



# The Psychology Of Profit: Assessing Whether Profit Motives Lead To Better Or Worse Behavior Than Public Ownership

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## Abstract

This study examines how profit motives shape human and organizational behavior under different ownership structures—private, public, charitable, and hybrid. It interrogates the central question of whether the pursuit of profit enhances or undermines ethical, innovative, and socially beneficial behavior within firms. Drawing on John Locke’s labor theory of property, Milton Friedman’s doctrine of profit maximization, and Joseph Schumpeter’s theory of creative destruction, the research situates the profit motive as both a psychological driver and an institutional mechanism of economic coordination.

Employing a comparative case study methodology, the paper analyzes five enterprises—Apple Inc., Air India, Microsoft, Yeo Valley, and the hybrid financial institutions Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac—to assess how ownership structures and incentive systems influence decision-making, accountability, and societal outcomes. Data are drawn from corporate financial reports, scholarly literature, and secondary analyses of profitability (ROA and ROE), CSR expenditure, and governance indicators.

The findings indicate that profit-driven organizations, when constrained by ethical and regulatory oversight, demonstrate greater innovation, operational efficiency, and responsiveness to consumer needs than publicly or charitably owned firms. Conversely, state and hybrid enterprises often exhibit bureaucratic inertia, blurred accountability, and misaligned incentives that hinder performance. While the profit motive carries potential for exploitation when unregulated, it also channels self-interest into productive behavior, aligning private gain with public benefit. The study concludes that profit, tempered by moral governance, remains one of the most effective mechanisms for balancing efficiency, innovation, and social welfare in modern economies.

**Keywords:** profit motive; ownership structure; innovation; corporate accountability; state vs. private enterprises; corporate social responsibility; ethical capitalism; John Locke; Milton Friedman; Joseph Schumpeter

## Introduction

Few forces have influenced modern civilization as profoundly as the pursuit of profit. From the Industrial Revolution to the digital age, profit has served as both a driver of innovation and a source of controversy. Classical economists such as Adam Smith (1776) and Joseph Schumpeter (1942) viewed profit as an essential mechanism for progress—fueling entrepreneurship, efficiency, and creative destruction. Yet, critics argue that this same motive can foster inequality, exploitation, and environmental degradation. The tension between individual gain and collective welfare lies at the heart of economic and moral discourse.

This paper investigates whether profit motives ultimately encourage better or worse behavior than public or charitable ownership models. Using John Locke’s theory of labor and property as a philosophical foundation, it explores how varying ownership structures shape motivation, accountability, and performance. The analysis is framed around five case studies—Apple, Air India, Microsoft, Yeo Valley, and the hybrid entities Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac—to assess how differing incentive systems influence corporate conduct. In doing so, it aims to understand how self-interest, when governed by profit motives, can either align with or deviate from the broader social good.

## Methodology

This research employs a comparative case study methodology, analyzing firms across distinct ownership structures—private, public, charitable, and hybrid. The cases were selected based on three criteria: (1) global significance and data availability, (2) contrasting incentive mechanisms, and (3) evidence of behavioral or economic transformation linked to ownership changes.

Qualitative analysis was conducted by synthesizing secondary data, including company reports, financial metrics (ROA, ROE), CSR disclosures, and scholarly literature. Theoretical framing draws from Locke’s property theory (1690), Friedman’s profit maximization principle (1970), and Schumpeter’s creative destruction (1942), which collectively offer psychological, economic, and ethical dimensions of motivation.

The study does not attempt to generalize statistically but seeks to theorize causal relationships between ownership models and behavioral outcomes—particularly regarding innovation, efficiency, and accountability.

## ***Key to Profit***

In 1970, Milton Friedman asserted that “the social responsibility of business is to increase its profits” <sup>(1)</sup>, a statement that has since shaped decades of economic and managerial thought. At its core, this perspective emphasizes profit maximization not as a narrow pursuit of wealth but as the organizing principle of efficient markets. The drive for profit compels firms to innovate, cut inefficiencies, and deliver superior customer service—since sustained profitability depends on meeting consumer needs <sup>(2)</sup>. In doing so, businesses align their own survival with broader economic progress, creating a cycle in which shareholder value, innovation, and customer welfare reinforce one another <sup>(3)</sup>. When operating within sound regulatory frameworks, the pursuit of profit becomes more than private gain: it serves as a catalyst for societal advancement.

