
Appendix A: Major Leadership Theories

Two streams of research at Ohio State University (OSU) and the University of Michigan fueled a modern debate on leadership that has persisted until today. Modern theories of leadership departed from the traditional trait theories that proposed that some people are “born leaders.” According to trait theories, the leaders are endowed with certain characteristics, physiological, psychological, and intellectual, that set them apart from others. All we have to do is identify people with these traits and assign them to leadership positions. Years of research, however, has shown that while certain traits increase the likelihood of a leader’s success, they do not guarantee it. Researchers have found that the leader’s behavior, rather than his/her traits, is more important in determining leader effectiveness. Consequently, attention was shifted toward situational demands and followers’ characteristics and their influence in determining leadership effectiveness. The initial ideas were highlighted in the studies that took place at OSU and the University of Michigan during the late 1940s and early 1950s. The following is a brief review of these theories. Before we review these theories, we should note that the “contemporary leadership field is an American product—an American seed planted in American soil and harvested by American scholars, educators, and consultants” [1].

The OSU and the University of Michigan Studies

Two separate research efforts at OSU and the University of Michigan produced similar results. The OSU researchers identified two dimensions of leadership behavior that influence the followers’ work performance. These two dimensions are *consideration* for workers and *initiating structure* or task orientation. Comparable dimensions were reported by researchers at the University of Michigan and were labeled *employee oriented* and *production oriented*. Supportive leaders, who create a friendly environment for workers and establish their relationship on the basis of mutual trust and respect, are demonstrating concern for workers. Examples of consideration (employee-oriented behavior) are closer relationships between employees and their managers, treating subordinates as equals, doing favors and promoting the welfare of employees, giving advance notices of changes in the organization, and explaining managerial decisions. Leadership behavior that

Fig. A.1 A synthesis of the two dimensions of leadership

People Dimension	High	High concern for people and low concern for work	High concern for people and high concern for work
	Low	Low concern for people and low concern for work	Low concern for people and high concern for work
		Low	High
		Work Dimension	

is related to task accomplishment and the efficient use of resources includes initiating structure and production-oriented behavior. Close supervision of work activities, allocating tasks, scheduling work, supplying work instruction, and generally providing the workers with direction and assistance in doing their jobs represent different aspects of this dimension.

A Synthesis of Concerns for Production and Concerns for People

The studies at the University of Michigan and OSU served as a springboard for further leadership research. In a departure from the trait theories, these studies brought to our attention the fact that the leader's behavior makes a difference in the subordinates' work performance and attitudes.

While early research findings regarding the effects of these two dimensions on workers' performance have not been consistent under all conditions, certain patterns have been identified. The researchers at these universities found that, often, high consideration and employee-oriented behavior were associated with employee satisfaction, low turnover, and low absenteeism. The impact of consideration on performance, however, was low. Higher productivity and lower employee satisfaction were frequently related to high initiating structure and production-oriented behavior [2, 3].

Since concern for people and concern for production are two separate dimensions, it appears that leaders can employ a combination of both. Such a combination has actually been proposed by some scholars of leadership: In their book *Managerial Grid*, Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton have suggested that by combining a concern for people with a concern for production, managers can achieve the best results [4].

Figure A.1 depicts the results of combining the two dimensions of leadership behavior. The four quadrants in Fig. A.1 illustrate four extreme variations of leadership behavior. At the lower left-hand side of the figure, Quadrant 1 represents a

low concern for production and low concern for people. This is the stereotypical ineffective manager who does not show much concern for either the workers or the work. The upper left-hand side, Quadrant 2, a combination of low concern for production and high concern for people, represents people-oriented behavior without much concern for the work. Quadrant 3, the lower right-hand side, is a combination of high concern for production and low concern for people, which typifies a task-master style. The upper right-hand side, Quadrant 4, is a mixture of high concern for workers and high concern for work. Some management scholars have suggested that this is a very effective leadership style.

Likert's Managerial Systems

Managerial leadership takes place in the organization, and it is influenced by the prevailing managerial practices. Therefore, it is not sufficient to study individual leadership behavior alone without taking into consideration the organizational norms and practices. Leadership behavior that is contrary to the prevailing managerial practices of an organization will not produce the desired results. Rensis Likert developed a questionnaire that measures the organization's management system. He proposed that there are four types of management systems: (1) exploitative authoritative, (2) benevolent authoritative, (3) consultative, and (4) participative. These systems are based on the varying degrees of trust and confidence that the manager exhibits toward the subordinates. The following is a brief description of the four systems [5]. Research results have been varied, but there has been some evidence of support in US settings.

