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MOS REVIEW

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Introduction to the Inaugural Issue of the MOS Review

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We are pleased to unveil the first issue of MOS Review which is a collection of six conceptual paper submissions of the undergraduate students of the Department of Management and Organization Studies with their research supervisors. These conceptual papers are structured to enable students who are new to the field of research to identify emerging research themes/concepts in the management and organisation studies, glance at the review of recent research findings under these concepts and possible research gaps, theorisation or conceptualisations of the theme/concepts in literature, the contexts in which this concept has been mobilised or operationalised, the methodologies that had been adopted to study them and the potential future research related to these concepts.

This first issue in the first volume consists of conceptual papers related to civic entrepreneurship, rural entrepreneurship, migration, workplace bullying, dirty work, and standard time in operations management. These diverse concepts in the domain of management and organisation studies illustrate the vibrant nature of the field and its potential for contributing to the ongoing debates in the field.

The first two entrepreneurship papers: Rural Entrepreneurship by Maduwanthi and Perera, and Civic Entrepreneurship by Hewapathirana and Senathiraja demonstrate two different themes in the field of entrepreneurship. In the first paper, Maduwanthi and Perera identify rural entrepreneurship as the entrepreneurial experience in non-urban settings and illustrate the

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distinctive characteristics and challenges faced by rural entrepreneurs in diverse contextual backgrounds. They highlight embeddedness, community entrepreneurship, cultural entrepreneurship, and rural innovation systems as some of the conceptualisations of rural entrepreneurship, operationalised through economic indicators, innovation metrics, and social capital assessments. Based on the literature, they identify that future research could draw on the themes of technology adoption, underrepresented groups, and policy intervention.

The second paper on Civic Entrepreneurship (Hewapathirana & Senathiraja, 2023) highlights that developing socially responsible initiatives and dealing with critical societal challenges is part of civic entrepreneurship. The authors illustrate based on literature that stakeholder perspective theory, triple bottom line theory, and social network theory are the most widely used theories in this field focusing on altruism and social innovation. They emphasise the relevance of civic entrepreneurship to education, public services, and society and identify that future research could examine the role of technology, ethical considerations, and cross-cultural cooperation and sustainability in this field.

The third paper on the Migration by Perera and Abeydeera, first presents literature on migration research globally, followed by such research in Sri Lanka. Focussing on migration as a social phenomenon, they explore research on the migration of professionals and their career development and identify two main theories used to explain the migration of skilled labour: human capital theory and neo-Marxist theory. They highlight that future research could explore themes such as labour migration governance, foreign employment recruitment, remittances, return and reintegration of migrant workers, and the link between migration and the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals.

The fourth paper on Workplace Bullying by Rasanjalee and Dissanayake locates this concept in the larger research area of deviant behaviour under organisational behaviour and human resources management. They highlight that workplace bullying defined as unwelcome, unfriendly behaviour in the work environment is a well-researched concept in the recent past including studies such as different types of workplace bullying, antecedents, consequences, and reactions to workplace bullying, measurement scales, as well as coping strategies. However, it is an area with ongoing debates. They highlight that researchers have used theories such as conflict theory, social exchange theory and balance theory to theorise workplace bullying. They illustrate that future research could consider the evolving nature of organisations, environments, generations of workers, changing norms and ethics of work,

technology as well as organisational structures, designs and their changes that could affect workplace bullying,

The fifth paper on dirty work by Pallewela and Ranasinghe identifies dirty work as tasks, occupations, or roles that are likely to be perceived as disgusting and work responsibilities that are perceived as physically, socially, or morally tainted. The authors highlight that interpretive theories such as social construction theory and social identity theory have been drawn to theorise dirty work in multiple contexts. While most research is located in Western contexts, an emerging stream of research explores dirty work and workers in the non-West which is deemed interesting and different to the West due to the nuances in caste-centric complexities and social stigma that are typical in the non-Western Asian regions. Future research is proposed on the intersectional theorisation of dirty work (the intersections such as class, race, gender, and sexual orientation) from an interpretive perspective in the non-West to engage in ongoing debates in the field, which is still nascent.

The sixth and final paper on standard time in operations management is by Senavirathna and Senathiraja. In this conceptual paper, the authors provide an overview of standard time from a global perspective, its application to the manufacturing industry and other industries such as the military, and especially in managing organisations which they argue to be limited. They illustrate that literature has identified the importance of standard time and its adaptation for decision-making for organisational performance and that standard time could act as a common language for coordinating activities and communicating schedules, building collaboration across different individuals or organisations and nations across the globe. Theories such as goal setting theory, scientific management, and human relations approach have implicitly and explicitly discussed the underlying importance of standard time for individuals and organisations, however with limited explicit theorising. As potential future research, the authors have highlighted that research could explore the evolving role of standard time in the workplace, its impact on individuals, organisations, local and global operations such as outsourcing, operations, human resource and marketing practices as well as the intricate connection between technological advancement and standard time.

Through the publication of these conceptual papers in the MOS Review, we anticipate that research students in the domain of management and organisation studies will be inspired to embark on novel and interesting areas of research and extend knowledge horizons in conducting their future research.

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Rural Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

This article examines the multifaceted landscape of rural entrepreneurship, unravelling the unique characteristics and challenges faced by rural entrepreneurs in diverse contextual backgrounds. Exploring conceptualisations such as embeddedness, community entrepreneurship, cultural entrepreneurship, and rural innovation systems, the study investigates the complexities that define the entrepreneurial experience in non-urban settings. Operationalisations of rural entrepreneurship are elucidated through economic indicators, innovation metrics, and social capital assessments. The review navigates through diverse methodologies, including surveys, case studies, interviews, and field observations, providing a comprehensive understanding of the research. Future research directions encompass longitudinal studies, technology adoption, inclusivity for underrepresented groups, and critical evaluations of policy interventions.

Keywords: Entrepreneurs, Entrepreneurship, Rural, Rural Entrepreneurs, Rural Entrepreneurship

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1. Who are Rural Entrepreneurs?

1.1 Entrepreneurship

Even though it is acknowledged that the term "entrepreneurship" lacks a single, unified, and widely accepted definition, it is nonetheless a component of strategic posture that encompasses businesses' propensity for taking risks, their capacity for aggressive competition, their proactive initiatives, and their product innovations all of which are entrepreneurial activities and that, as a result, indicates that all types of organisations exhibit entrepreneurial behaviour (Chandrasekaran & Narayanan, 2018). Sometimes it's framed as starting and running one's own business or relates to an entrepreneurial person (Davidsson, 2005).

Entrepreneurship is the process of establishing a business or organisation via the effective arrangement of the three factors of production in order to offer a unique and creative product to the market (Suma & Hemalatha, 2022). Entrepreneurship can be defined as the act of someone who undertakes innovations, finance, and business acumen in an endeavour to remodel innovations into economic goods (Ashwinkumar & Dignesh, 2019).

1.2 Rural Area

Rural places are seen as completely different from densely populated urban and suburban areas, as well as from wilderness or natural landscapes like mountains or woods. Since they have access to cheap labour from within their own communities, rural businesses can manufacture goods or services that are in demand locally and profit from the usage of local resources (Chandrasekaran & Narayanan, 2018).

The definition of rural area according to the Department of Labour (2021) is all areas not administered by municipal and urban councils constitute the rural sector.

1.3 Rural Entrepreneurship

The rural entrepreneurship has become a compelling concept in the twenty-first century. The rural entrepreneurship is typically defined as "entrepreneurship emerging at the village level, which may occur in a variety of fields of endeavour like trade, business, and agriculture and act as a powerful issue for overall economic development" (Ashwinkumar & Dignesh, 2019). The rural entrepreneurship implies the emergence or establishment of entrepreneurial activities in rural areas, or, in other words, the establishment of industries, suggesting that rural

entrepreneurship and rural industrialisation are interchangeable concepts. The rural entrepreneurship is an example of the informal economy's small-scale industries, which includes small traders and artisans (Chandrasekaran & Narayanan, 2018).

1.4 Entrepreneurs

The term "entrepreneur" can refer to a person who either starts new combinations of production activities, such as new products, new ways of production, new markets, finds new sources of offer and new merchandise, and finds new structure forms, or to a person who is basically willing to take risks, or to a person who, by taking advantage of market opportunities, eliminates the situation between mixture demand and aggregate offer, or to a person who jointly owns and operates an enterprise (Ashwinkumar & Dignesh, 2019). Entrepreneurs are innovators who employ a method of upending the present order of goods and services to create new goods and services. He came to the conclusion that innovations or novel combinations, rather than the accumulation of wealth, drive economic progress (Sharma et al., 2013).

1.5 Rural Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurs who establish and maintain businesses in remote locations are known as rural entrepreneurs (Suma & Hemalatha, 2022). In that sense a rural entrepreneur is someone who lives in a rural area, and what sets them apart from urban entrepreneurs is how rurality affects the entrepreneurial process (Stathopoulou et al., 2004).

The rural entrepreneur's social frame of reference takes on operational significance in the context of his unconventional endeavour (Kumar, 1989). One of the most crucial factors in the economic development of a nation and its regions is the rural entrepreneur. Infrastructure investments are seen as both a highly desirable quality and a critical requirement for the growth of entrepreneurship in rural areas by rural entrepreneurs (Skuras et al., 2000).

2. Recent Research Findings around the Concept

Prior researchers have examined about very few factors, like capital, year of industrial experience, management experience, staffing, marketing skills (Gyimah, 2021) only personal hurdles contributing to failures of rural entrepreneurship (Albert, 2018) governmental policy, resources and risk aversion towards failure of rural entrepreneurship in an emerging market context (Kasabov, 2016).