Milton Friedman’s seminal 1970 essay, “The Social Responsibility of Business is to Increase Its Profits,” positioned profit maximization not merely as a financial objective but as a moral and systemic necessity for economic efficiency. Within this framework, the pursuit of profit becomes the organizing principle that aligns private enterprise with public welfare. Firms that seek profit must continuously innovate, minimize inefficiency, and satisfy consumer demand; their survival depends upon it. As such, the profit motive can be viewed as a self-regulating behavioral mechanism, transforming individual ambition into societal benefit—provided that transparent regulation constrains externalities.

**Sustainable Profit  $\propto$  Efficiency (E) + Innovation + Customer Service (CS)**

*Formula for Key to Profit*

This function reflects how profitability is not merely an end state but an emergent outcome of adaptive and customer-oriented behavior.

### **Apple Corporation**

Apple Inc. exemplifies the productive potential of profit-driven enterprise within a competitive market economy. As part of this study’s comparative framework, Apple serves as the representative model of a privately owned, profit-oriented enterprise. It provides a benchmark for examining how ownership structure and incentive mechanisms influence innovation, efficiency, and behavioural accountability within a market-driven context. Founded on principles of innovation and user-centred design, Apple’s organizational behaviour demonstrates how the profit motive, when effectively aligned with consumer satisfaction, can generate sustained creativity and efficiency. As of 2024, Apple’s market capitalization exceeded \$3.16 trillion <sup>(7)</sup>, positioning it as the world’s most valuable corporation <sup>(4)</sup>. The firm’s continued success reflects not only superior technological capacity but also a corporate philosophy that treats profit as both a motivator and a measure of performance.

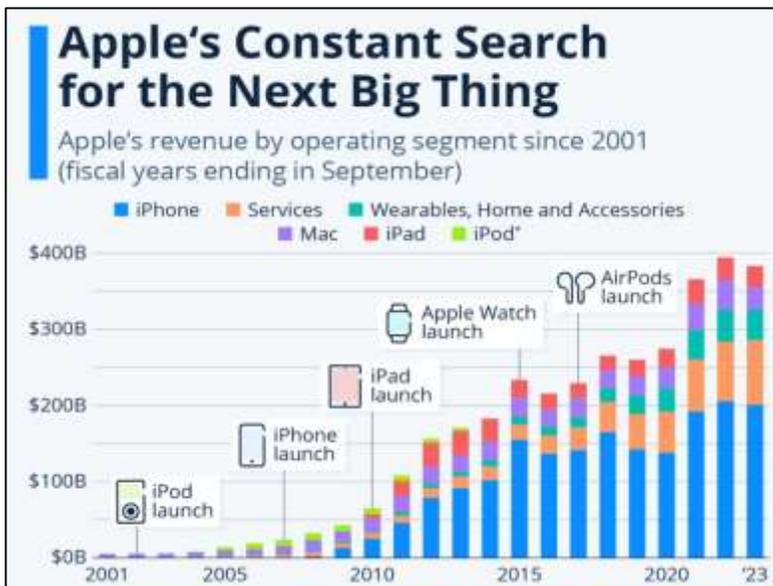


Fig. 1: Apple's Constant Drive for Innovation

Apple's internal structure and decision-making processes support Milton Friedman's (1970) contention that profit maximization can advance broader social welfare. The company's commitment to continuous innovation (Refer Fig. 1) —evident from the original Macintosh to the MacBook Air M4— has been underpinned by substantial reinvestment into research and development. In 2023, Apple allocated approximately \$30 billion (roughly 7% of its total revenue) to

R&D, a scale of investment that few government-owned or charitable entities could sustain (Hansen et al., 2020). This reinvestment cycle reinforces a behavioural feedback loop in which profitability fuels innovation, and innovation, in turn, sustains profitability.

From a theoretical perspective, Apple embodies Joseph Schumpeter's (1942) concept of creative destruction. Each major product cycle—the iPod displacing the Walkman, the iPhone redefining mobile communication, and the App Store creating new digital ecosystems—illustrates how profit-oriented competition drives technological advancement by dismantling obsolete paradigms. Such disruptions may produce short-term instability but ultimately yield long-term social and economic gains through improved efficiency and consumer choice. Apple's behaviour also resonates with John Locke's labour theory of property, wherein the right to enjoy the fruits of one's labour (or innovation) is justified as long as it does not deprive others of equivalent opportunity. By developing accessible tools and platforms, Apple has arguably expanded global access to technology and employment, reinforcing Locke's proviso of preserving "enough and as good" for others.

