

RUNNING HEAD: TAXONOMY OF GLOBAL MANAGEMENT THEORIES

Taxonomy of Global Management Theories

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Taxonomy of Management Theories

This document presents a taxonomy of 14 management theories and models that incorporate grounded theory or theoretical frameworks addressing different aspects of leadership, organizational design, managerial roles, global business, change and innovation, e-commerce and e-business. More than 40 references accompany this work combining original treaties, empirical work and media reports. All the references were extracted from scholarly databases provided by UOP online Library.

The taxonomy is organized in four categories: Foundational, traditional, current and emerging global and emerging e-commerce theories. Each table includes a description of the theory, current examples of practitioner or empirical application and other significant attributes.

Taxonomy of Management Theories

I. Foundational Management Theories

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
<i>1. Principles of Scientific Management (Foundational, Taylor, 1911)</i>	<p>Taylor (1911) a foundational thinker and precursor of management control proposed four principles of scientific management (Quinn et al, 2003; Anderson et al, 1994).</p> <p>1. There is a science for each component of an individual's work.</p> <p>2. Selection, training, teaching and development of employees must be scientifically-based.</p> <p>3. Cooperation with workers ensures that work is done in compliance with scientific principles.</p> <p>4. Division of work and responsibility must be equal between workers and</p>	<p>While organizational knowledge and training are visionary aspects of Taylor's theory, the emphasis was different to current approaches. For example, Taylor purported that management was the keeper of knowledge; and that training had the purpose of achieve efficiency in workers' tasks, ignoring a possible self-improvement motivation (Phelps et al, 2007).</p> <p>Most companies are focused on the humanistic side of management and try to move to flexible structures</p>	<p>Major criticism to Taylor's philosophy of management has to do with his emphasis in a single way to perform a task and the need for control to ensure compliance (Phelps et al, 2007).</p> <p>According to Phelps (2007) Taylor harsh critics have not evaluated his work in the right context, and have ignored his genuine interest in the development of men.</p> <p>Taylor was interested in efficiency of production processes, the relationship with wage</p>

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	managers. The determination of who does what job is based on the fit to the job. The scientific focus of work and organizational improvement are elements that Taylor has inherited to modern and contemporary theories of management, e.g. Deming's model of management and TQM approaches (Anderson et al, 1994).	where cooperation is supported as a way to motivate peer learning and team building (Overholt, 1997).	determination, standards for manufacturing processes (Phelps et al, 2007), organizational learning, training and cooperation (Anderson et al, 1994).
2. <i>Human Behavior Theory</i> <i>(Foundational, Barnard, 1938)</i>	Barnard (1938) is considered the father of management theory, and precursor of the "paradigm of management" (Mitchell & Scott, 1985; Quinn et al, 2003). Barnard initiated the current debate between behaviorists and cognitive scholars as he contended behaviors were influenced by environment and cognitions (Mitchell &	The influence of Barnard in the contemporary school of management reaches out to the discussion of the role of a CEO as "shaper and manager of shared values in an organization" (Peters & Waterman, as cited by Mitchell & Scott, 1985)	<i>Barnard's Macro Theories</i> were built on the concepts of exchange, consent to authority, legitimacy of leadership, executive responsibility and inculcation of morals. <i>Barnard Micro level</i> studied individual behavior, motivation, communication and small groups

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<p>Scott, 1985, p. 245).</p> <p>His human behavior theory establishes a difference between “individual” and “person”. Individuals have <i>motives</i> and purposes (Scott, 2003). Every individual carries a <i>person</i> within, which has traits, attitudes and intentions that may be predicted.</p> <p>Three paradigms outstand in Barnard’s theories: 1) The organization as a system, 2) the contingency approach and 3) the mean-ends values (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 254).</p> <p>Some scholars have disregarded his contributions to behavioral science and attributed these advances to the</p>	<p>Cognitive theories proposed by Barnard include: goal setting, cost/benefit models, contingent rewards or operant approaches, and equity (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 245).</p>	<p>and were the base of Simon (1957) work on bounded rationality, Misbitt and Wilson (1979) on cognitive processes (Mitchell and Scott, 1985, p. 243). Festinger (1951) theories of dissonance and Weick (1979) organizational behavior theories, were also influenced. Criticism is directed to his arbitrary boundaries between persons and individuals. (Mitchell and Scott, 1985).</p>	