There is also existing literature on rural entrepreneurship in mature economies that is concentrated on the agricultural viewpoint, the skills needed for local economic business, gender and family studies, farm diversification, and social capital (Koyana, 2017). Studies on rural entrepreneurship, however, focused on women and young people and studied policy application on how rural areas can prosper in rising markets (Koyana, 2017).

3. Theories Explaining Rural Entrepreneurship

Understanding the dynamics of rural entrepreneurship requires a theoretical framework that encapsulates the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial activities in rural settings. This section explores key theories that offer insights into the motivations, challenges, and factors influencing rural entrepreneurs.

3.1 Resource-based view (RBV): The Resource-Based View theory posits that the competitive advantage of entrepreneurs is contingent on the unique bundle of resources they possess (Barney, 1991). In rural entrepreneurship, these resources may include local knowledge, social capital, and access to natural resources (Acs & Audretsch, 2010). Entrepreneurs leverage these resources to create innovative solutions and establish a competitive edge in markets characterised by distinct rural contexts.

3.2 Social Capital Theory: Social Capital Theory emphasises the role of social networks and relationships in entrepreneurship (Coleman, 1988). In rural settings, strong community ties play a crucial role in the success of entrepreneurs (Jack & Anderson, 2002). Social capital facilitates resource-sharing, information exchange, and access to support networks, contributing significantly to the resilience and sustainability of rural enterprises.

3.3 Institutional Theory: Institutional Theory explores how formal and informal institutions shape entrepreneurial behaviour (Scott, 1995). In the rural context, institutions such as

government policies, cultural norms, and community expectations significantly influence entrepreneurial decisions (North, 1990). An understanding of the institutional environment is vital for addressing challenges and creating an enabling framework for rural entrepreneurship (Minniti, 2009).

3.4 Human Capital Theory: Human Capital Theory focuses on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of individuals as critical factors in entrepreneurial success (Becker, 1964). In rural contexts, investing in education and skill development is essential for empowering individuals to pursue entrepreneurial ventures (Audretsch & Keilbach, 2007). Understanding the cultivation and utilisation of human capital in rural settings is fundamental for addressing challenges and unlocking the entrepreneurial potential of rural communities.

In conclusion, these theories provide a robust framework for comprehending the complexities of rural entrepreneurship. Integrating these theoretical perspectives into research and policy initiatives can enhance our ability to support and promote entrepreneurship in rural areas, contributing to sustainable economic development and improved livelihoods.

4. Conceptualisations in Rural Entrepreneurship

The conceptualisation of rural entrepreneurship encompasses diverse perspectives that reflect the unique characteristics and challenges inherent in rural settings. Scholars have approached the study of rural entrepreneurs through various lenses, each offering valuable insights into the dynamics of entrepreneurship in non-urban contexts.

4.1 Embeddedness and Local Embeddedness: One prevalent conceptualisation revolves around the idea of embeddedness, emphasising the interdependence of rural entrepreneurs with their local environment (Granovetter, 1985). This perspective suggests that rural entrepreneurs are deeply intertwined with their communities, relying on local resources, social networks, and cultural norms to shape and sustain their ventures (Jack & Anderson, 2002).

4.2 Community Entrepreneurship: Another conceptualisation focuses on the role of rural entrepreneurs in community development. Community entrepreneurship emphasises the impact of entrepreneurial activities on the well-being and resilience of rural communities (Morgan et al., 2017). Rural entrepreneurs are seen as catalysts for local economic growth, social cohesion, and the preservation of cultural heritage.

4.2 Cultural Entrepreneurship: Cultural entrepreneurship explores how rural entrepreneurs leverage and contribute to local cultural assets (Lampel et al., 2000). In rural settings, where traditions and heritage hold significant value, entrepreneurs may engage in cultural enterprises that both preserve and innovate within the local cultural context. This conceptualisation highlights the dynamic relationship between entrepreneurship and cultural identity.

4.3 Place-based Entrepreneurship: Place-based entrepreneurship emphasises the geographical context of entrepreneurial activities (Bathelt et al., 2004). Rural entrepreneurs, operating in specific locations with distinct characteristics, draw upon the advantages and constraints of their geographical settings. This perspective recognises the importance of place-specific factors in shaping entrepreneurial behaviour and outcomes.

4.4 Rural Innovation Systems: The conceptualisation of rural innovation systems views entrepreneurship as an integral part of broader systems fostering innovation in rural areas (Bosworth & Atterton, 2008). Rural entrepreneurs are seen as key actors within innovation ecosystems, interacting with research institutions, local industries, and government agencies to drive technological advancements and economic development.

In summary, these conceptualisations offer diverse lenses through which to understand the complex landscape of rural entrepreneurship. Integrating these perspectives into research and policy frameworks is essential for developing a comprehensive understanding of the motivations, challenges, and impacts of rural entrepreneurship.

5. Operationalisation of Rural Entrepreneurship

The operationalisation of the concept of rural entrepreneurs involves the identification and measurement of key variables to assess and understand the phenomenon effectively. Scholars and researchers have employed various methodologies and indicators to operationalise the concept, providing insights into the characteristics, behaviours, and outcomes associated with rural entrepreneurship.

5.1 Economic Indicators: One common approach to operationalising rural entrepreneurship involves the use of economic indicators to measure business activities and performance. Metrics such as the number of businesses, employment levels, and economic output contribute to a quantitative understanding of the economic contributions of rural entrepreneurs (Welter & Smallbone, 2003).

5.2 Innovation and Technology Adoption: Operationalising rural entrepreneurship also involves assessing the degree of innovation and technology adoption within rural enterprises. Researchers often examine factors such as the use of new technologies, adoption of sustainable practices, and engagement in research and development activities to gauge the innovative capacity of rural entrepreneurs (Huggins & Thompson, 2015).

5.3 Entrepreneurial Motivations and Characteristics: Understanding the motivations and characteristics of rural entrepreneurs is crucial for operationalising the concept. Researchers may employ qualitative methods, such as interviews and surveys, to explore the personal motivations, skills, and experiences that drive individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activities in rural settings (Korsching & Tegtmeier, 2015).

5.4 Community Impact Assessment: Operationalisations may extend to assessing the impact of rural entrepreneurs on their communities. This involves evaluating factors such as job creation, social cohesion, and contributions to local culture and heritage. Community impact assessments provide a holistic perspective on the role of rural entrepreneurs in fostering sustainable development (Kumar & Purushothaman, 2015).

In conclusion, the operationalisation of the concept of rural entrepreneurs requires a multi-dimensional approach that considers economic, social, and cultural aspects. By employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative measures, researchers can gain a comprehensive understanding of the diverse dimensions of rural entrepreneurship.

6. Methodologies Used in Rural Entrepreneurs

The study of rural entrepreneurs involves the application of diverse research methodologies to explore and understand the complex dynamics of entrepreneurship in non-urban settings. Researchers employ a range of qualitative and quantitative approaches to investigate the motivations, behaviours, and outcomes associated with rural entrepreneurship.

6.1 Surveys and Questionnaires: Surveys and questionnaires are widely used methodologies in the study of rural entrepreneurs. These tools allow researchers to collect quantitative data on a large scale, obtaining insights into demographic characteristics, business activities, and factors influencing entrepreneurial decision-making (Bruderl & Preisendorfer, 1998).

6.3 Interviews: In-depth interviews with rural entrepreneurs are valuable for capturing nuanced perspectives and uncovering the underlying factors shaping their entrepreneurial endeavours. Semi-structured or open-ended interviews enable researchers to explore personal narratives, motivations, and the social context of entrepreneurship (Gubrium & Holstein, 2002).

6.4 Field Observations: Field observations involve direct observation of rural entrepreneurial activities in their natural settings. Researchers immerse themselves in the local context, gaining first-hand knowledge of the daily operations, interactions, and challenges faced by rural entrepreneurs. This qualitative approach enhances the understanding of the contextual factors influencing entrepreneurship (Emerson et al., 1995).

6.5 Quantitative Data Analysis: Quantitative data analysis techniques, such as statistical modelling and regression analysis, are employed to examine relationships between variables and identify patterns within large datasets. This methodology is useful for exploring the economic impact of rural entrepreneurs, assessing the effectiveness of interventions, and identifying factors influencing business performance (Hair et al., 2018).

Incorporating a mix of these methodologies allows researchers to triangulate findings, providing a more comprehensive understanding of rural entrepreneurship. By combining quantitative rigor with qualitative depth, scholars can contribute nuanced insights that inform policy, practice, and future research directions.

7. Diverse Contextual Backgrounds of Past Research on Rural Entrepreneurship

Research on rural entrepreneurs has embraced a diverse array of contextual backgrounds, acknowledging the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial activities in non-urban settings. Geographical diversity has been a central theme, with studies examining rural entrepreneurship across various landscapes, from remote and sparsely populated regions to peri-urban areas (Acs & Audretsch, 2010). Cultural factors have also taken precedence in understanding the entrepreneurial landscape, delving into the unique cultural contexts that shape entrepreneurial behaviours, decision-making processes, and the acceptance of innovation within rural communities (Lampel et al., 2000). Economic disparities inherent in rural areas have been a focal point, with investigations into how varying levels of economic development, access to resources, and market conditions impact entrepreneurial activities (Welter & Smallbone, 2003). Studies have also explored sectoral differences within rural entrepreneurship, encompassing

diverse industries such as agriculture, tourism, crafts, and technology-driven ventures. This sectoral lens allows for a granular understanding of the challenges and opportunities specific to different sectors within rural economies (Bathelt, 2004).