The iPhone, iPad, and MacBook represent more than technological products; they exemplify how the pursuit of profit can function as a catalyst for sustained and meaningful innovation (see Fig. 1). Apple's design philosophy emphasizes user experience through intuitive interfaces, minimalist aesthetics, and consistent product reliability—attributes that have translated into strong consumer loyalty and long-term profitability. This relationship between innovation and profit reflects John

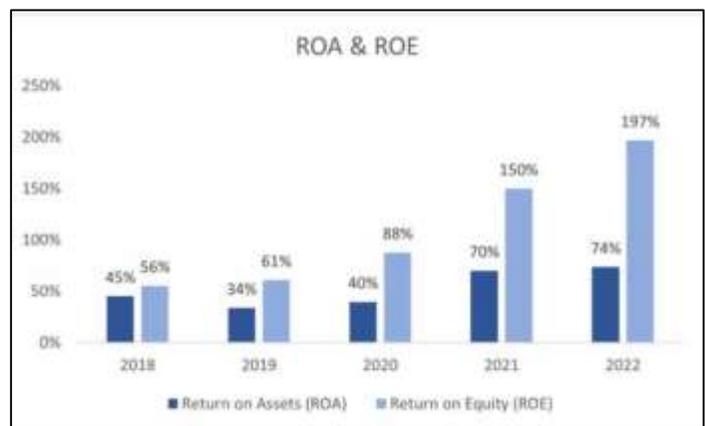


Fig. 2: ROA & ROE Chart of

Locke's labour theory of property, which posits that individuals, and by extension firms, are entitled to the benefits derived from their productive effort. Furthermore, Apple's innovation aligns with Locke's proviso

that property acquisition—or in this case, market dominance—remains just only if it does not diminish others' opportunities to pursue similar advancement. Rather than enclosing finite public goods, Apple's ecosystem has expanded technological accessibility by creating tools, platforms, and employment opportunities that extend beyond the firm itself. In this respect, Apple's profit-driven innovation appears not as exclusionary but as socially generative, transforming private enterprise into a mechanism that preserves and enhances collective welfare.

Financially, Apple's superior Return on Assets (ROA)<sup>(5)</sup> and Return on Equity (ROE)<sup>(6)</sup> (Refer Fig. 2) further demonstrate how profit-oriented incentives can translate into measurable efficiency and accountability. These metrics reflect effective utilization of resources and responsiveness to market expectations—traits that are often weaker in public or non-profit entities, where incentives are diffused or non-monetary. In this sense, profitability operates as an external validation of internal efficiency.

Nevertheless, Apple's global supply chain underscores the ethical tensions inherent in profit-driven behaviour. The firm's concentration of manufacturing in China, where labour costs are comparatively low, has prompted criticism concerning working conditions and excessive hours<sup>(8)</sup>. While CEO Tim Cook has defended these practices as necessary for maintaining product quality and scale—citing the region's advanced manufacturing infrastructure—the controversy highlights the thin boundary between efficiency and exploitation. This duality reflects a key limitation of Friedman's framework: profit maximization can yield social benefit only within a robust regulatory and ethical environment.

In sum, Apple's case supports the hypothesis that profit-oriented systems, when constrained by transparent oversight, channel self-interest into innovation, accountability, and value creation. The firm's sustained performance illustrates how financial incentives, coupled with market discipline, can transform private ambition into public progress. However, it simultaneously demonstrates the need for normative and legal safeguards to ensure that the pursuit of profit remains a means of advancing collective welfare rather than undermining it. Within the comparative framework of this research, Apple thus functions as an analytical baseline for evaluating the behavioural and structural contrasts observed in state-owned, charitable, and hybrid organizations examined later in the paper.

### **The Case of Air India**

Within the comparative framework of this study, Air India represents the public-sector ownership model, providing a behavioural counterpoint to the innovation and accountability observed in profit-oriented firms such as Apple. Its historical trajectory illustrates how the absence of market-based incentives and the diffusion of responsibility can lead to organizational inefficiency, moral hazard, and long-term financial decline. From a behavioural economics perspective, Air India exemplifies the principal-agent problem, in which state

managers (agents) operate with limited alignment to the interests of citizens or consumers (principals), undermining both efficiency and motivation.

Founded by J.R.D. Tata in 1932 as a private airline and later nationalized in 1953 under Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, Air India was initially a symbol of national prestige. During its early decades, it was celebrated for its luxury and service quality—earning the epithet “palace in the sky.” However, over subsequent decades, the airline’s behaviour shifted as bureaucratic control replaced entrepreneurial initiative. Without the disciplinary pressure of profit or competition, managerial incentives weakened, and performance accountability eroded. By the early 2000s, both Air India and Indian Airlines were operating at sustained losses—₹5.41 billion and ₹2.31 billion respectively—burdens borne by taxpayers rather than shareholders. The 2007 merger of the two entities, intended to create synergies, instead exacerbated inefficiencies as overlapping hierarchies and politically influenced decisions prevented operational reform (9).