System 1: Exploitative Authoritative. This system has no confidence and trust in subordinates. It relies on centralized decision-making from the top of the organization. Subordinates are not involved in any important decision-making. In System 1 management, fear, threats, punishments, and occasional rewards are major instruments of motivation. The superior-subordinate relationship is limited to, and is based on, mistrust and fear. An informal organization develops that is parallel to the formal organization. It usually resists and opposes the goals of the formal organization.

System 2: Benevolent Authoritative. The relationship between superior and subordinate in System 2 resembles a master-servant relationship. Managers express a condescending confidence and trust toward subordinates. The superior-subordinate relationship is characterized by patronizing behavior by superiors and cautious approach by subordinates. Although most decisions are centralized at the top of the organization, within a prescribed framework, some decisions are made by the people at the lower levels. Rewards and punishment are used for motivating subordinates. An informal organization may develop within a System 2 organization that does not always oppose formal organizational goals.

System 3: Consultative. While managers have a substantial amount of confidence in subordinates, they still prefer to maintain control over most decisions.

Strategic decisions are made by the top-level managers. Subordinates, however, are allowed to make many of the decisions affecting the lower levels. Communication flows in both directions, upward and downward. Rewards, some occasional punishment, and involvement in decision-making are the major motivating tools of System 3. The informal organization that usually develops within the formal organization may have an ambivalent attitude toward the formal organizational goals.

System 4: Participative. The participative management system is characterized by complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Decentralized decision-making differentiates this system from the other three systems. Communication flows freely between all levels of organization. Subordinates participate in setting economic rewards, establishing goals, determining the methods of improving performance, and appraising progress toward goals. Substantial and friendly interaction between subordinates and superiors creates a high degree of confidence and trust. Control is decentralized throughout the organizational hierarchy. There is a great overlap between formal and informal organizations. Often, they are one and the same.

Likert proposed that System 4 is an effective managerial leadership approach. Research studies, primarily based in the United States, tend to support his contention that participative management is associated with favorable attitudes toward the leader, open channels of communication, and group cohesiveness. Productivity and employee job satisfaction tend to be higher among System 4 organizations.

Situational Leadership

As attention turned away from the search for leadership traits and moved to efforts to find the best leadership behaviors or style, another set of factors emerged. Specifically, researchers discovered that no one particular style was effective under all situations. They concluded that the effectiveness of leader behavior is a function of the situation at hand. Situational factors such as the followers, the work, organizational culture, and other environmental factors influence the leader's effectiveness. This realization was expressed in several situational theories of leadership. The most popular situational theories are the leadership continuum and the contingency models proposed by House and Fiedler.

The Leadership Continuum

According to Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt [6], leadership is viewed as a continuum. At one end of this continuum is the total control by the boss (leader-manager) through the exercise of authority, and at the other end is the subordinate's autonomy to make decisions within prescribed limits. As Fig. A.2 illustrates, as we move from right to left along this continuum, leader-managers play less of an authoritarian role, and the autonomy, power, and influence of subordinates increase.

