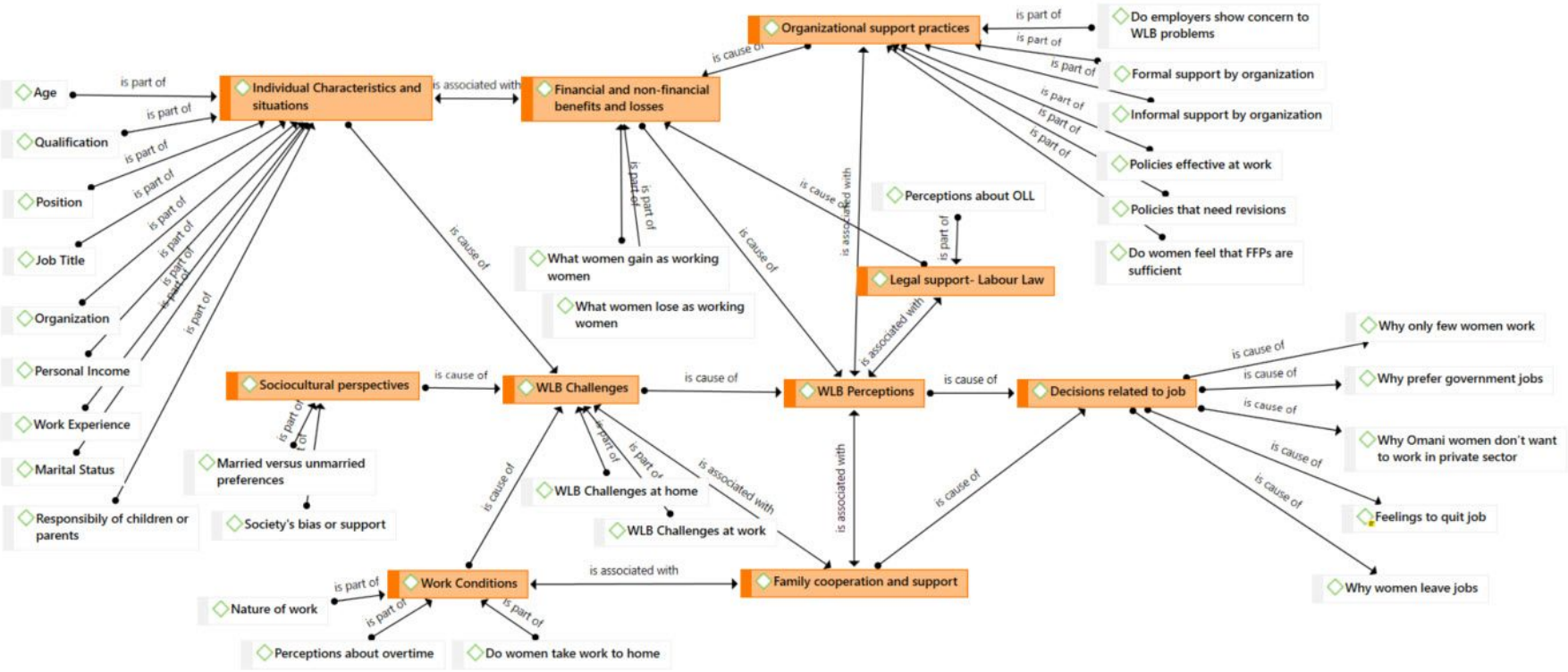


Figure 3. Conceptual Framework of WLB Challenges-Cause & Effect Derived using Qualitative Analysis

Appendix

Appendix 1

Interview Schedule

1. Why do Omani women not want to work in the private sector?
 - Why there are only a few women? Is this because of low participation or high turnover?
 - Nowadays, it isn't easy to get a job. We wonder why women leave their jobs. Can you answer this by recalling a case you know of and its known reasons?
 - Why do females prefer to work in the government rather than the private sector?
 - Does your employer want to hire women? If not, why?
 - Is there any preference for married or unmarried women?
 - Do you see any issue with the women themselves or society, such as that they do not want to work in the private sector? Why or why not?
2. How easy do you find it to manage your work at home and work?
 - What challenges do you face at home that affect your working in the company?
 - What challenges do you face at your work that affect your household responsibilities?
 - Do you often feel like quitting the job? Why so?
 - Have you ever mentioned your problems to your employers? Formally? Informally?
 - Has your employer shown any concerns about the problems you have raised?
 - How cooperative do you find your family in such a situation?
3. What informal/formal workplace support (e.g., family-supportive supervisors, high levels of job autonomy, an organizational culture that supports women's career advancement) is given to women in your organization?
4. What sorts of support will you or other women generally need to manage their work and life well?
5. How friendly are the policies in your organization when it comes to work-life balance? Give an example of the policies that benefit women in your organization.
 - Do you feel that these FFPs are sufficient?
6. Do you work overtime to earn some more money? Why or why not?
7. Do you often take your work home? What type of work and why?
8. What do you lose or gain compared to other women not working in the industry?

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9. Can you tell something about your company culture and what makes it unique for the women employees?