This behavioural stagnation reflects Milton Friedman’s (1970) argument that when firms operate without profit incentives, they neglect their core economic responsibility to create value. Unlike private corporations disciplined by market competition, Air India faced no direct consequences for inefficiency. Service quality deteriorated sharply: Skytrax rated the airline only three stars, citing poor maintenance, aging fleets, and weak customer service (Skytrax, 2023) (10). From John Locke’s philosophical standpoint, such systemic underperformance challenges the moral legitimacy of state ownership. Locke’s notion that ownership is justified when it results from productive labour—and when it preserves “enough and as good” for others—implies that state enterprises, by misusing public resources and restricting consumer choice, may violate this ethical condition.

Air India’s accumulated losses exceeded ₹700 billion by 2017, underscoring how political interference and lack of performance-linked incentives produced a self-perpetuating cycle of inefficiency. Decisions regarding fleet expansion, routes, and staffing were often made to satisfy political constituencies rather than market realities. Such patterns align with public choice theory, which suggests that government enterprises often pursue politically expedient goals at the expense of economic rationality. In contrast to Apple’s adaptive “creative destruction,” Air India’s bureaucratic rigidity rendered it unable to innovate or respond to competitive pressures from private carriers like IndiGo or Emirates.

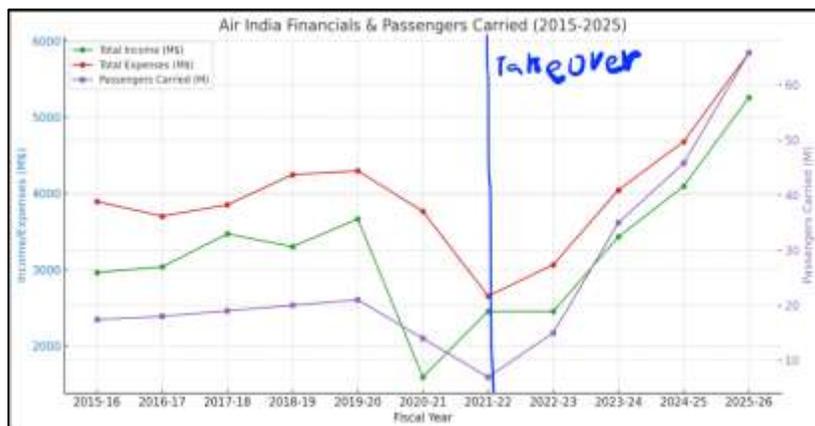


Fig 3: Air India Income/Expenses/Passengers Before and After Take-

A turning point emerged in January 2022, when the Tata Group reacquired Air India through privatization—reversing its 69-year status as a state enterprise. Post-acquisition, the airline initiated one of the largest aircraft procurement programs in history, ordering 470 new aircraft from Airbus and Boeing, including 70 wide-body jets such as the Airbus A350 and Boeing 777X,

and 400 narrow-body planes (Reuters, 2024). Tata also invested \$400 million to refurbish existing aircraft, upgrading cabin interiors and in-flight systems to international standards. Within two years, Air India achieved a 60% reduction in net losses <sup>(12)</sup> and a 23.7% increase in revenue (Times of India, 2024). These improvements reflect the behavioural transformation predicted by incentive theory: once performance became directly tied to financial outcomes, employee motivation, accountability, and innovation rose markedly (Refer Fig.3).

Air India's post-privatization recovery demonstrates that ownership structure directly conditions behavioural outcomes. The reintroduction of profit incentives realigned the relationship between effort, reward, and accountability, converting bureaucratic complacency into entrepreneurial action. In contrast to its earlier stagnation under state control, the privatized airline began to emulate the market responsiveness characteristic of firms like Apple. From a Lockean and Friedmanite standpoint, this transformation reestablishes both economic and moral legitimacy—restoring the link between labour, productivity, and reward that underpins just ownership.

To conclude, Air India's trajectory provides empirical evidence for the central hypothesis of this study: that profit-oriented governance mechanisms are superior to state-controlled systems in fostering innovation, efficiency, and accountability. Whereas Apple illustrates how the profit motive drives continual improvement through competition, Air India demonstrates the costs of its absence—and the revitalizing effect of its restoration through privatization. The comparison thus reinforces the broader conclusion that while profit may carry ethical risks, its disciplined pursuit remains an indispensable engine of responsible and responsive enterprise behaviour.