Furthermore, attention has been given to policy and institutional variations, examining the influence of government policies, support structures, and institutional frameworks on the success and sustainability of rural enterprises (Minniti, 2009). The exploration of these diverse contextual backgrounds not only enriches our understanding of rural entrepreneurship but also provides insights crucial for tailoring effective strategies and interventions in different regional and cultural settings.

8. Directions for Future Research about Rural Entrepreneurs

As the field of rural entrepreneurship advances, it is imperative to chart a comprehensive research agenda that addresses the evolving dynamics of non-urban entrepreneurial ventures. Longitudinal studies stand out as a critical avenue for future research, allowing scholars to capture the temporal dimensions of rural enterprises. These studies can offer insights into the evolution of businesses in rural settings, providing a nuanced understanding of how various internal and external factors influence their trajectories over time (Welter & Smallbone, 2003). Embracing a longitudinal perspective is crucial for unravelling the complexities of rural entrepreneurship, considering the unique challenges and opportunities that unfold across different phases of business development.

An interdisciplinary approach presents another promising direction for future research in rural entrepreneurship incorporating insights from disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, and environmental science can contribute to a more holistic understanding of the socio-cultural and environmental contexts shaping rural entrepreneurial activities (Korsching & Tegtmeier, 2015). This interdisciplinary lens can illuminate the intricate relationships between rural entrepreneurs and their communities, shedding light on how cultural values, social networks, and environmental sustainability impact entrepreneurial behaviours and outcomes.

The role of technology and digital innovation in rural entrepreneurship emerges as a focal point for future inquiry. As technology continues to reshape business landscapes globally, understanding how rural entrepreneurs leverage digital tools becomes paramount. Investigating the adoption of technologies in marketing, supply chain management, and communication can unveil transformative opportunities for rural businesses. This direction aligns with the broader

theme of overcoming geographical constraints, connecting rural entrepreneurs to broader markets, and enhancing overall productivity (Huggins & Thompson, 2015).

Furthermore, there is a compelling need to address the unique challenges faced by underrepresented groups within rural entrepreneurship. Past research has often overlooked the diversity within rural communities, and future studies should pay careful attention to gender and minority perspectives. Research in this direction can uncover barriers, opportunities, and strategies for promoting inclusivity, fostering a more equitable and diverse landscape of rural entrepreneurship (Jack & Anderson, 2002).

Lastly, future research should critically examine the effectiveness of policy interventions in fostering rural entrepreneurship. By evaluating the impact of various policies on business creation, growth, and sustainability, researchers can provide evidence-based insights that inform policymakers and contribute to the development of targeted and effective support mechanisms for rural entrepreneurs (Minniti, 2009).

In conclusion, the future research agenda in rural entrepreneurship should be characterised by a multidimensional and forward-looking approach. Incorporating longitudinal studies, embracing an interdisciplinary perspective, exploring the role of technology, addressing diversity, and evaluating policy interventions are key directions that can enhance our understanding of rural entrepreneurial ecosystems, ultimately contributing to the development of effective strategies for sustainable rural development.

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Civic Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

This study presents the broad scope of civic entrepreneurship. It provides a definition, recent research findings, basic theoretical frameworks, concepts, methodologies, contextual background, and future research directions. Developing socially responsible initiatives and dealing with critical societal challenges is part of civic entrepreneurship. Recent findings on the strategic role of civic entrepreneurship in different industrial contexts emphasise its relevance to education, public services, and society. It has been theorised with the support of stakeholder perspective theory, triple bottom line theory, and social network theory. While methodologies use qualitative interviews, case studies, and content analysis, conceptualisations focus on altruism and social innovation. Future research agendas promote global comparative analyses, examination of the role of technology, ethical considerations, and cross-cultural cooperation and sustainability to develop this dynamic area.

Keywords: Civic Entrepreneurship, Civic Innovation, Social Innovation

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1. What is Civic Entrepreneurship?

According to the Leadbeater and Goss (1998), civic entrepreneurship is the renegotiation of the mandate, a public organisation's sense of purpose, which allows it to find out new ways in which people and resources are combined, both public and private, for the sake of improving social outcomes, greater social value and more social capital.

Ranga and Etzkowitz (2013) described civic entrepreneurship as an altruistic activity, as "the free contribution of time and effort to a project for the greater good of society without the expectation of financial benefits." This definition highlights the selflessness of civic entrepreneurship, with a particular emphasis on individuals' voluntary commitments to social welfare. In a parallel vein, Leadbeater and Goss (1998) offer an illuminating perspective that civic entrepreneurship is "the renegotiation of the mandate and sense of purpose" of public organisations. Their argument centres on the transformation potential in public institutions, which could enable novel partnerships by combining resources and people from the public and private sectors (Mupeta & Muleya, 2019).

At its core, civic entrepreneurship aligns with community-focused initiatives, such as non-profits and social enterprises, seeking to create social value and drive change at the intersection of markets and civil society (Mair & Marti, 2006). Linked closely with social innovation, civic entrepreneurship generates novel ideas and practices that address social needs and challenges (Phills et al., 2008). Civic entrepreneurship aims to innovate and establish novel approaches for fostering social capital while leveraging existing ideas, methods, inventions, technologies, resources, or management systems. So, the main objective of civic entrepreneurship is to channel these elements toward collective goals, emphasising a commitment to the betterment of the community or society at large (Banuri & Najam, 2002).

There has been significant interest in civic innovation in recent years, especially when aligned with civic entrepreneurship (Mupeta & Muleya, 2019). According to (Biekart, 2017), in the face of crisis narratives, civic innovation is about focusing on what is positive, innovative, and inventive. In this study, the researcher has explained two broader approaches to civic innovation: urban studies and development studies. The practice-oriented urban-focused approach to civic innovation focuses on enhancing the quality of life and the functioning of government and non-profit organisations, also called "civic renewal" (Sirianni & Friedland, 2001).

In conclusion, civic entrepreneurship is an emerging area of interest in entrepreneurship literature. Through this concept, researchers have focussed on socially responsible and sustainable initiatives that address critical social challenges with innovation and effectiveness.

2. Recent Research Findings on Civic Entrepreneurship

Numerous studies have been carried out, looking at the dynamic interplay of civic entrepreneurship in different industrial contexts. For instance, some studies provide a valuable perspective on the synergies between sustainable practices and civic entrepreneurship initiatives (Carayannis & Zedtwitz, 2005). Moreover, an exhaustive examination of the links between business networks and civic entrepreneurship has been carried out, giving insight into complex dynamics at work (Goldsmith, 2010). Furthermore, several studies offer strategic insight into how to address challenges efficiently, which concerns the implementation of civic entrepreneurship in a university context (Mupeta & Muleya, 2019).

3. Theories Explaining Civic Entrepreneurship

Different theoretical frameworks have been used to clarify the complexities of civic entrepreneurship within a range of contexts. One notable feature is that scholars have identified several theories, such as stakeholder perspective theory, triple top-line theory, and social network theory, to analyse and elaborate on this concept.

In order to explore the diversity of interests and influences of civic entrepreneurial activities, stakeholder perspective theory, which provides insight into the complex network of stakeholders and their roles, has been frequently applied. In addition, in evaluating the holistic impact of civic entrepreneurship and its various outcomes beyond financial considerations, a triple-bottom-line theory covering economic, social, and environmental dimensions has been instrumental (Freeman, 1984). The theory of social networks has also emerged as a critical theoretical framework (Wasserman & Faust, 1994), providing insight into the complex web of relationships and interactions underpinning successful civic entrepreneurial initiatives (Goldsmith, 2010).

These theoretical perspectives have expanded civic entrepreneurship to explore multiple dimensions and concerns in different contexts (Mair & Marti, 2006).

4. Conceptualisation and Operationalisation of the Concept of Civic Entrepreneurship

When examining the field of civic entrepreneurship, researchers have adopted a variety of conceptual frameworks that take different perspectives. One of the most common conceptualisations focuses on civic entrepreneurship as an altruistic contribution of time and effort to projects aimed at improving society without financial expectations (Ranga & Etzkowitz, 2013). The selfless commitment of individuals to the greater good, which forms the foundation of civic entrepreneurship research, is underlined by this altruistic perspective.

In addition, scholars often use the prism of social innovation to examine civic entrepreneurship, linking it to community initiatives such as non-profits and social enterprises (Mair & Marti, 2006). The role played by civic entrepreneurship in developing new ideas and practices to respond to social needs and challenges are emphasised through this conceptualisation, which underscores its collaborative and socially relevant nature.

Similarly, Leadbeater and Goss (1998) stated that civic entrepreneurship is characterised by its dual focus on political renewal and managerial change, its collaborative nature, and its commitment to going beyond individual acts of innovation to disseminate and embed solutions for maximum social value.

The dynamic interaction between altruism, institutional transformation, social innovation, and community impact is all too evident within researchers' conceptualisation of civic entrepreneurship. Scholars are trying to build a coherent framework, bringing together the various parts of civic entrepreneurship and providing valuable insight into their motives, challenges, and potential for change within various contexts.

5. Methodologies Used in Civic Entrepreneurship Research

The research scholars (Ranga & Etzkowitz, 2013) have adopted qualitative methodologies to explore a deeper understanding of the motivation and experiences of civic entrepreneurs; interviews were the most commonly used method to collect data which includes the participant's views, challenges experienced by civic entrepreneurs, and strategies they use. Case studies have also been used to study civic entrepreneurship (Leadbeater & Goss, 1998). To understand the contextual factors, challenges, and outcomes of civic entrepreneurship initiatives in the real world.