Demographic Profile of the respondent:

- 1) Highest Educational Qualification:
- 2) Position\Designation _____
 - Operational & Technical
 - Professional
 - Supervisory & Managerial
- 3) Total Work Experience (in years) _____
- 4) Age- <25 _____ 25-30 _____ 31-40 _____ >40 _____
- 5) Nature of work: Outdoor Indoor Mixed
- 6) Personal Income: Below OMR 500 OMR 500-1000 Above OMR 1000
- 7) Organization: _____
- 8) Job Title: _____

Appendix 2

Profile of Respondents

Respondents' code	Profile of Respondents (Education, Position, Work Experience, Age, Nature of work, monthly income, Job title, Organization type)
D1	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Senior Manager, Manufacturing
D2	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Front Office, Manufacturing
D3	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 31-40, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Sales Manager, Showroom
D4	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, HR employee, University
D5	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 6, 31-40, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Security, University
D6	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 7, 31-40, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Security, University
D7	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 2, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, IT, Contracting Company
D8	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, HR manager, Contracting Company
D9	High School, Professional, 22, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Teacher, School
D10	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 7, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Librarian, School
D11	Secondary School, Professional, 10, 31-40, NA, Below OMR 500, Teacher, School
D12	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Below OMR 500, Cashier Supervisor, Hypermarket
D13	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 1, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D14	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 4, 31-40, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D15	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 2, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D16	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 3, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D17	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 12, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, HSC, Manufacturing
D18	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 6, 25-30, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D19	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Secretary
D20	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 7, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing

D21	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 25-30, Above OMR 1000, Assistant Financial Manager, Manufacturing
D22	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 25-30, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing
D23	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D24	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 3, <25, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D25	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 5, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Receptionist, Manufacturing
D26	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 3, <25, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Workers supervisor, Manufacturing
D27	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Saleswomen, Retail Mall
D28	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Supervisor, Retail Mall
D29	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Exhibition Manager, Retail Mall
D30	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 2, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Saleswoman, Retail Mall
D31	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 19, 31-40, OMR 500-1000, Branch Supervisor, Insurance Company
D32	Secondary School, seven years, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Debt Collector, Car Showroom
D33	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 9, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Car Showroom
D34	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Financial services
D35	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Financial services
D36	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Financial services
D37	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountancy Officer, Financial services
D38	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 7, 31-40, Mixed, Planning Engineer, Manufacturing
D39	Diploma, Professional, 23, >40, Indoor, Senior Accountant, Manufacturing
D40	Bachelor's, Professional, 12, 31-40, Indoor, Senior Accountant, Manufacturing
D41	Higher Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Senior Assistant in Warehouse, Manufacturing
D42	Higher Diploma, Operational & Technical, 6, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Assistant Process Engineer, Manufacturing
D43	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 7, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Customer Service, Financial services
D44	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 17, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Financial services

D45	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Senior HR Business Partner, Manufacturing
D46	Advanced Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, <25, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Assistant Manager, Manufacturing
D47	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 25-30, Above OMR 1000, Manufacturing
D48	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Assistant Manager, Manufacturing
D49	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 2, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Laboratory, Manufacturing
D50	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 5, 25-30, Mixed, Engineering painter, Manufacturing
D51	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 6, 31-40, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Second-line application support, Manufacturing
D52	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Services
D53	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D54	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 7, <25, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Cashier, Hypermarket
D55	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Customer service supervisor, Hypermarket
D56	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Branch Officer, Financial services
D57	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Administrative Officer, Manufacturing
D58	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Administrative clerk, Manufacturing
D59	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Manufacturing
D60	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Sales Coordinator, Manufacturing
D61	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 17, 31-40, Indoor, Administrator, Manufacturing
D62	Advanced Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, <25, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Assistant HR Manager, Manufacturing
D63	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, <25, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Data entry and reception, Manufacturing and trading
D64	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Indoor, Accountant, Manufacturing and trading
D65	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, <25, Below OMR 500, Accountant, Manufacturing and trading
D66	MBA, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 31-40, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Head of Sales Enterprise, IT Services
D67	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 9 Months, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Admin - Officer, Facility Management Services

D68	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, <25, Receptionist, Facility Management Services
D69	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, Indoor, Data entry, Facility Management Services
D70	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 31-40, Indoor, Senior Admin Manager, Facility Management Services
D71	Advance Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 15, 31-40, Mixed, Customer Service Manager, Construction Solutions
D72	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 15, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Director of the follow-up, Construction Solutions
D73	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 3, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Data Entering, Manufacturing
D74	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 1, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Health and safety officer, Manufacturing
D75	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 14, 31-40, Below OMR 500, Accounting Assistant, Manufacturing
D76	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Receptionist, Manufacturing
D77	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 9, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Administrative clerk, Manufacturing
D78	High School, Operational & Technical, 5, 31-40, Outdoor, Below OMR 500, Operator, Manufacturing
D79	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 16, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Assistant Commercial Director, Manufacturing
D80	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Training Coordinator, Manufacturing
D81	Master's, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Master's, Audit Assistant, Manufacturing
D82	Master's, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, OMR 500-1000, Accountant, Manufacturing
D83	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Administrator, Manufacturing
D84	Advance Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Master's, Administrative Assistant, Manufacturing
D85	Master's, Supervisory & Managerial, 31-40, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Director of Training and Development, Petroleum Services
D86	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 1, <25, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, HR Administrative Assistant, Petroleum Services
D87	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 12, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, HR Assistant Director, Petroleum Services
D88	Bachelor's, Professional, 4, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Quality and HSE Officer, Petroleum Services
D89	Advance Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 25-30, OMR 500-1000, Administrative Assistant, Petroleum Services
D90	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Systems Analyst, Manufacturing