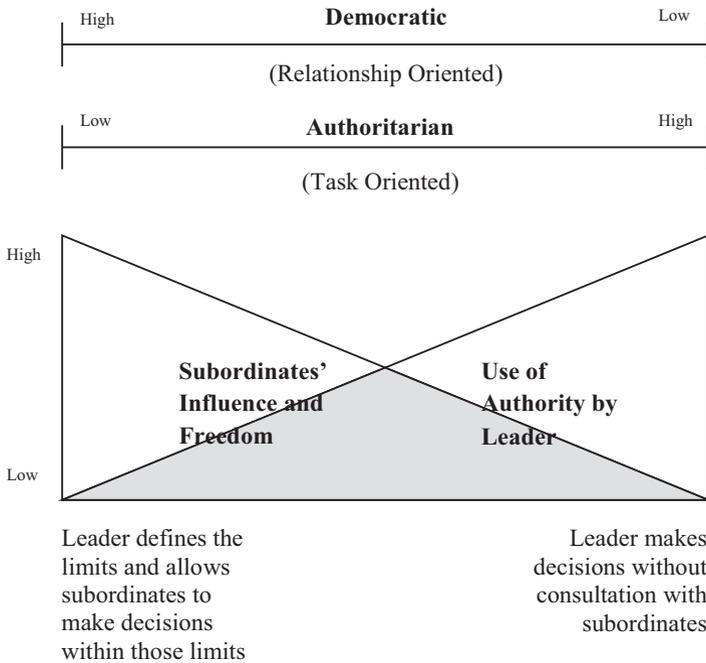


Fig. A.2 Leadership continuum

At the extreme right of the continuum, authoritarian leaders tend to use their power to influence their subordinates. They make decisions alone without consulting their subordinates. At the other extreme left of the continuum, democratic leaders define the limits within which subordinates can make all the decisions and allow them full participation in decision-making. A middle-ground approach is followed by the leaders who combine inputs from subordinates with the authority of the position for making decisions. Authoritarian leaders tend to be task oriented, and democratic leaders tend to be relationship oriented.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggested that there is no one best way to lead. Leaders should use their power according to situational demands. Four situational factors could determine the appropriate use of power by a leader-manager. These situational factors are (1) subordinates’ personalities, (2) subordinates’ expectations about leader behavior, (3) subordinates’ willingness to accept responsibility, and (4) group’s ability to accomplish the tasks. A combination of the situational requirements may dictate the full use of power by the leaders. If individual subordinates are not self-directed and require close supervision, if the workgroup is unable to solve the problems, if they are not willing to take responsibility, and if they expect the leader to take charge, then the task-oriented leadership style may be more productive. In the opposite situations, the relationship-oriented leadership style would be more appropriate. Situational factors such as time pressure, the nature and scope of the problem, and organizational circumstances also affect the manager’s behavior.

House's Contingency Model of Leadership

The leadership continuum as proposed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt is an acknowledgment that leadership behavior is similar to other types of behavior. It does not take place in a vacuum. Forces outside the leader have a bearing on his/her behavior. It brings to our attention the fact that leaders are not fully autonomous and are not totally oblivious to their surroundings. There are potential forces that influence leadership behavior. Robert House has pulled together elements of a number of theories to propose a contingency model of leadership called path-goal theory [3, 7]. House proposes that there are three major categories of factors that affect the style the leader adopts. These factors are the nature of the subordinates, the organizational setting, and the group. The leader's style, then, changes in response to these factors. An effective leader assists the followers in reaching their goals and ensures that the followers' goals are compatible with the overall organizational objectives. In other words, effective leaders clarify the path for individuals to reach their goals and at the same time contribute to the attainment of overall organizational objectives. Let us take a brief look at the forces that influence leadership behavior.

Subordinates' Characteristics and Response

The subordinates' characteristics influence the leader. A leader may be inclined to closely supervise subordinates who are ill-trained, lack experience, or are unwilling to assume the full responsibility of their jobs. Conversely, a leader may prefer to delegate responsibility and grant autonomy to those subordinates who have demonstrated the ability and the willingness to do the job without much external control. Like other people, leaders tend to like and trust those whose background and characteristics are similar to themselves. Therefore, the amiable relationship that may exist when the leader and the subordinates have something in common may result in more democratic leadership behavior.

Organizational Settings

The Task. An important factor affecting employee performance is the nature of the task. Certain task characteristics reduce or eliminate the need for guidance and directions by the leader. Those who work on interesting and intrinsically satisfying tasks may not require much external motivation and persuasion. They may perform their jobs even in the absence of a leader. Under time pressure, most people, including the leaders, become directive and task oriented. Faced with ambiguity, crisis, and looming work deadlines, subordinates look up to the leader for direction and expect instruction and guidance. In such situations, a leader may exhibit behavior that is more autocratic without experiencing too much resentment and resistance from the subordinates.

Organizational Climate. Organizational climate and the leadership philosophy of top management have a great bearing on the rest of the employees. Some organizations are known for a bureaucratic climate in which adherence to strict rules is expected. Such a climate may encourage tendencies toward a more centralized, directive, and autocratic leadership behavior. Conversely, where top management demonstrates a preference for informal relations, managers are more apt to rely on such behavior in their dealings with the subordinates.