Some researchers have used content analysis to systematically examine written or visual material about civic entrepreneurship through articles, reports, and social media content. This

method allows researchers to gain insight into the main themes, trends, and changes in discussions about civic entrepreneurialism (Mair & Marti, 2006).

While considerable literature on civic entrepreneurship is empirical studies designed as qualitative or quantitative, integrating these two approaches is less frequent. Researchers can further strengthen the quality of their research and offer a more holistic understanding of motivations, problems, or effects linked to civic entrepreneurship in several different contexts through an integrated set of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The potential for methodological diversification to have a significant impact on the development of civic entrepreneurship knowledge is underlined by this observation.

6. Diverse Contextual Background of the Past Research on Civic Entrepreneurship

Civic Entrepreneurship studies are located in a wide range of contexts to understand the specific characteristics and effects of civic entrepreneurship through the influences of different cultures, economies, or political contexts.

For instance, a study on civic entrepreneurship initiatives in the United States (US) has explored different sectors, ranging from social enterprises addressing urban challenges to grassroots community efforts (Wessner, 2005). Some other studies in the US have focussed on linguistic analysis to examine the interactions of civic business through factors such as federal policy, local government structure, and socio-economic dynamics (Wessner, 2005).

In the United Kingdom (UK), research on civic entrepreneurship has focused on community-driven initiatives, looking at how civic entrepreneurs navigate regulatory frameworks and work with the public and private sectors (Lukesch et al., 2020). In the UK, studies have examined civic entrepreneurialism's impact on social innovation and community development (Lukesch et al., 2020).

Studies related to civic entrepreneurship in the context of Brazil have explored community-led initiatives and SMEs (Mura, 2018). These scholars have looked into the contribution of civic entrepreneurship in addressing social inequalities and supporting sustainable development in Brazil's communities (Mura, 2018).

Researchers have contributed to a global understanding of this phenomenon by examining civic entrepreneurship in diverse contexts, recognising that unique cultural, historical, and institutional factors shape their dynamic.

7. Directions for Future Research Agenda in Civic Entrepreneurship

In order to deepen our understanding, address emerging challenges, and influence knowledge development in this dynamic area, the evolution of a civic entrepreneurship landscape provides many opportunities for further research efforts.

Conducting comparative analyses of the dynamics of civic entrepreneurship to identify patterns, differences, and similarities across countries and to explore how cultural, institutional, and contextual factors influence the initiation, success, and sustainability of civic entrepreneurship initiatives on a global scale is a potential researchable area. In civic entrepreneurship, researchers can explore the role of technology and innovation to understand how digital platforms, blockchains, artificial intelligence, and other technological developments are shaping the landscape of civic entrepreneurship. This will allow new forms of cooperation and impact.

By examining the ethical dimensions of civic entrepreneurship, which include social justice, equity, and environmental sustainability, researchers can focus on how civic entrepreneurs deal with ethical issues and incorporate them into their decisions.

By addressing these issues, future research on civic entrepreneurship can contribute to a more complex and comprehensive understanding of this area.

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MOS REVIEW

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Migration

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Abstract

The objective of this conceptual paper is to provide an overview of migration from a global perspective by referring to the extant literature in management and organisation studies. The paper examines different conceptualisations and recent research findings on migration including the Sri Lankan context. Moreover, the theories and methodologies adopted in migration studies are explored. The paper concludes by providing some future directions in migration studies to both students and scholars.

Keywords: Career Development, Migration, Theories on Migration, Sri Lanka

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1. Migration as a Global Phenomenon

Migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another, to settle in a new location. Human mobility has been a common phenomenon to mankind dating back to early civilisations, as people migrated in search of better livelihoods with ample food and safer environments. However, migration is gaining ground more than ever before in today's global and interconnected world with rapid technological, telecommunication, and transportation advancements. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2022) underscores that more than 281 million people have migrated across international boundaries in 2020, which equates to 3.6 per cent of the global population.

Despite the absence of a concrete definition, IOM (2019, p.132) interprets migration as the movement of a person “away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons”. Human mobility within and across borders varies due to a multiplicity of reasons as shown in extant literature.

Sinha (2005, p. 403) highlights that migration is viewed as “a form of individual and group adaptation to perceived changes in the environment”. People change the location they live in voluntarily or involuntarily as remedies sought for economic, environmental, political, and social problems (Sinha, 2005). Many migrants tend to change their place of residence in search of greener pastures, seeking ‘a better life’ to escape the dire socio-economic and political conditions they face at home. Migrants fleeing war and hardship apply for asylum or refugee status in countries with safer living conditions. Moreover, a majority migrate in search of employment opportunities where the remittances from such migrant workers make up a significant portion of some countries' foreign income (Fernando, 2019).

The 1992 United Nations Convention on Climate Change called for countries to understand how migration patterns are affected by environmental factors and natural disasters (Leggett, 2020). As Leggett (2020) puts it, each year since 2008, more than 25 million people become displaced due to natural disasters, five times more than those displaced by violence. There are more host countries (118) for migrants displaced by natural disasters than those displaced by war/conflict (37) (Leggett, 2020).

Migration also happens with internationally mobile students. As per the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2019), the biggest destinations

for internationally mobile students are the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Germany and the Russian Federation. The biggest sender countries according to the same source include China, India, South Korea, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, and several Central Asian countries.

With this broader understanding of migration, a closer look at different scholarly conceptualisations will be explored next.

2. Conceptualisations of Migration

Migration is the most complicated aspect of population change than births and deaths (Newell, 1988; Sinha, 2005). As such, it has various shades of meanings. As cited in Sinha (2005), Zelinsky (1966) frames migration as a dynamic phenomenon connected with cultural diffusion and social integration; Trewartha (1969) identifies migration concerning racial, linguistic, and nationalistic mixing of Earth's population; Shrivastava (1983) connects migration with special integration of communities; whereas, Ogden (1984) interprets migration as geographical organisation of human society.

Technically, migration is also interpreted as 'relocation diffusion' by Keith Chapman (1979) (as cited in Sinha, 2005). Diffusion means the dispersion of people, their ideas practices, and innovations from one place to another. Thus, the process of spreading ideas, behaviours, and objects from one location to another through people is known as relocation diffusion.

However, as a concept, migration is often conflated with immigration and emigration. How do these concepts differ from one another? As per the Britannica Encyclopaedia, immigration is the process through which individuals become permanent residents or citizens of another country. The immigration experience is long and varied and has in many cases resulted in the development of multicultural societies. On the contrary, emigration is the departure from a country for life or residence in another.

The section that follows captures the recent research findings scholars have identified in migration studies.

3. Recent Research Findings

Migration is viewed as a social phenomenon that results in both positive and negative impacts (Bown & Lent, 2013). From a more positive perspective, migration is identified as a force that

elevates people's level of expectations for better living standards and job opportunities in the host country (Lusia, 2020). Thus, migration has become commonplace mostly among educated people, especially professionals in developing countries (Fernando, 2019). Consequently, a prominent theme migration studies negatively focus on is brain drain (Fernando, 2019; Kennedy & Chen, 2012). According to Kennedy and Chen (2012) 'brain drain' is interpreted as the emigration of well-qualified, talented professionals from one country to another. Lower wages and poor work arrangements and environments associated with highly educated people cause them to leave their home countries in search of greener pastures elsewhere.

A study performed on migration and education by Vakhitova and Coupe (2014) in Ukraine has claimed that most of the migrants who moved to wealthier countries are professionals and skilled technicians. However, the semi-skilled persons who migrated were not bothered about the educational aspects of their migration decisions or job selection.

Migration of professionals and career development programs also gained traction in recent studies. Kennedy and Chen (2012) highlight features of migrants (both positive and negative) and their career development. Although the literature on immigrant professionals' positive aspects in career development and transitions is limited, this study investigated how such professionals successfully integrated themselves into a foreign job market. On the contrary, the negative features included discrimination, barriers to better employment, underemployment, and unemployment. Moreover, the study emphasized 'motivation to learn' as a critical skill behind the career success of immigrants who constitute an integral part of the growing knowledge economy in Western contexts (Kennedy & Chen, 2012). Thus, a more reasonable life-career transition is considered as beneficial.

Interestingly, Guhlich (2020) investigated a different dimension of migrant professionals and their career development considering the prevailing support systems including family, social networks and welfare schemes, including child-care facilities in Europe. This study highlights that such support schemes play a pivotal role in safeguarding migrant professionals' negotiating ability in the labour market. Yet, this study does not look at other nationalities and cultures where support schemes including family norms and social welfare systems can be dynamic and unique from the European setting.

Apart from the social support mechanisms in place, Guhlich (2020) also links the role of employers in enhancing the career development opportunities of their migrant professional

service providers. Determining immigrant career pathways, career outcomes and practical implications for training and development programs and human resource management, in general, are considered important in meeting the specific needs of immigrant professionals.

Migration studies also focus on female professionals and their experiences. Bandara (2011) proclaims a set of features of Sri Lankan female professionals' experiences in New Zealand. They embrace independence and gender equality, complex negotiations with women's parents, a liberal attitude towards marriage/partner, and complex interaction with traditional Sri Lankan values. Furthermore, the study stated that there is a tendency for migrant female professionals to stay single which stood out as a significant feature. A closer look at the local context is considered next.

4. Migration in Sri Lanka

Most of the Sri Lankan migrant workers are either semi-skilled (25%) or low-skilled (34%) workers (Sri Lanka Bureau for Foreign Employment (SLBFE), 2022) despite their contribution to the economy is significant. Whereas, professionals and skilled constitute respectively 4.6% and 30% as per the same source.