D91	Below High School, Operational & Technical, 23,> 40, Outdoor, Below OMR 500, Tailor, Manufacturing
D92	Bachelor's degree, Supervisory & Managerial, 2, <25, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Financial Analyst, Manufacturing
D93	Advance Diploma, Operational & Technical, 25-30, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Bachelor's, Chemical analyst, Manufacturing
D94	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Biological analyzer, Manufacturing
D95	Master's, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Head of Department, Manufacturing
D96	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 11,> 40, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Administrative in maintenance and operation, Manufacturing
D97	High School, Operational & Technical, 3, >40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Fish Cutter and Cleaner, Manufacturing
D98	High School, Supervisory & Managerial, 16, 31-40, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Secretary, Manufacturing
D99	High School, Operational & Technical, 16, 31-40, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Production Line Supervisor, Manufacturing
D100	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, One and a half, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, HR Manager, Manufacturing
D101	Secondary School, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Supervisor, Manufacturing
D102	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Administrative, Manufacturing
D103	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Head of the Department, Manufacturing
D104	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Sales Coordinator, Manufacturing
D105	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 1, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing
D106	Higher Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 10, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Head of Training & Development, Manufacturing
D107	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Administrator, Manufacturing
D108	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 10, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Compensation and benefits specialist, Manufacturing
D109	Master's, Professional, 8, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Senior talent, Manufacturing
D110	Master's, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Assistant HR Manager, Manufacturing
D111	High School, Operational & Technical, 1, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging Worker, Manufacturing
D112	Bachelor's, 2, 25-30, OMR 500-1000, Indoor, Maintenance Engineer, Manufacturing
D113	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 10, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing

D114	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 8, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D115	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 9, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Lead importing, Manufacturing
D116	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Manager Assistant, Manufacturing
D117	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 11, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Junior officer, Bank
D118	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Accountant, Bank
D119	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 14, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Superintendent of Business Applications, Manufacturing
D120	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 11, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Administrator, Manufacturing
D121	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 11, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Senior Training Analyst, Manufacturing
D122	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 17, 31-40 Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing
D123	Bachelor's, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Professional, English Teacher, Higher Educational Institution
D124	Master's, Professional, 9, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Bachelor's, Higher Educational Institution
D125	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Student supervisor, Higher Educational Institution
D126	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, HR Manager, Petroleum Company
D127	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Secretary, University
D128	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Librarian, University
D129	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Assistant HR, Manufacturing
D130	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 13, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Sales Coordinator, Manufacturing
D131	Advance Diploma, Operational & Technical, 1, <25, Mixed, Below OMR 500, Lab technician, Manufacturing
D132	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Assistant Manager, Bank
D133	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Customer service, Bank
D134	Diploma, Operational & Technical, 2, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Customer service, Bank
D135	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 19, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D136	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 11, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing

D137	Secondary School, Operational & Technical, 16, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Packaging, Manufacturing
D138	Advance Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, General Accountant, Manufacturing
D139	High School, Operational & Technical, 3, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Sewing, Manufacturing
D140	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 5, 31-40, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Workers Supervisor, Manufacturing
D141	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Follow-up Attendant, Logistical Services
D142	Secondary School, Supervisory & Managerial, 9, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, HR supervisor, Logistical Services
D143	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 9, 31-40, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Head of Division, Logistical Services
D144	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, Below OMR 500, Clerk, Logistical Services
D145	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, Procurement Assistant, Manufacturing
D146	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, CSR specialist, Manufacturing
D147	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Financial Analyst, Manufacturing
D148	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 31-40, Above OMR 1000, Recruitment Officer, Manufacturing
D149	Bachelor's, Operational & Technical, 7, 25-30, Mixed, Above OMR 1000, Procurement officer, Manufacturing
D150	Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 1, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Manufacturing
D151	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 3, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Secretary, Petrochemical Company
D152	Advanced Diploma, Supervisory & Managerial, 8, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, HR manager, Manufacturing
D153	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 4, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Accountant, Manufacturing
D154	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 31-40, Mixed, OMR 500-1000, GSSI, Bachelor's, Senior Accountant
D155	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 6, 25-30, Indoor, OMR 500-1000, Clerk, Manufacturing
D156	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 25-30, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Senior Accountant, Manufacturing
D157	Bachelor's, Supervisory & Managerial, 7, 31-40, Indoor, Above OMR 1000, Senior Travel Coordinator, Manufacturing