### ***Corporate Social Responsibility***

In the comparative framework of this study, Microsoft and Yeo Valley represent contrasting approaches to social responsibility within profit-driven and charitable ownership structures. This section examines how profitability interacts with ethical behaviour—specifically through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)—to assess whether profit maximization enables greater social impact than purely mission-driven or non-profit models. The analysis draws upon Paul A. Samuelson's proposition that firms with rising profits tend to contribute more to public welfare not because they must, but because they possess the economic capacity to do so.

Formally, the CSR relationship can be expressed as, and will be referred upon as:

**CSR spending = Profit (P) \* (%) allocated to CSR**

### **Microsoft: Scale and Ethical Capitalism**

Microsoft epitomizes the behavioral dynamics of a profit-driven enterprise that has successfully integrated ethical responsibility into its corporate identity. With annual net income exceeding \$80 billion in 2024,

Microsoft's profitability has enabled it to allocate substantial resources to long-term social initiatives that transcend mere compliance. Its flagship goals—becoming carbon negative by 2030, investing \$1 billion in a Climate Innovation Fund <sup>(13)</sup>, and advancing digital literacy through global community programs—reflect a deliberate transformation of economic capital into ethical capital (Smith, 2020). These initiatives are not philanthropic add-ons but strategic extensions of the firm's value proposition, illustrating Paul A. Samuelson's (1971) insight that profitable corporations tend to invest more heavily in social welfare because they can afford to do so.

From a Lockean perspective, Microsoft's approach to CSR reinforces the moral legitimacy of private ownership by ensuring that accumulated wealth serves a collective function rather than existing as idle property. In Locke's framework, ownership is justified not by possession alone but by its capacity to generate continued social and economic productivity. By channeling profits into environmental innovation and digital inclusion, Microsoft transforms private control into public benefit, fulfilling the ethical condition that property must contribute to the broader preservation and improvement of human welfare. Simultaneously, Friedman's (1970) assertion that the social responsibility of business is to increase its profits finds a contemporary reinterpretation here: Microsoft's social programs enhance long-term shareholder value through reputation, employee engagement, and sustainability-driven innovation. Thus, rather than contradicting profit maximization, Microsoft's CSR strategy represents an evolved form of it—where economic performance and ethical accountability reinforce one another.

Behaviorally, Microsoft demonstrates that profit can act as a self-sustaining mechanism for ethical conduct. The firm's vast financial reserves provide it with a margin of flexibility unavailable to less profitable entities, allowing it to pursue sustainability and social innovation without jeopardizing shareholder value. Its CSR engagement also illustrates bounded rationality in corporate decision-making: while immediate profit remains central, the company recognizes that social legitimacy and environmental stewardship are prerequisites for sustained market success in a globalized, information-driven economy. In this way, Microsoft redefines profit not as an isolated end but as a means of social continuity—a behavioral adaptation that strengthens both its economic and moral resilience.

Nevertheless, this model is not without its contradictions. Microsoft's global operations rely on complex supply chains that occasionally conflict with its stated ethical objectives. The firm has faced criticism for outsourcing production to regions with less stringent labour regulations, particularly in China, raising questions about the consistency of its social commitments. These tensions reveal the dual nature of profitability: while it empowers ethical investment, it also creates incentives for cost efficiency that can lead to moral trade-offs. Yet, the company's transparency initiatives and willingness to publicize sustainability metrics suggest a self-corrective capacity typical of profit-driven enterprises operating under public scrutiny. Thus, Microsoft demonstrates how profit, when coupled with transparency and institutionalized ethics, can

become a self-regulating instrument of social good—a manifestation of what this study terms ethical capitalism.

In contrast to large-scale profit-driven corporations, Yeo Valley, a U.K.-based organic dairy enterprise governed by the Yeo Valley Trust, exemplifies the behavioural characteristics of a charitable ownership model<sup>(15)</sup>. The company's organizational structure embeds ethical and environmental objectives at its core, prioritizing sustainability, local community welfare, and responsible stewardship of natural resources. Rather than pursuing profit maximization, Yeo Valley aligns its operations with a mission-oriented vision—reflecting a governance model where the social purpose precedes economic performance<sup>(16)</sup>. This approach resonates with John Locke's principle of stewardship, which holds that ownership entails moral obligations toward the preservation and responsible use of resources for the common good. In practice, Yeo Valley operationalizes this philosophy through commitments to regenerative agriculture, recyclable packaging, soil conservation, and education on sustainable farming practices.