Semi or low-skilled workers face many difficulties throughout the migration process (Fernando, 2019; Lansakara, 2022). Being a vulnerable segment, they need social protection to manage their risks/uncertainties via formal institutions such as the SLBFE. Implementation of bilateral agreements and legal policies to safeguard migrant workers' rights, pre-departure training, providing information, affordable financial and insurance facilities, support services for disabled migrant workers and their families, and reintegration programs are some of them (SLBFE, 2022).

The International Labour Organization (ILO), an implementing partner of the 'Safe Labour Migration Programme' in Sri Lanka has initiated a knowledge hub to curate research studies on labour migration in identifying gaps and trends enabling evidence-based policy-making (Lansakara, 2022). The findings collated underline three priority areas: labour market supply and demand, skills recognition leading to better wages and enhanced well-being, and skills and reintegration assessment. The knowledge hub developed will bring together the Ministry of Labour and Foreign Employment and SLBFE as a centralised portal to ensure greater access to information for all stakeholders in the labour migration landscape (Lansakara, 2022).

5. Theories Shedding Light on Migration

The Theory of Migration introduced by Everett Lee, a Professor of Sociology at the University of Georgia is prevalently used in the field of migration (Bhende & Kanitkar, 2013). This theory is known as the Push and Pull Theory/Lee's Theory. It is both simple and has withstood the test of time. Lee's theory, which draws on principles of sociology, attempts to formalise a theory of migration which would provide a scheme of the factors that could explain the volume of migration between origin and destination. As cited in Bhende and Kanitkar (2013), Lee has conceptualised the factors associated with the decision to migrate and the process of migration into the following four categories: (1) Factors associated with the area of origin; (2) Factors associated with the area of destination; (3) Intervening obstacles; and (4) Personal factors.

Theories on career development have been commonly used in studies that relate to migration and career development (Deirdre, 2019). Such theories as cited in Deirdre (2019) are the Trait Factor Theory (matching personal traits to occupations) introduced by Frank Parson (1920s); Holland's Theory (1985) that underscores psychological and personality types matching work environments; Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory (1977) of motivation in psychology; and Donald Super's Career Development Theory (1950's) on developmental self-concept over the life span. According to Super's theory, 'career' which is the entire lifetime of a person, has been split into five stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline.

Asiedu (2010) claims two main theories that have been generally used to explain the migration of skilled labour: Human Capital Theory and Structuralist, Neo-Marxist theory. The former focuses on the individualistic, cost-benefit framework people adopt to seek employment and remuneration more appropriate for their formal education and training. The latter takes a macro-level approach that highlights the structural weaknesses in the organisation of training and skills. As per this argument, professionals have been training not for the local market but for global reflections.

6. Methodologies Adopted

Research on migration studies has adopted qualitative methodologies including interpretivism using in-depth interviews (Bandara, 2011) and narrative studies (Kennedy & Chen, 2012). There are quantitative studies carried out using surveys (Lansakara, 2022) to explore current

trends in migration in Sri Lanka. Moreover, Fernando (2019) has used mixed methods in the study conducted on migration and its mitigation effects.

7. Directions for Future Research

There are gaps in the literature on migrants and their career development of counselling networks to improve the employment prospects of immigrants through consultation, training, skill assessment and business start-ups (Hughes et al., 2019).

Apart from the research findings stated above, thematic categories namely, labour migration governance (including research on trafficking in persons), foreign employment recruitment, remittances, return and reintegration of migrant workers, leveraging human mobility in support of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) including climate change and migration patterns are some of the new areas being explored by scholars (Lansakara, 2022).

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MOS REVIEW

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Workplace Bullying

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Abstract

Workplace bullying is a concept well-researched in the past decades. It has created a vast spectrum of knowledge in the area of deviant behaviour under organisational behaviour and human resources management. The existing knowledge include variety of definitions, findings of different types of workplace bullying, antecedents, consequences, and reactions to workplace bullying, measurement scales, as well as coping strategies. Numerous theories and methodologies have been used in these researches. Despite the huge volume of knowledge created in this area, the debates are still continuing. The aim of this paper is to present a simple summary of the existing knowledge around the concept of workplace bullying so that readers can understand its background research base and be informed with any remaining research agendas.

Keywords: Bullying, Types of Bullying, Workplace Bullying

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1. Introduction

Bullying at work is becoming more widely acknowledged as a serious issue in contemporary organisations. Workplace bullying is a topic addressed in the field of Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management, where it is classified as deviant behaviour and falls within the broader category of 'harassment.' Additionally, workplace bullying is recognised as a type of workplace violence (Einarsen & Nielsen, 2015).

A violence-free work environment is beneficial for everyone in the workplace. It is well noted that the workplaces where violence happens are not positive for the victim, and in the long term, they are not good for other employees or even the person causing the violence. People who experience workplace violence, including the victim and others involved, may suffer from various mental health issues which may badly affect the performance of the work organisation as well as the individual members (Gorenak, 2014).

1.1 What is Workplace Bullying?

There are numerous ways to define workplace bullying (Saunders et al, 2007). However, workplace bullying is simply described as unwelcome, unfriendly behaviour in the work environment. As per Olweus (1994), it can involve a real or imagined difference in social power between the interacting individuals. This definition doesn't cover one-time or minor situations (of bullying) because behaviour is usually of a recurrent nature. Especially, bullying means actions done on purpose to hurt or upset another person (victim).

Thus, workplace bullying is a consistent pattern of mistreating others. It can involve direct personal attacks or using hurtful words to demean or embarrass someone (Adams et al., 1992). Bullying at work can make people feel unsafe in their job environment (Attell et al., 2017), which may lead to emotional distress and even physical harm. Workplace bullying involves a broad range of behaviours (Ahmad, 2018).

1.2 Types of Workplace Bullying

Types of bullying can be broadly classified into verbal, social, physical, cyber and psychological bullying (Antiri, 2016). Isolation, overwork, and destabilisation (not giving proper recognition or credit to the employee) have also been identified under workplace bullying (Cowie et al., 2002).

Verbal Aggression: Different types of verbal aggression include competence attacks, character attacks, background attacks, physical appearance attacks, malediction, teasing, ridicule, threats, swearing, and nonverbal emblems (Bekiari & Pachi, 2017). Types of verbal aggression at workplace are yelling, screaming, and swearing, constant and unfair criticism, deliberately insulting others and taking part in behind-the-back put-downs, and sending aggressive emails or notes.

Social Exclusion: Social exclusion means isolation at work (Cowie et al., 2002) which may include (a) isolating employees from opportunities, information, and interaction with others, (b) purposely excluding or isolating a co-worker, and (c) engaging in an excessive social bantering, teasing, and humiliation.

Overwork: Overwork in bullying includes (a) giving impossible deadlines, creating undue pressure and stress, and overworking employees, (b) making unreasonable demands, and (c) monopolising supplies and other resources.

Physical and Non-verbal Aggression: Giving hostile glares and any other intimidating gestures are categorised as physical and non-verbal aggression.

Emotional Manipulation: Workplace bullying may happen in the form of emotional manipulation where it occurs (a) intimidating or undermining employees by demeaning their work standards, not giving them credit, setting them up for failure, and constantly reminding them of old mistakes, (b) threatening employees' personal self-esteem and work status, (c) blaming without factual justification, (d) monitoring another excessively, and (e) stealing credit for other employees' work.

2. Current Research Areas around the Concept

Workplace bullying is a well-researched concept. Therefore, current research findings are available on many aspects of this concept. Most highlighted are (a) defining and elaborating the concept of workplace bullying (Saunders et al., 2007), (b) nature and types of workplace bullying (Branch et al., 2012; Desrumaux et al., 2018; Einarsen, 1999; Praslova et al., 2022), (c) measuring workplace bullying (Cowie et al., 2002), (d) factors leading to bullying (Rossiter & Sochos, 2018), (e) antecedents and consequences of bullying (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003; Hoel et al., 2003; Neall & Tuckey, 2014), (f) behavioural reactions of victims on workplace bullying (Djurkovic et al., 2005), (f) coping strategies of bullying (Dehue et al., 2012; Paciello

et al., 2019), (g) intervention types of workplace bullying (Caponecchia et al., 2020), (h) organisational and individual impacts of workplace bullying (Bartlett II & Bartlett, 2011), and (i) upward bullying (Busby et al., 2022; Patterson & Branch, 2018).

3. Theories Used in Workplace Bullying Research

A few major theories used in the workplace bullying research are mentioned below.

Conflict Theory: Conflict theory denotes that society is in a conflict due to disparities in power and status, and competitiveness of social members for scarce resources. Therefore, conflicts are visible not only among individual social members but also among social groups (Glasl, 1982). Accordingly, conflict theory has been used to explain the situation of workplace bullying due to disparities in the social classes or among individuals due to power imbalances (Hoel et al., 1999; Zapf & Gross, 2001).

Social Exchange Theory (SET): Conceptualising social behaviour as exchange (Cook & Rice, 2003), social exchange theory discusses social, economic, and psychological transactions (Ahmed, 2023) in a social context. Originated from the micro level analysis of basic social processes from a social psychological perspective, this theory has been developed into a macro level of analysing social exchanges in a broader social context (Emerson, 1976). Previous researches have applied social exchange theory-based concepts of justice, psychological contract breach, and perceived organisational support in understanding perceptual and subjective elements of workplace bullying (Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

Balance Theory: Balance theory posits that people tend to resolve (cognitive) imbalances and thus try to maintain balances when they experience tension, injustice, or mistreatment. Balance theory has been used to examine dynamic social processes (Hummon & Doreian, 2003). Social balance theory has been used to analyse interpersonal networks among social agents (Khanafiah & Situngkir, 2004). By using balance theory, workplace bullying researchers explain that ill-treated or abused employees try to reduce that tension or restore justice by using a less powerful target (Brotheridge, 2013). Volk et al. (2014) note that bullying is an aggressive goal-directed behaviour that harms another individual within the context of a power imbalance. Dordolo (2014) has studied the role of power in cyberbullying. The role of power in workplace bullying (Hutchinson et al., 2010), individual and organisational power in addressing workplace bullying (Hodgins et al., 2014), and use of power in upward bullying (Patterson & Branch, 2018) have been studied.