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	psychological fields (Mitchell & Scott, 1985).		
3. <i>Information processing Model (Foundational Galbraith, 1974)</i>	Galbraith (1974) complemented contingency theory, by adding information processing to the problem of organizational design (Scott, 2003, p. 97). Galbraith based her contributions on three premises of contingency theory developed by March and Simon (1957): rules, goal-setting and hierarchy (Galbraith, 1974, p. 29). Galbraith created the Five Star Model aimed at facilitating the information flow across the organization through four strategies: 1) creation of slack resources,	Information systems are a key element in the globalization of public and private firms. The five star model is used for organizational design in the following sequence (Proven models, 2007:1). a - strategy; b - structure; c - key processes; d - key people; e - roles and responsibilities; f - information systems; g - performance measures and	In project management the coordination of tasks is possible due to the use of the contingency theory and the perspective of information processing. Each strategy has advantages and costs. The creation of slack resources could delay the completion of a project; creating self-contained tasks could reduce specialization; investment in vertical information systems requires adding new channels of information, which requires

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	2) creation of self-contained tasks, 3) investment in vertical information systems and, 4) creation of lateral relations, all of them based on perspectives of March & Simon (1957) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967).	rewards; h - training and development; i - career paths. Galbraith acknowledged that the structure will vary depending on the type of business.	financing, and, creating lateral relations, i.e. task forces, teams, matrix-type organizations, creates conflicts in power and leadership (Galbraith, 1974, p. 33).
4. <i>Law of Situation</i> <i>(Foundational,</i> <i>Follett 1918)</i>	Follett (1868-1933) is recognized as a political philosopher, Boston scholar and scientist (Phelps, Parayitam & Olson, 2007; Miller and Vaughan, 2001), and a guru by Drucker himself (Mary Parker Follett Foundation, 2008). Follett contributed to the business world through the study of group dynamics, conflict resolution, and management (Miller and Vaughan, 2001).	Follett's thoughts were ground for contemporary management gurus such as Covey (1989) whose win/win window metaphor to conflict resolution is said to be based on a real event occurred to Follett herself and reported in her book about constructive conflict (Miller and Vaughan, 2001, p. 10). Phelps et al (2007) contended that	Follett's writings include "Creative experience" (1924), "The new state" (1918), "Community is a Process" (1919) and "The Teacher-Student Relation" (1928). Her ideas about conflict resolution advocated the concept of integrative unity, also based on the law of situation and was the first one in proposing the metaphor of

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	Her major contribution was the “Law of Situation” that argued that “one person should not give orders to another person, but both should agree to take their orders from the requirements of the situation” (Miller and Vaughan, 2001, p. 9). Five principles reflect this law: teamwork, horizontal authority, empowerment, conflict and power (Phelps et al, 2007; p. 9; Miller and Vaughan, 2001)	Follett bridged the mechanistic thought of Taylor and the improvement process supported by Deming. The alignment of Follett’s thought and Deming’s 14 points view was carefully proposed by Phelps et al (2007) using 3 overarching concepts: 1. Culture creation, 2. Teamwork, and 3. Organizational design.	win/win windows (Phelps et al, 2007, p. 10, 12). Follett’s work referred by Wren (2001) and Shriberg et al (2002) as visionary and ahead of her time, was obscured by the resistance of a male-dominated management field.

II.

Traditional Management Theories

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
5. <i>Managerial Theory of Strategic Management (Traditional,</i>	Mintzberg (1973) created his theory of managerial behavior as result of a study of work behavior of five managers (Tengblad, 2006).	Tengblad (2006) conducted an empirical research based on Mintzberg (1973) as a follow-up to a previous research in 2002. Four	Critiques to Mintzberg’s views originated from Hofstede (1984), Ansoff (1977; 1991). Mintzberg (1994) did not address