However, the firm's ethical focus coexists with significant structural and financial constraints. With an annual revenue of approximately £300 million, Yeo Valley's operations remain modest compared to profit-driven multinationals like Microsoft. Its charitable status limits access to equity financing and external investment, confining growth largely to retained earnings or philanthropic contributions. Consequently, its CSR initiatives—though authentic—are localized and incremental, often confined to community-level programs rather than global-scale interventions (Yeo Valley, 2023). This condition exemplifies a broader economic phenomenon: the trade-off between moral coherence and operational capacity. While mission-driven enterprises excel in normative integrity, they frequently lack the scale and liquidity necessary to institutionalize long-term social transformation.

From a behavioural economics standpoint, Yeo Valley's model demonstrates the power and limitation of intrinsic motivation within organizational behaviour. Its leadership and employees are guided by a sense of moral duty rather than material incentive, consistent with self-determination theory, which links purpose-driven motivation to well-being and ethical consistency. Yet, intrinsic motivation, while ethically powerful, is not self-sustaining in markets that reward efficiency, innovation, and scalability. In the absence of profit surpluses, Yeo Valley must continually balance its moral commitments with economic survival, resulting in what scholars of social enterprise describe as mission–market tension—the constant negotiation between doing good and staying viable.

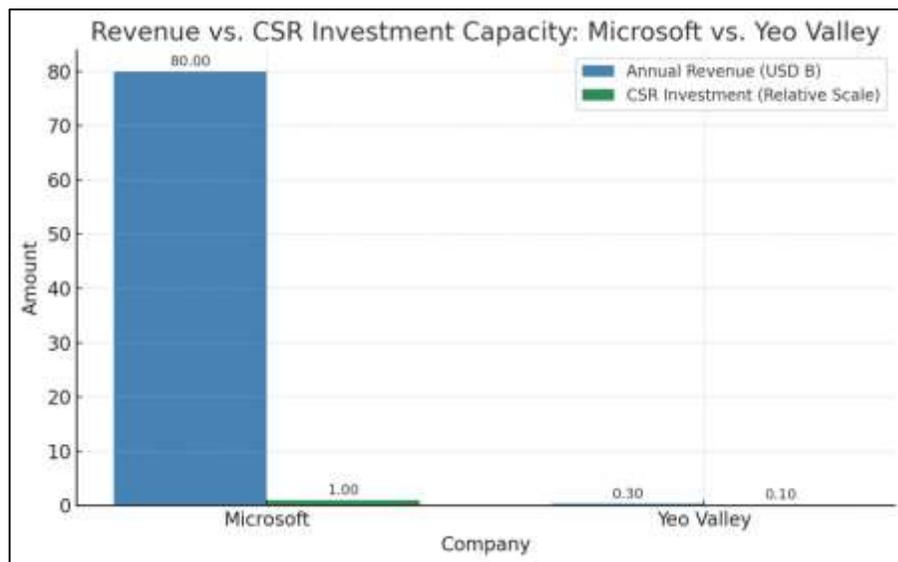


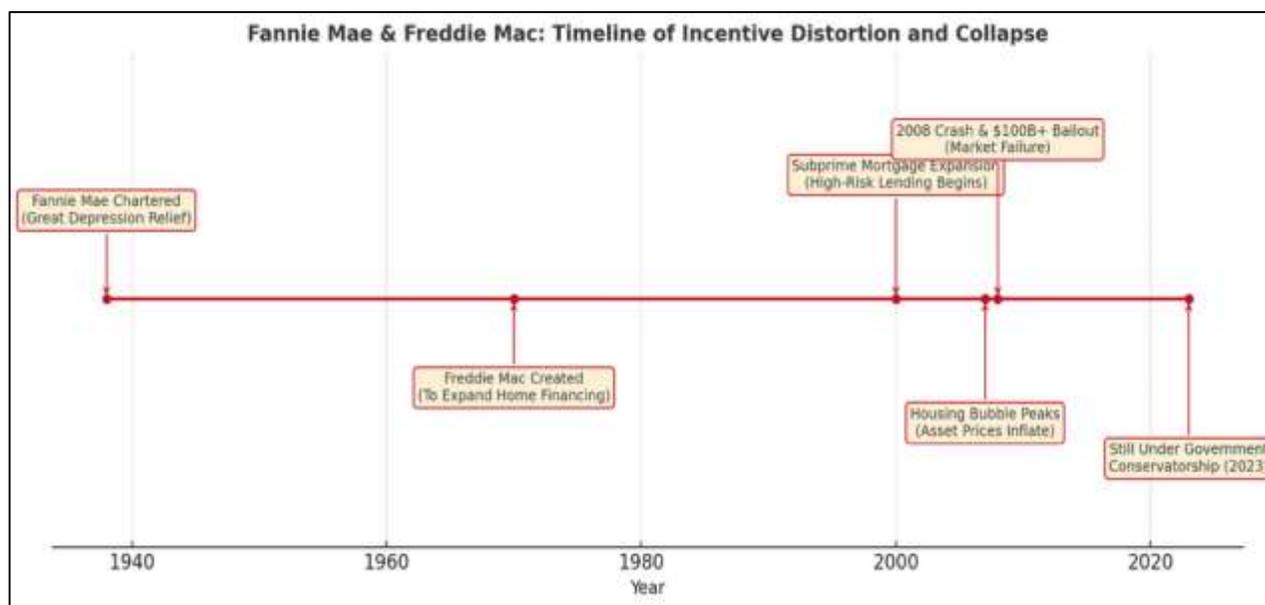
Fig 4: CSR Microsoft vs. Yeo Valley

education initiatives, Yeo Valley's social impact is constrained to its immediate ecosystem. This disparity supports Paul Samuelson's proposition that profitability enhances the capacity for ethical engagement: corporations that generate economic surpluses possess greater freedom to act in socially beneficial ways.

In comparative terms, Yeo Valley demonstrates that ethical intent alone cannot substitute for economic scale. Its charitable ownership structure ensures moral clarity but restricts strategic flexibility and investment capacity. From an efficiency perspective, this reflects the classic economic tension between equity and productivity: Yeo Valley maximizes distributive fairness and environmental responsibility but sacrifices operational efficiency and market reach. While this trade-off preserves ethical purity, it limits the organization's ability to influence systemic change in agriculture or sustainability at large.

This writing has discussed how profit-driven enterprises nurture more responsible behaviour than government-owned ones. To reach a fuller conclusion, however, hybrid cases like Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac—public enterprises with profit motives—must also be considered.

## Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac



While privately owned firms such as Apple and publicly controlled entities like Air India represent distinct ownership extremes, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac occupy a complex intermediate space. These government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs) were intended to combine the efficiency of private markets with the stability of state oversight. In practice, however, this hybrid ownership structure produced behavioral distortions—blurring accountability, misaligning incentives, and weakening market discipline. Their trajectory demonstrates how mixed governance systems can amplify rather than mitigate risk when profit motives operate under conditions of implicit government protection (Federal Housing Finance Agency, n.d.).

Established in 1938 and 1970 respectively, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac were designed to enhance liquidity and accessibility in the U.S. mortgage market. By purchasing home loans from private lenders, repackaging them into mortgage-backed securities (MBS), and selling them to investors, both institutions effectively expanded homeownership and stabilized financial flows <sup>(17)</sup>. Initially, this model appeared to fulfill its public purpose by democratizing credit access and lowering borrowing costs. Yet over time, the hybrid framework created structural contradictions: while both enterprises were privately owned and profit-oriented, they benefited from an implicit government guarantee that encouraged excessive risk-taking <sup>(17)</sup>.

This behavioral dynamic is best explained by the concept of moral hazard—a condition in which actors insulated from risk have incentives to act recklessly. Knowing that potential losses would likely be absorbed by taxpayers, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac aggressively expanded their exposure to subprime and high-risk mortgage products in pursuit of greater short-term returns (Amadeo, 2023). Executive compensation systems, tied heavily to profit growth and market share, reinforced this risk-seeking behavior. The profit motive, detached from genuine market accountability, transformed into a form of speculative opportunism. In classical economic terms, the risk–reward equilibrium was broken: rewards were privatized while risks were socialized.

The GSEs’ hybrid structure also exemplifies the principles of public choice theory, which examines how self-interested behavior within political and bureaucratic systems can lead to inefficient outcomes. Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac used their political influence to secure favorable regulation and resist oversight. Their lobbying power—derived from their perceived indispensability to the housing market—allowed them to preserve privileges such as low borrowing costs and minimal capital requirements<sup>(18)</sup>. This regulatory capture illustrates a broader systemic problem: when firms operate at the intersection of public authority and private profit, they can exploit both spheres, using political leverage to sustain behaviors that would be untenable in a competitive market.