4. Conceptualisations in Workplace Bullying

Rossiter and Sochos (2018) examined the moderating effects of social support on the link between workplace bullying and burnout. Numerous concepts have been related in the workplace bullying research. Emotions such as anger and sympathy, and anti-and pro-social behaviours (Desrumaux et al., 2018), employee attitudes, organisational justice, perceived organisational support, psychological contracts (Parzefall & Salin, 2010), and coping with workplace bullying (Zapf & Gross, 2001). There are a number of antecedents, moderating and mediating variables connected to workplace bullying in the past research. Most of the antecedents of workplace bullying have been workplace related matters such as workplace inequality, workplace stressors, workload, job demands, etc., while mediators have been relationship, group, interpersonal conflicts, and role related matters. Most of the moderators have been leadership, psychological contact, management style, and personality related concepts (Rai & Agarwal, 2018).

5. Methodologies Used in Workplace Bullying Research

Workplace bullying is a well-researched area. Previous researchers have comprehensively reviewed the existing literature and published review articles in this area (Einarsen, 1999; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Further, conceptual papers (Branch et al., 2013; Hodgins et al., 2020; Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Standen et al., 2014; Volk et al., 2014) have also been written. In addition, empirical investigations through quantitative means (Rossiter & Sochos, 2018; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013), as well as qualitative inquiries (Baillien et al., 2009; Patterson & Branch, 2018) have been conducted on workplace bullying. Diverse methods have been used in the workplace bullying research. Some researchers used vignettes to examine participants' reactions to stories (Desrumaux et al., 2018), some others used categorical data (Notelaers et al., 2011), and while some researchers used the method of answering a question through the vantage point of a particular theoretical perspective (Brotheridge, 2013).

6. Contexts of the Past Research on Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying related researches have been conducted in diverse contexts. Higher education (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013), nursing (Hutchinson et al., 2010), and risk groups (Notelaers et al., 2011) are some of them. There were few studies on workplace bullying in the Sri Lankan context (Amarawickrama & Adikaram, 2021; Thisera & Navaratne, 2018).

7. Directions for Future Research in Workplace Bullying

With the evolution of digital tools and techniques supporting research, workplace bullying-related research can advance with the assistance of such tools. Consequently, artificial intelligence (AI) and analytics could be effectively utilised in future research. Future studies may need to consider the evolving nature of organisations, their environments, and the generations in the workplace, paying particular attention to changing work norms and ethics. Thus, future research in this area would explore how organisational dynamics, such as structures and designs, organisational change, and industry characteristics, affect the prevalence and manifestation of bullying. Additionally, digital health interventions and technology-based interventions can be proposed as new areas for investigation.

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Dirty Work

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Abstract

This article delves into the concept of "dirty work", encompassing tasks and roles perceived as socially and morally tainted. It traces the origins of the term; presents recent research findings on the experiences of individuals engaged in such occupations, and the physical, psychological, and social challenges they face; and the theories such as Social Identity Theory (SIT), Status Construction Theory (SCT) that is widely used to theorise dirty work. The paper presents diverse contextual backgrounds and methodologies employed and finally directions for further research highlighting that research in this area is still emerging.

Keywords: Dirty work, Social Identity Theory, Status Construction Theory

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1. What is Dirty Work?

According to Ashforth and Kreiner (1999), dirty work means tasks, occupations, or roles that are likely to be perceived as disgusting. Hughes (1951) was the first person to use the term ‘dirty work’ to describe jobs in which workers are required to perform physical tasks that are disgusting, degrading, or “run counter to the more heroic of our moral conceptions” (p. 319). Hughes defined dirty work in a subsequent publication as a three-tiered classification that included work responsibilities that were perceived as physically, socially, or morally tainted (Hughes, 1958, p.122). For instance, physical taint, in situations where the work involves trash, bodily fluids, death, or dangerous conditions; social taint, when the work requires contact with demonised networks (i.e., ‘politeness disgrace’) or subservient jobs; and moral taint, in situations where the work goes against social, ethical, or religious norms (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Hughes, 1958).

2.Theories Explaining Dirty Work

Research on dirty work is an emerging area of research in management and organisational studies (Zhang, 2023). The research done in Pakistan by Zulfiqar and Prasad (2022), used theories such as SCT along with SIT to understand toilet cleaning as dirty work from the vantage point of Pakistan. SIT denotes that one’s opinion of oneself is influenced by how others see them, hence dirty workers are conscious of the social stigma associated with their line of work. This knowledge impacts one’s perception of oneself (Mastracci, 2021). It was developed by social psychologists Henri Tajfel and John Turner in the 1970s. SIT predicts that people form groups based on their social identities, highlighting similarities with in-group members and contrasts with out-group members (Simpson et al., 2012). Individuals who work in stigmatised occupations, according to SIT, actively develop positive self-images and utilise various tactics to reframe their work-related identities in order to overcome the stigma associated with their jobs. This theory focuses on the symbolic dimensions of dirty work, as well as how people navigate and negotiate their identities within the social environment of their occupation.

SCT is another theory that has been used to study dirty work. It explores the social histories of commonly held status ideas (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006), which can help explain why repressive discriminating institutions are culturally rooted. Through the SCT, we can see that the normalisation of untouchability (associated with certain castes), as well as its subsequent

internalisation, occurs between the high and low status groups when members of both groups have been socialised to believe that domestic boundaries are immutable, unproblematic, and 'natural' (Ridgeway et al., 1998). SCT exceeds SIT by concentrating on how social status hierarchies are produced and maintained. SCT acknowledges that status is shaped not only by individual attributes or group membership, but also by social processes and interactions. Status, according to SCT, is a socially produced phenomenon rather than an intrinsic trait possessed by individuals or groups. It emphasises that social evaluations, judgments, and attributions made by others in a certain setting determine status. These assessments are based on a variety of characteristics, including occupation, education, wealth, and social ties.

SCT gives insights into how the status of individuals engaged in stigmatised occupations is built and sustained in the setting of dirty work. It aids in understanding how power dynamics and societal judgments impact workers' experiences and agency in relation to dirty work.

In addition to the SIT and SCT used by interpretive researcher, studies which are more functionalist have drawn on identity theory and relational identity theory (Zhang et al., 2023) to argue that dirty work employees' self-views at work are partly connected to their relationship with specific and significant others and that validation from this relationship can be an important source for buffering the negative effects of work dirtiness on meaningfulness at work.

3.Recent Research Findings around the Concept

In a study of garbage collectors by Hamilton et al. (2017) found that these workers create tales of 'daily heroism' to assert their dignity and counteract negative connections with dirty work. In garbage collecting work, they discovered three discourses of dignity construction: affirmation, hierarchic regard, and paternalistic care. Affirmation is the act of declaring one's work and identity as positive and valid in terms of producing a socially desirable public good. Hierarchic regard is established through unequal status, both in relation to outsiders and insiders, and involves lower occupational members projecting heroic status towards their occupational elders. Paternalistic care focuses on care techniques that challenge the notion that dirty work is antithetical to heroism and damage dignity.

According to the findings of Vlijmen (2018), cleaners (who are considered to be engaged with dirty work) are proud of their work, but not satisfied with themselves. They hope that their children will get a better job than them due to the social stigma assigned to such work.

Zulfiqar's (2019) research looks at the changing dynamics of domestic employment in Pakistan, focusing on themes such as dirt, foreignness, and surveillance. Domestic work's evolving relationships show the complexities and power dynamics that are present in this sector. The study sheds light on the issues faced by domestic workers in Pakistan by providing significant insights into the social, cultural, and economic elements of domestic employment.

On a similar line Terskova and Agadullina's (2019) study explored the dehumanisation of dirty workers and how it affects sentiments regarding social assistance. According to the findings of the study, dehumanisation has a substantial impact on attitudes regarding social assistance for dirty workers. The study emphasises the significance of combating dehumanisation in order to foster more positive attitudes and support for people engaged in dirty work.

Mahalingam et al.'s (2019) study focused on caste-based social relations that reproduce inequalities by devaluing Dalit labour in India as 'dirty work'. Dalit is the untouchable caste in India. The study argued that subjectivities of Dalit's, their labour, and sufferings including occupational hazards become invisible which forces these janitorial workers to provide a counter narrative to preserve the memory of their trauma and injuries to their dignity. The suffering of these dirty workers who work in appalling, hazardous conditions is erased from the public memory because of the association between their 'polluted' caste status and dirty work.

The study conducted by Deery et al. (2019) selected personnel who specialised in cleaning abandoned social or public housing flats in high-crime regions in the United Kingdom and the United States. They found that reframing the work in terms of its physical demands and inherent danger helps to recast the activities in a more positive perspective and boosts self-esteem. Furthermore, the emphasis on masculinity and power can represent defiance and resistance to the taint and low prestige of dirty manual labour. At the same time, the somewhat flexible monitoring system allows staff to have some autonomy and control over task scheduling and execution. Finally, they observed that the variety of jobs and activities benefit workers by instilling greater purpose and meaning in their employment.