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<i>Mintzberg, 1973)</i>	<p>Mintzberg identified six characteristics of the managerial work: Fragmented and time constrained (Provenmodels, 2007):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tight time pressure prompts large and open ended workloads 2. Managerial work is self-initiated, short, varied and fragmented. 3. CEOs prioritize action-oriented activities and not routine work such as mail and paperwork (Provenmodels, 2007). 4. Verbal communication in meetings and phone was preferred 5. Most relationships are with subordinates and least with superiors. 	<p>Swedish CEOs were observed during a working week using daily forms. The study completed 289 hours with 80% of it dedicated to direct observation.</p> <p>The results suggested that the characteristics of managerial work has not changed substantially from 1973.</p> <p>However Tengblad (2006) study did find differences between the studies:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Increases in work load, time for transportation, meetings with many participants, subordinates 	<p>changes in technology, trends in flexibility, globalization, competitive pressures and even more, was reluctant to accept the rise of transformational leadership and a post-bureaucracy model.</p> <p>The work of Tengblad (2006) challenges Mintzberg propositions of stability of managerial work and proposes that managerial practices develop through time (p. 1455).</p>

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	<p>6. Involvement in execution was limited.</p> <p>Based on these observations, Mintzberg (1973) purported that managerial work had not experienced changes because of the highly structure of the work done (Tengblad, 2006) and later in 1994 he did not challenge or updated these views.</p>	<p>and increase volume of information</p> <p>b. Decreases in desk work, meeting with clients, fragmentation of time.</p> <p>Tengblad (2006) offers an explanation rooted on structural factors, such as size of the firms and the geographic scope.</p>	
<p>6.</p> <p><i>Theory of Knowledge</i> (<i>Traditional, Deming, 1986</i>)</p>	<p>Deming (1986) created his knowledge theory based on the seminal work of Lewis (1929). Deming argued that predictions about organizational outcomes were only possible when theory and knowledge supported a systematic revision (Phelps et al, 2007, p. 3). Thus</p>	<p>His theory was widely known in the 80s when the Japanese competition started to be a threat to the American industry.</p> <p>Deming’s consulting work in Japan provided him with a wider view of the quality approach of Japanese</p>	<p>Deming’s theory of knowledge evolved to Deming Management Method based on 14 points (Anderson et al, 1994):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Create constant purposeful improvement of product and service

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	<p>quality was achieved by a “profound transformation” based on four themes where knowledge was the overarching concept:</p> <p>a) Appreciation of the system, b) Knowledge of variation, c) understanding of the theory of knowledge and d) psychology (Phelps et al, 2007, p. 3).</p> <p>Deming is constantly linked to the development of TQM, however he has never used the term TQM in his writings (Vinzant & Vinzant, as cited by Phelps et al, 2007).</p>	<p>firms (Phelps et al, 2007). Deming’s work has similarities and differences with Taylor’s scientific management theory, as studied by Phelps et al (2007) and Anderson et al (1994). Two out of nine comparative aspects were similar between these theories: division of work and systems.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Adopt leadership of change in western management 3. Build quality as a priority 4. Minimize costs through trust and loyalty 5. Improve systems of production and services 6. <i>Institute training on the job</i> 7. Institute leadership 8. <i>Drive out fear</i> 9. Work in teams 10. Forget zero defects 11. Forget standards and figures, substitute leadership 12. Rebuild pride in workers, abolish management by objectives.

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
			13. Educate and self improve
			Transformation is everybody's job
<i>III. Current and Emerging Global Management Theories</i>			
7. Theory of Quality Management <i>(Current, Anderson et al, 1994)</i>	Anderson, Rughtusanatham, and Schroeder (1994) proposed a Theory of Quality Management after acknowledging that Deming's Management method was in itself not a theory. This interest in tying TQM to an underlying theory was also studied by Wang (2004) in a comparison to traditional management theories and specifically to GST General Systems Theory. Anderson et al's (1994) TQM theory underlies the Deming's method based on the following tenets:	The TQM approach is an example of an effective practice that started in the 80s but that was not studied scientifically until the late 80s and 90s, with the works of Deming (1986) and Hodgetts, Luthans, & Lee (1994) (as cited by Miller and Vaughan, 2001) Scholars argued that TQM in practice avoided most motivational techniques such as: job redesign, goal setting, performance-	Wang (2004) argued that TQM was interdisciplinary and cited Senge (1991) as supporter of systematic thinking as key to the growth of learning organizations. For Hackman and Wageman (1995) TQM is: A learning-oriented approach, leveraged by at least 3 levels of learning: 1. team work 2. problem solving and 3. collective perceptions. Wang (2004) praised TQM as a learning model overall but also