We are all subject to influence by our peers, and manager-leaders are not immune to this. Individual managers are affected by the managerial style and behavioral pattern of other managers. Years of association with peers tend to create some degree of similarity in attitudes and a dominant style of leadership among the managers. Deviations from the norm are frowned upon and adherence to standards is promoted. A manager who treats his/her subordinates relatively leniently, for example, may hear objections by other managers who fear that their subordinates may demand a similar treatment.

Workgroup

Groups are the primary work units within most organizations. Very seldom can individual job assignments be performed independently and outside a group setting. These assignments are usually carried out within a workgroup structure. The members' characteristics and the resources they bring to the workgroup determine the group's characteristics. The nature of the workgroup influences the quantity and quality of the work performed by the individuals and the effectiveness of leadership behavior. For example, when there is a high level of conflict within the group, a directive leadership behavior (i.e., providing work guidelines and work schedule) would be effective. By recognizing the nature of the workgroup and providing the type of assistance, guidance, and coaching that is needed, the leader can influence the group and individual performance.

Leadership Characteristics

Leadership behavior and the person of the leader are inseparable. Personality differences result in people behaving differently under different conditions. Motivating forces could be external or internal to the individuals (see Appendix B on motivation). Those high on achievement need or power, for example, may feel more comfortable giving orders and emphasizing task accomplishment. Others who are high on affiliation need may be more interested in forming friendly relationships with people. These managers may not directly push for a higher performance. Instead, they may rely on personal relationships in fulfilling their responsibilities. The leader's philosophy regarding human nature greatly influences his or her relations with followers. As Douglas McGregor [8] proposed, some managers, called *Theory X*

managers, assume that people, by their very nature, are lazy, dislike working, and avoid responsibility whenever possible. They, therefore, believe that people need to be controlled directly and coaxed to work hard using whatever measures may be necessary, including coercion and threats of punishment. Some other managers, called *Theory Y managers*, believe that engagement in mental and physical work is as natural to people as playing and resting. They assume that people generally like to work, do not shy away from assuming responsibility, and, under the right conditions, will perform to the best of their abilities. Therefore, the use of external control, and the threat of punishment, is not the best way to improve work performance. These two different philosophies, naturally, result in two different approaches to leadership behavior. Theory X managers tend to be more task oriented, while Theory Y managers tend to be more relationship oriented.

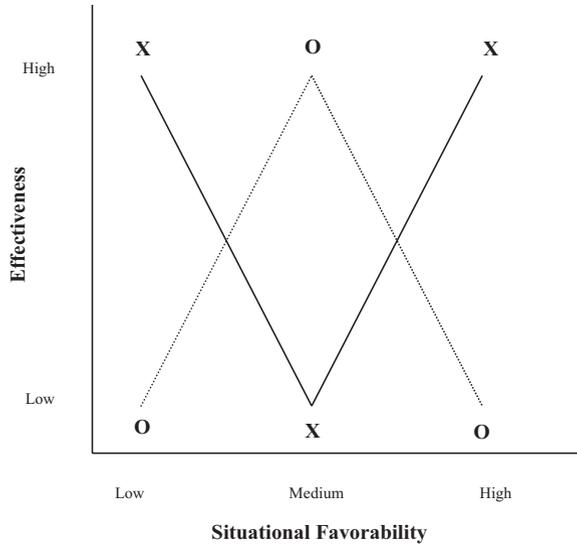
The above discussion on the influence of situational factors on leadership behavior highlights the interactive nature of the leadership process. It also implies that effective leaders are flexible in directing their followers and select leadership styles to fit the situation. Appropriate leader behavior is something that matches the primary demands of the situation. For example, a participative style can be used when subordinates are well trained, the job is clear-cut, and the group supports the organizational goals. In contrast, where the opposite conditions exist, a more directive or authoritarian style is appropriate. House's path-goal theory of leadership proposes that there are many forces impinging on the leader's relationship with the subordinates. The understanding of these forces can assist the leader-manager in selecting a proper course of action that meets the challenge of managing.

Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fred Fiedler [9] proposed a different contingency model stating that both styles of leadership, namely, concern for work (task oriented, similar to OSU "initiating structure") and concern for people (relationship oriented, similar to "consideration" for OSU), could be effective under certain conditions. The conditions that influence the effectiveness of these leadership tendencies depend on a combination of three elements: task structure, leader's position power, and leader-member relations. Various combinations of these elements produce situations that are favorable or unfavorable to the leader. Leadership effectiveness depends on a match between the leader's behavioral inclinations and the favorableness of the situation.

Leader-Member Relations. The situational favorability is strongly influenced by the leader-follower relationship. A situation is favorable to the leader if the group's acceptance of him/her is high, if the group and the leader are getting along, and if there is a high degree of regard for the leader. In such a favorable situation, the group and the leader can work together, and the leader has no difficulty in leading them. A leader who is liked and respected can influence the group far beyond the limits of his/her authority.

Fig. A.3 Effective leadership behavior in various situations. Note: X = task oriented; O = relationship oriented. (Source: Based on Ref. [10].)



Task Structure. A task is structured if all the requirements for performing it are known to the members. The leader has no problem determining what should be done, who should do it, how it should be performed, and the reason for doing it. Such a task leaves less room for misunderstanding and disputes. The more a task is structured, the higher the situational favorableness.

Position Power. Position power refers to the amount of power and influence that the leader has. A strong power position enables the leader to easily lead the group. No one would question his/her authority. Four types of power, legitimate (authority), expert, reward, and coercive are the basis for the leader’s position power.

Various combinations of these elements could create conditions that are either favorable or unfavorable to a leader. A favorable condition is when the task is structured, the power position is strong, and the leader-member relationship is good. An unfavorable condition is a combination of unstructured tasks, weak position power, and poor leader-member relations. Leaders who are task oriented are more effective under both extremes of conditions: favorable and unfavorable (see Fig. A.3). Relationship-oriented leaders are more effective under moderately favorable conditions. An example of a favorable situation is being a well-respected and highly qualified head of an engineering firm. The tasks are structured, the power position is strong, and the leader-member relationship is good. A task-oriented leader would be able to get his/her group to work hard because they like him/her; they know the requirements of the tasks, and the leader has sufficient power to influence them. In an unfavorable situation, the only way to get the group to work hard is to demand it by setting goals, providing instructions for doing it, and guiding and controlling the work.

Compared with task-oriented leaders, relationship-oriented leaders are not very effective in the very favorable or very unfavorable situations. Their relative ineffectiveness is probably due to their lack of emphasis on production and the minimum pressure they apply for higher performance. Relationship-oriented leaders are more effective in situations that are moderately favorable. In such situations, the more directive attitude of task-oriented leaders may lead to anxiety and conflict within the group. The nondirective and permissive attitude of a relationship-oriented leader is more effective.

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Appendix B: Major Motivation Theories

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Motivation theories are classified into two groups: content theories and process theories. Content theories explore *what* motivates people. They attempt to identify items and issues that arouse and energize behavior. The most famous content theories are Maslow's need hierarchy, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and McClelland's three-factor theory. Process theories deal with *how* people are motivated. They examine the specific steps involved in the motivation process. Vroom's expectancy theory and Adam's equity theory are well-known process theories.

Content Theories of Motivation

All the well-known content theories of motivation have been developed by American theorists and involved only US subjects. In the following, we briefly discuss major content theories.

Hierarchy of Needs

The cornerstone of most content theories is Abraham Maslow's concept of the hierarchy of needs [1, 2]. Maslow identified five categories of human needs, which follow a hierarchical order of importance and satisfaction. In this hierarchy, the lowest needs have to be reasonably satisfied before the next level of needs is activated. Ranging from lowest to highest, these need categories are physiological, security, social (affection), esteem (self-esteem and esteem of others), and self-actualization. Two principles form the foundation of this theory. The *deficit principle* states that a deprived need is a motivating force. This implies that a satisfied need is not motivating. People attempt to satisfy unfulfilled needs in the hierarchy. According to the *progression principle*, people seek the satisfaction of their needs in a progression

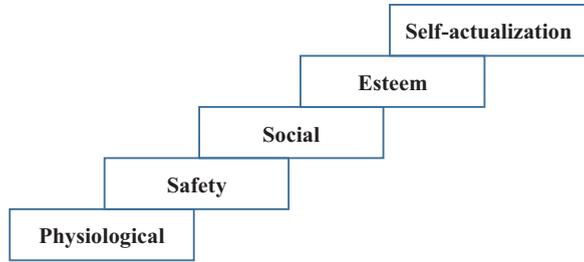
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Fig. B.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs



from the lower levels to the higher levels. Each level of need is activated only after the preceding lower-level need has been sufficiently satisfied. Figure B.1 depicts this hierarchical relationship.