According to study done by Mahalingam and Rabelo (2019) Cleaners who do "invisible" dirty work (not being recognised by customers) frequently feel neglected and unappreciated in their roles. The experience of invisibility at work can have a negative impact on cleaners' well-being

and self-esteem. The study emphasises the importance of cleaners receiving more attention and support in order to solve the issues they experience in their work.

In another study done by Zulfiqar and Prasad (2022) on workers who engage in dirty work argue that they do not require any tool to clean their reputations or affirm their dignity by recasting their identity in self-affirming ways. Zulfiqar and Prasad used social construction theory and established a significant link between the workers' marginalised identities and their involvement in unclean occupations.

Wittmer (2023) investigated the influence of clean-up activities in Indian cities on low-income janitorial women recyclers in Ahmedabad. The author selected an Urban Political Ecology approach to investigate how the concept of a "clean and green" city affects the work of these women. According to the study, modern waste management procedures re-spatialise and masculinise waste work, making it more difficult for janitorial women to obtain waste and earn a living. Furthermore, the women express a desire for a clean city but feel disconnected from its conception and production. The focus on developing contemporary, ecological cities, according to the authors, can hurt socially underprivileged and gendered bodies by displacing people from labour and denying them urban citizenship.

The study of Eriksson (2023) explored how Australian prison workers see their profession and how others perceive it, by focusing on how prison workers deal with the stigma of their job by reframing, refocusing, and recalibrating their everyday activities. The study emphasised the difficulties of cultural change within the profession as a result of the strong occupational and workgroup cultures that emerge as a result.

These recent research shows an emerging interest among organisational studies researchers in studying 'dirty work' from an interpretive perspective, and the complexities of worker identities stemming from these contexts such as gender, caste and stigma in addition to social class.

4. Diverse Contextual Backgrounds and Methodologies Used in the Past Research on Dirty Work

Lofstrand et al. (2016) have selected public police officers in Sweden and the United Kingdom (UK) to study dirty work to see how these officers are stigmatised within their industry and in turn influence their self-esteem. Another study in a similar research context (Northeast England) conducted by Hamilton et al. (2017) focused on street cleaners employed by a local government authority to conduct their study through a qualitative methodology.

Zulfikaar (2019) has chosen a neighbourhood in Pakistan with 90 apartment houses. The flats are part of a private university's main campus and are rented to faculty members. Residents are both colleagues and neighbours in this close-knit community. Each apartment has at least one, but sometimes two or three women working to clean, cook, and care for the children. He gathered information through participant observations and in-depth interviews. He chose nine domestic helpers for in-depth interviews.

The study done by Mahalingam et al. (2019) with selected workers engaged in dirty work, especially those who were city cleaners during the floods that occurred in Chennai in 2015. The focus of the study was on caste based social relations and occupational hazards faced by such workers from an interpretive research perspective.

Deery et al. (2019) selected 317 employees in UK and 107 employees in the USA who specialised in the cleaning of abandoned social or public housing apartments in high crime areas to conduct their study on how dirty work is affecting the satisfaction level of the employees. The data collection had been done in both qualitative and quantitative form.

Mahalingam and Rabelo (2019) selected 199 employees who work at a large public Midwestern University in Texas and have conducted open-ended questions. Another subset of 12 cleaners were selected and in-depth interviews has been done. The study explored how cleaners experienced invisibility (not recognised by customers), what invisibility feels like (feeling that work unappreciated) and why they were rendered invisible (Rabelo & Mahalingam 2019).

Vlijmen (2019) study was conducted in Netherlands by interviewing 24 cleaners who work in schools, office buildings, hotels and hospitals. From the 24 participants 21 of them were females as most of the cleaners were identified to be female.

Terskova and Agadullina (2019) selected 340 Russian students from National Research University's Higher School of Economics took part in their study and were randomly assigned to one of four (kind of work: physical vs. social vs. moral vs. control) between group designs. All respondents were freshmen from the departments of Psychology and Political Science. The first experimental group (physical dirty work) had 89 people, the second experimental group (social dirty work) had 82, the third experimental group (moral dirty work) had 80, and the last experimental group had 89 participants. The participants responded to questions about human uniqueness and human nature features, as well as attitudes toward societal support for filthy workers.

Zulfiqar and Prasad (2022) study selected low-caste toilet cleaners in Pakistan to study this concept. They have conducted in-depth interviews with 91 women and men who were engaged in cleaning work in domestic (e.g. cleaners, nannies, cooks, gardeners, or drivers) and non-domestic spaces like gyms, hotels, airports, hospitals, and universities in the city of Lahore.

Wittmer's (2023) research draws on interview and participant observation data collected in Ahmedabad as part of a wider mixed-methods study conducted over a 10-month period between 2016 and 2018 – in an ethnographic form. The study began with a survey of women recyclers in ten randomly selected regions of the city, which informed semi-structured interviews with a subsample of respondents regarding their daily routines and employment, as well as their well-being and organisation. After a year, the researcher returned for follow-up visits and a series of group workshop talks with female recyclers to track changes in their practice and to debate and confirm preliminary findings. He draws on interviews with local activists and NGO staff in Ahmedabad, as well as a discourse study of media and policy papers. He also observed and engaged in the participants' daily tasks such as rubbish collection, material sorting, and home visits.

Eriksson (2023) selected seven Australian prisons of varying security levels which ranging from high to low. A qualitative approach has been used and it illustrates how staff responds to working in a dirty work profession by reframing, refocusing and recalibrating their work tasks.

While these research on dirty work conducted from a quantitative perspective (see for e.g. Zhang et al., 2023), this section presented recent research on dirty work from a qualitative perspective, due to the nuances and the complexities it could explore among workers engaged

in dirty work, especially in non-Western contexts. While most research is from Western contexts there are few emerging research from the non-Western contexts as well.

5. Directions for Future Research

Based on past literature, studies have identified that future research should continue to explore the intersections of identity, dirty work, and emotional labour, as well as the impact of broader social discourses in workers' daily lives, including more explicit studies of race, class, gender, and sexual orientation (Rivera, 2015). Further, research suggests studying how the cleaners experience their jobs and how it affects the workplace and for the personal lives (Vlijeman, 2019). Some studies argue that dirty work could be expanded to jobs that involve aged care work such as nurses, residential care workers and administration staff and such studies could explore their career identity in relation to their job, organisational systems, processes and culture (Clarke & Ravenswood, 2019)

Future research could explore the dynamics of dirty work in the non-West contributing to the emerging stream of literature in this context (Zulfiqar & Prasad, 2022) and explore how workers make sense of their work in such stigmatised contexts.

Terskova and Agadullina (2019) states that their study had an unequal sample with a significant number of women, which may restrict the findings. According to Gilligan (1982), women are more prone to utilise empathy to appreciate issues and the needs of others. Women, on average, are more inclined to help others and are better at offering emotional support than men (MacGeorge et al., 2003). As a result, the study's relatively high degree of social support for dirty workers may relate to women's proclivity to be more prosocial than men. However, this assumption will need to be validated further in future investigations. To better understand dehumanisation of workers based on "dirty" stigma, future studies could identify different types of dirty work with high and low status and compare the degree of their dehumanisation, allowing researchers to control the role of different "dirty" stigma, social status, and their interaction in the dehumanisation of dirty workers (Terskova & Agadullina, 2019)

Rabelo and Mahalingam (2019) states that future research could look at invisibility from the perspective of perpetrators, who may be implicated, whether intentionally or unintentionally, in damaging cleaners' dignity and working conditions. Are clients, for example, aware of how

they make cleaners (and their labour) invisible? Could any interactions with clients reduce workers' anguish caused by unfavourable perceptions of invisibility? In addition, adding the viewpoints of 'perceivers' and 'receivers' could help to clarify how assessments of and attributions for invisibility affect the coping process. For example, how do employees' perceptions of others make them invisible because of absent-mindedness vs. class injury shape appraisals?

The researchers Galazka and Wallace (2023) invite other scholars to investigate theoretical alternatives to SIT that may provide more explanatory power when actors' positionality within social power structures is considered.

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Standard Time in Operations Management

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Abstract

The 19th century saw the emergence of “standard time,” which is essential to most industries as it synchronised clocks worldwide and created time zones. This concept paper aims to provide an overview of standard time from a global perspective. Research scholars in management explore the importance of standard time and its adaptation for decision-making for organisational performance. Embracing predefined time standards empowers organisations to make consistently informed decisions, improving outcomes and overall performance. Moreover, the theories and methodologies adopted in standard time are explored. The paper concludes by providing some future directions in standard time to both students and scholars.

Keywords: Management, Organisation, Process, Standard time

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1. What is “Standard Time”?

When clocks in a given area are synchronised to a single time standard instead of depending on local mean time standards, this is called “standard time.” Since then, standard time has become vital for all industries and humans to set practices. The term ‘Time zone’ arose and describes the Earth's regions that share the same standard time. The Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) is the primary time standard by which the world regulates clocks and time. The purpose of time zones is to standardise timekeeping globally (National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2020).

Standard time was first adopted in the late 19th century to coordinate railroad schedules and other activities that crossed different time zones. The idea arose in the 19th century in response to various communities' difficulties using local hours. The earliest design of a global standard time reference system was produced in the late 1870s by Canadian railway designer and engineer Sir Sanford Fleming in response to scheduling problems brought on by railway routes that crossed several cities (Liberg, 2021).