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|--------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|
| 1. Visionary leadership | contingent rewards. An example of | acknowledged to be deficient on |
| 2. Internal and External cooperation | this, is the fixation on best practices | second-order learning –“learning |
| 3. Learning | and its standardization; therefore | about what the collectivity should |
| 4. Process management | once an effective job design is | be doing”- (p. 399). |
| 5. Continuous improvement | identified, this is standardized and | |
| 6. Employee fulfillment | employees become recipients with | |
| 7. Customer satisfaction | minimum input in the redesign | |

The theory proposed that factors 1, 2 and 3 allows for an implementation of a (Hackman and Wageman, 1995, p. 326).

process management that contributes to Wang cited the Baldrige Awards criteria as a concrete expression of continuous improvement and employee fulfillment, as a requisite for customer the core values of total quality:

satisfaction and firms' survival (Anderson "customer-driven quality, et al, 1994, p. 481). partnership development, (...) corporate responsibility, social citizenship" (2004, p. 396).

8. *Global Leadership Competencies Framework (Emerging Global, Brownell & Goldsmith, 2006)*
- This theoretical framework attempts to answer questions about leadership needs for the 21st century (Brownell & Goldsmith, 2006). Also called *Model of Requirements* because it relies on three sets of competencies: *Common competencies* attained by most learners. *Distinctive competencies* derived from personal characteristics, and *Character* as a key distinctive competency unique to each individual (p. 321). These competencies are organized in 7 clusters: Effective global leadership: Intercultural, social, creativity, self-knowledge, positive outlook, responsiveness and decision making (p.
- Media reports about white collar crimes of conspiracy, fraud, and obstruction of justice at WorldCom, Enron, Qwest Communications and CIA, portrayed the failure of the distinctive competency of character, trustworthiness and integrity. Brownell and Goldsmith (2006) propose that these competencies should be part of the business curriculum in undergraduate and graduate courses, in a partnership between educators (course content and methodology) and human resource managers (real-life scenarios).
- This framework also builds on the leadership approach of Collins (2001), Kouzes and Posner (2004), Sankar, 2003, Conger & Kanungo (1998) and Greenleaf (2003) support the need for a leadership attitude that promotes fairness and humility. The authors impose an important role to business education in the formation of future leaders whose distinctive competencies should be recognized in order to participate in global leadership. The distinctive competencies are essential to the curriculum of

320).

These clusters are affected by context:

Task complexity, strength of organizational culture, environmental uncertainty and degree of cultural diversity.

Character is highlighted as a key distinctive competency and includes trustworthiness and integrity (Bennis, 1989; Schein, 2003, Follett, 1924). This model also builds upon Mintzberg 10 managerial roles and Trait theory of leadership and coincides Maletz & Katzenbach's (1999) study about the gap in management development in firms of the 21st century.

undergraduate and graduate business education and they are complex and situational; its mastery is difficult to achieve, it takes time, and can only be assessed in real-world scenarios.

9.

Jon Katzenbach (1996) leads the

Katzenbach, director of

There are four gaps that separates

<p><i>RCL Real Change Leadership (Emerging Global, Katzenbach, 1996)</i></p>	<p>discussion on a different type of leader called RCL Real Change Leader. He contended that traditional managers are rarely up to the task, unless they have the <i>right mindset</i>.</p> <p>Katzenbach (2006) establishes clear differences between good managers and RCLs comparing them in a set of six key issues:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Basic mindset b. End game assumptions c. Leadership philosophy d. Sources of productivity and innovation e. Accountability measures f. Risk/reward tradeoffs <p>Attracting and retaining the best members</p>	<p>McKinsey’s Houston office reported on a study conducted among 150 mid level change managers addressing 29 change efforts that distinguished them from traditional mid level managers.</p> <p>Mobil was cited by Katzenbach as an example of a firm which motivation re-emerged after an intense downsizing. RCLs also found creative ways to expand the exploration of oil fields after apparent depletion (2006, p. 151).</p> <p>Examples of 360 degree impact where RCL mid managers provoked important changes include Texas Commerce Bank (p.</p>	<p>traditional leaders from change leaders (p. 150):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Linchpin linkages: Connecting aspirations and strategic intent to the market and the workforce. Leaders in permanent contact with customers and track competitors with precision. b. 360 degree impact: influencing people around them. c. Expandable toolkit: Approaches in constant revision d. Switch-hitting leadership: Using different styles of leadership.
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will increase the probabilities of an organization to growth, while closing the *development gap* through programs that aim at management development and not simple training (Maletz & Katzenbach, 1999).