The early suggestion that these needs might have an instinctive origin led to a universality assumption in later interpretations of Maslow's theory. Maslow himself cautioned against overgeneralization due to a number of exceptions he had noted to the theory of hierarchical satisfaction. Many management scholars believe that in the American culture, the true motivator is the need for achievement, and its satisfaction is relatively independent of the lower-level needs.

Motivators and Hygiene Factors

Herzberg identified two groups of factors, hygiene and motivators, that influence individual performance in work organizations [3, 4]. Hygiene factors could only create discomfort if they were not met, but they have no effect on motivation. These factors are external to the job (extrinsic) and include technical supervision, working conditions, pay, relations with peers, etc. Hygiene factors correspond to the lower-level needs in Maslow's hierarchy. Motivators include job-related (intrinsic) factors such as the work itself, achievement, responsibility, and recognition. Motivators corresponded mainly to the highest needs in Maslow's hierarchy. We can portray this theory as a simplified, two-level version of Maslow's need hierarchy as depicted in Fig. B.2.

McClelland's Three Motives

This theory identifies three important individual drives (needs): achievement, power, and affiliation. People are motivated to satisfy these needs. McClelland [5] suggested that the need for achievement was the most important factor leading to economic success. He proposed that, at the national level, the aggregate level of this need was related to the rate of economic development. Achievement-oriented individuals seek responsibility and concrete feedback, take moderate risks, and are loners. In contrast to Maslow and Herzberg, McClelland believed that the need for achievement, and related attributes, could be taught and, in fact, that the culture played an important role in socializing individuals toward the motives [6].

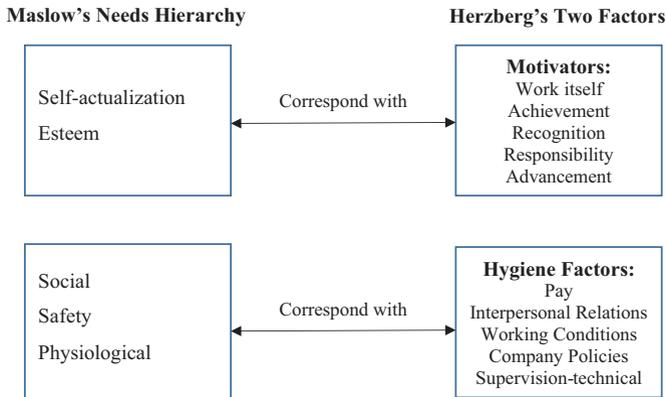


Fig. B.2 The correspondence between Herzberg's two factors and Maslow's needs hierarchy

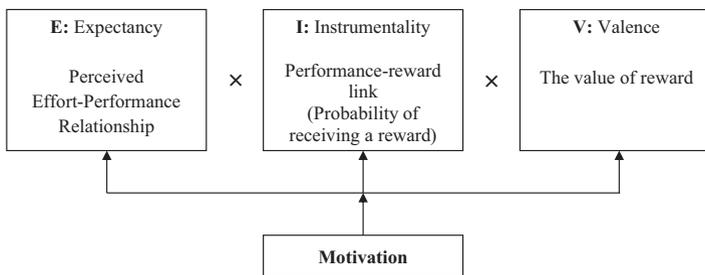


Fig. B.3 Expectancy theory

Process Theories of Motivation

The following section briefly examines two context theories.

Expectancy Theory

Mostly associated with the works of Victor H. Vroom, this theory proposes that motivation is a deliberate and conscious choice to engage in a certain activity for achieving a certain outcome or reward (see Fig. B.3). The logic of expectancy theory has prompted some to call it the thinking person's motivation theory [7, p. 6]. Mathematically expressed, motivation (M) is the product of three variables:

1. **Valence (V):** The *value* (attractiveness) of the *potential reward* or outcome to the individual. The potential outcome includes pay, job security, fringe benefits, job satisfaction, companionship, and the opportunity to demonstrate and apply talents and skills. In short, anything that a person can get from the job is a potential reward.