As an international coordination initiative, Standard Time has significantly enhanced various facets of daily life by establishing a unified and efficient method for timekeeping across different regions and activities. From an organisational perspective, adopting standard time provides a structured and systematic approach to decision-making, resulting in heightened efficiency, accuracy, transparency, and alignment. Embracing predefined time standards empowers organisations to make consistently informed decisions, improving outcomes and overall performance. This commitment to standardised time streamlines operations and fosters a cohesive and globally synchronised environment, positively impacting international collaboration and organisational effectiveness. For example, Kanawaty (1992) describes standard time as a work measurement technique using time study to accurately determine the time required to perform a task or activity under specified conditions. It involves analysing the data to obtain the time necessary for carrying out the job at a defined level of employee performance.

2. Research Findings of the Concept of “Standard Time”

As defined by Barnes (1968), standard time refers to the time required by a qualified and well-trained person working at an average pace to complete a specific task. Accordingly, the time study, which involves determining standard time, has been recognised as essential in

completing tasks efficiently. Scholars have also discussed the importance of standard time in different organisational contexts around the globe. Many studies related to the standard time concept were carried out in the manufacturing sector.

2.1 Application of Standard Time in the Manufacturing Industry

Eraslan (2009) introduced an innovative approach for estimating standard time within Turkey's most extensive moulding and machining company. This involved applying a Multilayer Perceptron Artificial Neural Network (MLP ANN) model designed to optimise calculation time, reduce costs, and enhance accuracy in production planning. This alternative method demonstrated efficiency by providing quicker results and underscored its potential to contribute to more cost-effective and accurate production planning processes within the company.

Hartanti (2016) stated that standard time is derived from the time study method and is also used by many measurements in the plastic product manufacturing workplace. He also mentioned that the work measurement technique is mainly used to quantify the work content related to a job in terms of the standard time. This study emphasises that standard time is one of the vital determinants of establishing adequate workloads of workstations to increase productivity.

Similarly, Wickramasekara and Perera (2016) stated that standard time is the total time in which a job should be completed at the standard performance level in the apparel industry. Moreover, Shao et al. (2021) identified seven influencing factors for standard time in the sewing process. They proposed a novel forecasting model based on a support vector machine (SVM) with particle swarm optimisation (PSO) to predict the standard time of the sewing process, which is crucial for measuring production efficiency and forecasting in the apparel industry.

The study by Maflahah et al. (2022) revealed that proposed improvements in the cutting and packaging stages of a sticky rice product significantly enhanced the efficiency and effectiveness of the entire operational process. These findings highlight the crucial role of standardised time in optimising production outcomes, showcasing its pivotal contribution to operational restructuring and improved overall efficiency.

Budiman et al. (2019) studied standard time to optimise assembly lines. They found that work time measurement is crucial for achieving balance and efficiency in production activities. The study highlighted the impact of time measurement on the company's production. Moreover,

analysing the standard time in the assembly process discussed by past scholars helps to understand the fuzzy analytic hierarchy process. Suszyński and Cieślak (2017) stress four methods for analysing standard time in the assembly process: chronometric analysis, working-day activity study, work sampling observations, and fundamental motion analysis. In addition to that, Mayasti et al. (2023) also found that the standard time approach is essential for analysing workload. Accordingly, production depends on calculating cycle and standard time to determine ideal labour arrangements and workforce size.

2.2 Application of Standard Time in Other Industries

Furthermore, the concept of standard time has been explored across various manufacturing industry sectors. Notably, Liberg's (2021) inquiry is rooted in the idea of an absolute time governed by the energy dynamics of space medium. This unconventional perspective challenges established notions about the essence of time, suggesting that the movement of particles reflects the propagation of energy within this space medium. Liberg's study introduces a unique viewpoint that interconnects time dilation and the particular theory of relativity with our fundamental perception of time.

Establishing a standard time for military aircraft washing operations underscores the crucial requirement for adequate manpower and time management, as indicated by Lan et al. (2019). In their study conducted in Hualien, Taiwan, the researchers used stopwatch time study and work sampling methodologies to derive a practical standard time for these operations. The findings stress the significance of optimising efficiency in military aircraft maintenance by developing standardised time parameters.

2.3 Impact of Standard Time on Managing the Organisation

The impact of standard time has been the subject of huge investigation by scholars, particularly regarding its association with time pressure. Roxburgh's (2004) study uncovered that time pressure is a significant source of distress for individuals in North America, affecting both men and women unevenly. Managing time pressure emerges as a potential strategy to mitigate depressive outcomes. Roxburgh's research examined the connection between subjective time pressure, depression, and its mediating role, providing insights into the gender differences observed in depression.

Moreover, McDaniel (1990) conducted a study investigating the influence of time pressure and audit program structure on audit performance, contributing valuable insights to the existing literature by highlighting the independent effects of time pressure and structure on auditor judgment. The results underline the findings of surveys, indicating that increased time pressure reduces audit effectiveness.

Furthermore, Giurge and Woolley's (2022) study explores another crucial aspect emerging from the standard time discourse. Their findings reveal that working during non-standard work hours, such as weekends and holidays, as opposed to standard work hours (Monday-Friday, 9 to 5), weakens individuals' intrinsic motivation for professional and academic activities. This research highlights the influence of standard time on people's motivation.

Similarly, it is noticed that the relationship between standard time, goal setting, and employee performance is crucial in organisational dynamics. Erez and Kanfer (1983) emphasise that effective time management significantly influences an employee's motivation, mainly through self-monitoring behaviour. According to their study, time management is critical for navigating tasks efficiently when meeting goals. Coch and French (1948) mentioned that collaborative goal-setting and evaluation involving both employees and superiors enhance motivation. The interplay between standard time, goal setting, and time management establishes a framework for organisational success. Standard timelines for tasks to foster effective time management align individual efforts with organisational goals and cultivate a motivated, performance-driven workforce.

Other than the above studies, scholars used different theoretical foundations to examine standard time. Labour theory (Marx, 1867; Smith & Rogers, 1776), Scientific management theory (Taylor, 1911), Goal setting theory (Locke, 1968), Human relations theory (Mayo, 1945), and Liberg's (2021) theoretical approach are some of them.

Therefore, it is understood that standard time and time management concepts are closely linked, as they both revolve around the effective use and organisation of time. In particular, standard time is a reference point for scheduling and planning activities. Time management concerns setting goals, prioritising tasks, and allocating time for various activities. Moreover, the above literature highlighted that standard time is used as a benchmark for creating schedules and timelines; standard time can also help identify inefficiencies and areas for improvement and

adhering to schedules based on standard time; individuals and organisations can optimise their use of time to manage their time effectively and efficiently.

Concerning the above literature around the concept of standard time, it is understood that study on standard time could be linked to many other areas in management. It also could be seen that standard time could act as a common language for coordinating activities and communicating schedules. It helps coordinate efforts and build collaboration across different individuals or organisations and nations across the globe. However, the concept of standard time in a management context has not been explored much by scholars.

3. Theories Explaining Standard Time

Labour theory suggests that the value of a product or service is determined by the amount of labour invested and its emphasis on standard time as a way to measure and quantify labour, providing a basis for determining the value of work (Marx, 1867; Smith & Rogers, 1776). In scientific management theory, Taylor (1911) focuses on optimising efficiency in labour processes. He introduced the concept of time and motion studies to standardise and improve work processes. Further, he mentioned standard time as a product of this approach, aiming to establish a scientifically determined standard for the time required to perform a task. Goal setting theory proposed by Locke (1968) posits that specific and challenging goals lead to higher performance. It highlighted the standard time integration into goal setting to provide a clear timeframe for achieving objectives. It helps individuals and organisations set realistic deadlines and expectations. Liberg's (2021) theoretical approach investigates the essence of time using models based on physics and study focused on work challenges standard concepts of time by providing a theoretical and physics-oriented basis. The human relations theory pioneered by Mayo (1945) emphasises work's social and psychological aspects. Standard time in this context is viewed as a tool for setting realistic and achievable goals contributing to employee satisfaction and motivation.

4. Diverse Contextual Backgrounds and Methodologies Used in the Past Research on Standard Time

Previous studies on standard time have come from various contextual settings, and standard time research methods include theoretical, methodological, conceptual, historical, qualitative, and quantitative techniques. Most studies on the standard time have adopted quantitative methodologies (Eraslan, 2009). A similar study conducted by Budiman et al. (2019) used the

time study method proposed by Adam and Edbert (1992). In this study, time study analysis was carried out using a stopwatch. This study was conducted in an assembly company in Sumatera Utara, Indonesia, and work time measurement was done by collecting the primary data directly from the company's operators. The study of Hartanti (2016) used methodology to describe steps to solve a problem observed in a plastic manufacturing company. Their primary data were obtained through observation and interviews. Qualitative studies are carried out using observations developed through a case study approach (Wickramasekara & Perera (2016).

To summarise, research is conducted in a variety of settings, theoretically challenging established practices, stressing the advancement of science and metrology, providing a practical foundation to work, addressing organisational issues, investigating the context of navigation, exploring historical synchronisation, and introducing an interdisciplinary framework that examines time preferences.

5. Directions to Future Research Agenda in Standard Time

Future studies can provide valuable insights into the evolving role of standard time in the workplace and its impact on individuals, organisations, and global operations. They can investigate the implications of standard time on outsourcing practices, its influence on decision-making, and its impact on mental health and well-being in developing countries during crises. They can also examine how organisations can implement flexible schedules while adhering to standard time, assessing its impact on work-life balance and employee satisfaction. Additionally, future studies can explore how meeting or exceeding standard timelines influences customer perceptions and loyalty in product and service delivery across different regions. Additionally, they can investigate how technological advancements, such as automation and artificial intelligence, influence the concept of standard time. Furthermore, future studies can explore how standard time is perceived and managed across different cultures, highlighting the importance of understanding and managing time effectively.

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