RCLs have common qualities:

1. Commitment to success
2. Courage to challenge power
3. Self initiators of change
4. Highly motivated
5. Caring
6. Sense of humor.

152) and TCB.

AT&T was cited by Katzenbach as an example of how Mary Livingston and her RCLs took old tools such as reengineering, targeted skill-building programs and redefined them to improve performance of their workforce.

RCLs are not afraid to accept that they may not know it all; they strive to satisfy customers and not just meet numbers. They will not rely on few people but in their entire team, as people are their critical resource, not an exploitable item. RCLs are accountable for their mistakes and do not blame it on others; and, they learn from failures and are risk-takers (Katzenbach, 2006, p. 158).

10. *Network Integration Models (Emerging Global,*

Lynch and Somerville (1996) proposed a paradigmatic shift from vertical integration to network integration deemed “market-driven, customer-centered, payer

Firms in the automotive, retailing and insurance industries are cited by Lynch and Somerville (1996) as examples of successful network

Lynch and Somerville (1996) compared vertical and networked integrations in 16 criteria summarized as follows: a)

<p><i>Lynch & Somerville, 1996)</i></p>	<p>friendly, simple to operate, interconnected, cross functionally delivered and aligned for the same ‘win’” (par. 22). Vertical integrations are considered a dying paradigm that should be replaced through an “Enterprise Transformation” (Lynch & Somerville, 1996).</p>	<p>transitions. In automotive, a vertically aligned GM is defeated by Chrysler and Toyota’s network integrations, in cost and time. The errors were again detected at the middle managers level whose power struggle hurts cooperation.</p>	<p>hierarchical organizational structures, b) monolithic ownership, c) strategy, decision making and organizational centered at the top, d) leadership style based on command and control, ranking authority, e) workers considered commodities,</p>
	<p>There are three stages in this progression:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Centralized production B. Decentralized Process C. Networked systems 	<p>An emphasis in cost squeezing impacts delivery times and quality (Lynn & Somerville, 1996).</p>	<p>tasks delivered by functions and organized by a leader selected from the top, f) Time consuming control systems and slow responsiveness g) highly regulated culture, h) No adaptability to change, i) rewards centered on the top, j) Value chain is price driven, k) risk is assumed</p>
	<p>The requirements for successful network integrations are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategic vision and value propositions of all members of the network 	<p>In retailing, vertically aligned K-mart cannot catch up with WalMart’s network-integrated structure.</p>	

2. Value chain redesign
3. Flexibility to make changes
4. Cross functional teams
5. Efficient architectures for
information, organization and
human resources
6. Paperless culture
7. System-wide reward structure
8. Shared decision making and
control

by outside investors, 1) suppliers
are vendors and not partners.

The emphasis of this model on strategy
formed in the middle, matches
Katzenbach (1996) argument that mid-
level managers are the real change leaders
of an organization with creativity, vision
and passion for their people and
customers.

11. Warren Buffett, philanthropist and great leader, Chairman and CEO of Berkshire Hathaway has views that converge with Katzenbach (1996) propositions regarding Real Change Leaders. *Leadership: Thinking is at the core of leadership, error is a condition to lead others to performance standards (Buffett, 2007).* *Internal Organization Success: Patience and business fundamentals are the requirements of 21st century marketplace (Mack, Buffett et al, 2007, September 3).* *Individual Performance: “the most important thing in terms of your circle of competence is not how large the area of it is, but how well you’ve defined the*
- Buffett practices what he preaches. A report from Performance magazine accounts for Buffet’s successful entrepreneurial path and the billionaire personal worth of approximately \$42 billion. The stock of Berkshire Hathaway is estimated to have grown 194,936 percent from 1965 to 2006 thanks to Buffett’s work (Buffett, 2007). Labeled as the Oracle of Omaha, Buffett’s worth is approximately \$30 billion but his salary is only \$100,000 which compared to the average of \$10 million for other top corporate CEO portrays his great spirit of servant leader (Warren
- Buffett was born in Omaha, Nebraska in 1930, and worked at the age of 11 in a brokerage business with his father. His inclination for stock trading and investments started early. He studied at Wharton School and then at University of Nebraska. Founded his first firm, Buffett Associates in 1956 with his own money and contributions of seven other limited partners. In 1962 he started buying shares in the troubled Berkshire Hathaway about to go out of business, and turned it into one of the largest holdings in the world (Buffett,

perimeter” (Buffett, 2007)

Buffett, 2007).