2. *Instrumentality (I)*: The *performance-reward* link, which is the expectation that performance will lead to receiving the reward. Past experience forms a foundation for this linkage.
3. *Expectancy (E)*: The linkage between the *effort* and *performance*, which deals with the individual's belief that exerting a certain amount of effort will lead to accomplishing the task: $M = V \times I \times E$.

The multiplicative nature of the relationship indicates that if any of the three variables is zero, then motivation will be zero.

Expectancy theory has an appeal for researchers because it expresses the motivation process as a simple mathematical relationship among three possibly measurable variables. Furthermore, its logical nature makes it appealing for those who look for a universal theory to explain motivation, independent of cultural differences.

Equity Theory

According to Adams, the individual's perception of inequity is a motivating force [8]. More specifically, a person compares the ratio of his or her compensation, that is, what they get from the job (outcomes), to his or her contributions to the job (input) with that of others in a similar situation. Compensation comes in many different forms, including pay, job security, an interesting job, opportunity for advancement and promotion, good working relationships, and safe and pleasant work environment. Inequity in either direction generates tension. People, however, are usually more sensitive to a lower ratio (under reward). They respond to the perception of inequity in many different ways. These responses include filing complaints, working less, or even changing their perceptions to reestablish the equity. Figure B.4 illustrates this process.

Motivation and Learning

Motivation calls for the use of positive and negative incentives (positive reinforcement and punishment) and scheduling them in a way to achieve desired results. In this sense, motivation and learning become closely related. B. F. Skinner and other learning theorists assert that behavior is a function of its

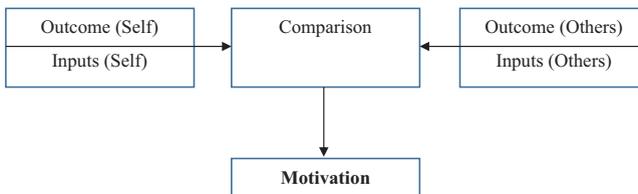


Fig. B.4 Equity theory

consequences. Behavior that is followed by desirable consequences tends to be repeated. In contrast, undesirable consequences have the opposite effect. In this way, we learn to change our behavior to experience desirable consequences and avoid the undesirable (punishment) ones [9–12].

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Appendix C: Charter of the United Nations

Chapter 1 Purpose and Principles

Article 1

The purposes of the United Nations are:

1. To maintain international peace and security and to that end to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principle of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of peace
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion
4. To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends

Article 2

The Organization and its members, in pursuit of the purposes stated in Article 1 shall act in accordance with the following principles:

1. The organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its members.
2. Members, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership, shall fulfill in good faith the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the present charter.

3. All members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered.
4. All members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state or in any other manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations.
5. All members shall give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the present charter and shall refrain from giving assistance to any state against which the United Nations is taking preventive or enforcement action.
6. The Organization shall ensure that states which are not members of the United Nations act in accordance with these principles so far as may be necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.
7. Nothing contained in the present charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state or shall require the members to submit such matters to settlement under the present charter; but this principle shall not prejudice the application of enforcement measures under Chapter VII.

Source: United Nations. (1945). Charter of the United Nations: Chapter 1: Purposes and principles. Resource document. United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/sections/un-charter/chapter-i/index.html>

The List of Cases

Harvard Business Case

CH 01: “Uber and the sharing economy: Global market expansion and reception”
by Andrew Hoffman, 02/19/2016.

Product #: W04C79-PDF-ENG

CH 02: “IKEA’s Global Sourcing Challenge: Indian Rugs and Child Labor (A)” by
Bartlett, Christopher A., Vincent Marie Dessain, and Anders Sjomar, 11/14/2006.

Product #: 906414-PDF-ENG

CH 03: “Hailing a New Era: Haier in Japan (A)” by Carlos Sanchez-Runde Sanchez;
Yih-teen Lee; Sebastian Reiche; Yen-Tung Chen; Yuki Kotake, 11/22/2012.

Product #: IES340-PDF-ENG

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