2007).

Investing opportunities: Focus on the behavior of the asset and not the behavior of the price; the former defines an investor, the latter defines an speculator (Buffett, 2007).

In 2006 he pledged 10 million shares to Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and \$6.7 billion to the Susan Thompson Buffett Foundation for humanitarian causes.

Corporate responsibility: The publicity of precise market values by some firms are just fictitious ways to mark to myth instead of marking to market; creating an artificial environment where high leverage is disguised as overvalued equity (Mack, Buffett et al, 2007, September 3).

IV. Current – Emerging E- business and E-commerce Theories

Theory

General Description

Current Examples of Theories

Other Attributes

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
12. <i>Diffusion of Innovation DOI Theory (Emerging E-commerce, Various authors)</i>	<i>Diffusion of innovation theory</i> DOI (Rogers, 1995; Tornatzky & Fleischer, 1990; Iacovou et al, 1995) is the ground of a model proposed by Hsu, Kraemer and Dunkle (2006) that attempts to understand e-business use in two dimensions (diversity and volume) as an innovation adopted and used by organizations. DOI theory is able to predict success of new inventions, by analyzing the way the idea is generated, how it is used, the patterns of adoption and how it is diffused (Hsu et al, 2006). Tornatzky and Fleischer model (1990) relied on <i>technology, organization and environment</i> , Rogers (1995) original model relied on <i>innovation and organizational characteristics</i> . Iacovou et al (1995) stated <i>perceived benefits</i> ,	The empirical research conducted by Hsu et al (2006) with 20 firms randomly selected from the Dun & Bradstreet list. The model successfully explained the e-business use in U.S. firms as follows: 1. Diversity: The larger and global the firms are, higher business partner pressure they have, higher perceived benefits, richer technology resources they possess and the less competition intensity, may use more diversified e-business technology. 2. Volume: The more globalized, greater perceived benefits, higher government pressures, and richer technologies,	Hsu et al (2006) study results are conclusive that perceived benefits, technology resources and organizational readiness are three important determinants of e-business use in the U.S. as well as partner pressure and government role (Hsu et al, 2006, p. 37). Hsu et al (2006) combined DOIs and proposed a model with four constructs and 2 dependent variables. <i>Construct 1 Perceived benefits:</i> anticipated benefits such as sales increase, new market penetration and cost reduction. <i>Construct 2 Organizational readiness:</i> firm size, technology resources, globalization level.

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13. <i>Entrepreneurial e-commerce and Competitive Advantage Model (Emerging E-commerce, Childers & Ofsstein, 2007)</i>	This model is based on the <i>Three Stages to Internet Commerce Model</i> (Siyal & Barkat, 2002) and expanded by Childers & Ofsstein (2007). The authors argued that entrepreneurial e-commerce lacks theories to predict outcomes in entrepreneurial e-commerce and proposed a framework informed by the Transaction Costs Economies (TCE) theory and the Resource-based view (RBV) (Strumickas & Valanciene, 2007) to obtain competitive advantage and maintain focus on the customer. This two-fold model explains three stages to execute operations in E-commerce between entrepreneurs and customers:	Childers and Offstein (2007) cited some examples of ecommerce ventures where one kind of trust was not sufficient. Peeples (2002) studied Walmart ecommerce ventures and contended that despite their external trust, name and reputation, they chose a wrong model of ecommerce: free internet service and excessive marketing expenditure. Priceline stumbled in external trust (2000) when excessive complaints about non responsive calls ended with the withdrawal of their membership to the BBB in	Competitive advantage in e-commerce requires a business model that integrates e-commerce resources that are unique (Porter , as cited by Childers & Ofsstein, 2007, p. 45). The resource-based view contends that a firm has to use all the tangible and intangible resources it has to develop competitive advantage, profits and growth (Strumickas & Valanciene, 2007). The RBV uses <i>trust</i> as a resource, firms can fight for competitive advantage as possible <i>first movers</i> (Lieberman & Montgomery as

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	<p>Stage 1 Negotiation: Search, provide/examine, offer</p>	<p>Connecticut (Fowler, 2002). A successful example of how</p>	<p>cited by Childers and Offstein, 2007, p. 48).</p>
	<p>Stage 2 Trusted path development: Assurance of quality of products or services, security and privacy issues.</p>	<p>internal and external trust worked to solidify presence in e-commerce is Amazon.com whose creativity</p>	<p>The TCE theory has been also used to explain technology-based electronic trust supported by</p>
	<p>Stage 3 Execution of transaction and monitoring of sale. (Childers & Offstein, 2007, p. 49).</p>	<p>and trust make it a benchmark in online transactions and mitigate the TC of opportunism (Childers &</p>	<p>network security to increase “interpersonal, or real trust between people” (Kleist, 2004).</p>
	<p><i>Trust (reliability and reputation)</i> is that unique intangible resource providing competitive advantage (RBV) and mitigation of possible hazards and transactions costs (TCE).</p>	<p>Offstein, 2007, p. 46).</p>	<p>The costs of identifying, and mitigating potential hazards exist because of:</p>
	<p><i>Internal trust</i> to establish relationships within key staff, promoting diversity, and knowledge sharing (Kanter as cited by</p>		<p>a. Little government regulation (Connellan, 2000) b. Lack of physical interaction between seller</p>

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
	Childers & Offstein, 2007; Ouchi, 1980). <i>External trust</i> in relationships with customers and providers (Ouchi, 1980) to reduce their anxiety and concerns (Childers & Offstein, 2007). Technology-based electronic trust has also been studied by Kleist (2004) to measure returns, incentives and optimal risk in the digital economy.		and buyer (Nataraj and Lee, 2002). c. Information asymmetry
14. <i>B2B E-commerce Implementation Model (Emerging E-commerce, various authors)</i>	This theory-grounded model attempts to predict if B2B implementation is standard for all firms sizes and industries. The underlying theories are: Stages of growth theory (Gibson and Nolan, 1974) based on the seminal <i>change process</i> model of Lewin (1933) and Diffusion of innovation	The model provides firms in the private and public sector with insights about the complexity of implementation and the role of non-technical factors in success (Chan & Swatman, 2003, p. 406). A longitudinal study of the	B2B E-commerce implementation requires not only competencies in IS but also in inter-organizational management and an understanding of users resistance and political issues (Chan & Swatman, 2003). Rayport and Jaworski (2004) have

<i>Theory</i>	<i>General Description</i>	<i>Current Examples of Theories</i>	<i>Other Attributes</i>
	<p>theory (Rogers, 1995). The SoG was further developed by McKay, Prananto and Marshall (2000) and Rayport and Jaworski (2002).</p> <p><i>SoG theories</i> blended with <i>Diffusion of innovation theory</i> (Rogers, 1995) may explain B2B implementation in three dimensions (Chan & Swatman, 2003):</p> <p><i>Dimension 1: Change process</i></p> <p><i>Users resistance may happen here.</i></p> <p><i>Dimension 2: Growth process</i></p> <p>Complexity may be an issue here.</p> <p><i>Dimension 3: Integration process</i></p> <p>Data conversion to integrate business units to the new technology (Chan & Swatman, 2003).</p>	<p>implementation of B2B E-commerce in mature firms in Australia was used as empirical evidence (Chan & Swatman, 2003). Findings revealed 3 factors influencing integration:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Technology: Complexity and compatibility of technology (also cited by Hsu et al, 2006). 2. Management: Management commitment to train and increase trust. 3. Business: Cost/benefit issues and slow adoptions because of rapid technological change (Chan and Swatman, 2003, p. 404). 	<p>proposed an Internet-based stages of growth theory based on SoG; and Porter (1980; 1985) acknowledged the needs for a strategic use of IS as part of the implementation phases.</p>

Conclusions

This document presented a relation of 14 management theories developed in the U.S. and internationally, covering a breadth of topics, from scientific management, to the humanistic side of organizations; a discussion on quality, knowledge and leadership competencies. The selection of these theories was based on their ability to inform scholarly work on strategic management in the 21st century. Theories, models and frameworks related to e-commerce and e-business and global expansion were addressed to provide insights to practitioners and scholars about the need to work jointly on meaningful research to advance management science.

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