The cumulative effect of these distorted incentives was the systemic vulnerability that precipitated the 2008 financial crisis. As housing prices declined, both Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac faced catastrophic losses from the mortgage-backed securities they had underwritten. The scale of the exposure—exceeding \$100 billion in losses—necessitated a federal takeover to prevent broader financial contagion<sup>(19)</sup>. This outcome underscores Friedman’s (1970) cautionary principle that profit motives function effectively only under competitive conditions where firms bear the full consequences of their actions. In the GSE model, the profit motive was unrestrained by market discipline and untampered by regulatory accountability, creating an unsustainable feedback loop of moral hazard and excessive leverage.

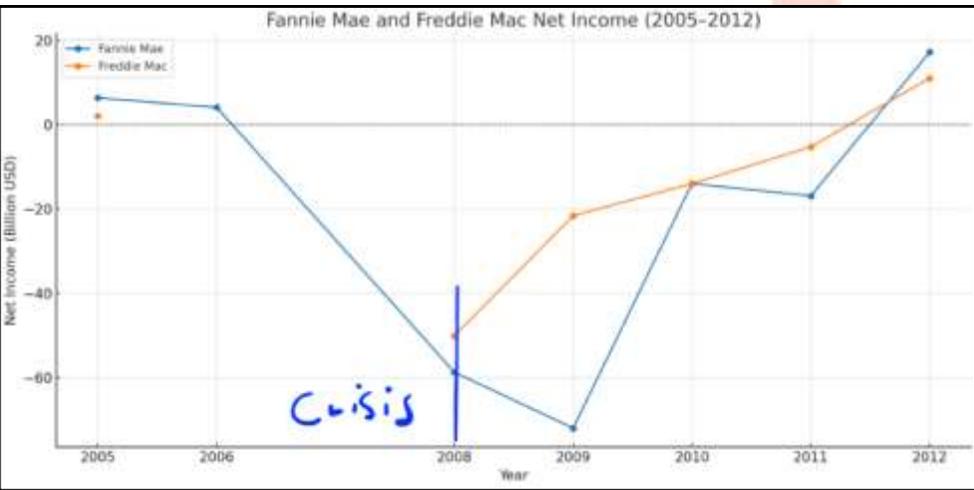


Fig. 5: Effect of 2008 Market Crash on Income

From a behavioral economics perspective, the case illustrates how institutional design shapes decision-making and corporate psychology. Hybrid ownership produced cognitive and organizational complacency: managers perceived themselves as operating in a low-risk environment,

reinforcing confirmation biases and short-termism. This environment diminished the natural risk aversion that market exposure typically enforces. The absence of genuine competition further exacerbated these tendencies, eroding the feedback mechanisms—profit and loss—that normally regulate firm behavior (Refer Fig. 5).

Post-crisis reforms sought to address these structural failures by placing both entities under federal conservatorship and imposing stricter capital and transparency requirements (Federal Housing Finance Agency, n.d.). Yet, the fundamental dilemma remains unresolved: how to balance public welfare objectives with private incentives in industries deemed too essential to fail. The Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac experience

demonstrates that hybrid ownership tends to institutionalize asymmetric accountability—where profits accrue to private actors, but losses are borne by the public. Such arrangements, though politically expedient, contradict the foundational logic of market efficiency and undermine long-term financial stability.

In conclusion, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac reveal the behavioral and systemic vulnerabilities inherent in hybrid enterprises. When the profit motive is pursued without corresponding exposure to risk, efficiency and responsibility deteriorate. These cases reinforce the study's broader argument: while profit-driven models like Apple or Microsoft channel self-interest into innovation and accountability, hybrid entities distort these same incentives, converting the profit motive into a destabilizing force. The failure of the GSE model thus underscores a central economic insight—that ownership clarity and risk symmetry are prerequisites for the productive and ethical functioning of profit motives.

In examining Apple, Air India, Microsoft, Yeo Valley, and the hybrid cases of Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, it becomes clear that profit-driven enterprises, though imperfect, consistently demonstrate greater innovation, efficiency, and responsiveness to consumer needs than government or charity-owned models. State enterprises often suffer from weak accountability, charitable firms from limited scale, and hybrids from moral hazard, while profit-oriented businesses—when guided by competition and regulation—can transform private ambition into public benefit. From a Lockean perspective, such enterprises embody the right to enjoy the fruits of labor without depriving others, often expanding opportunities, creating jobs, and driving progress. Thus, while regulation remains essential to temper excesses, profit-driven ownership structures remain society's most effective mechanism for aligning self-interest with social welfare, fostering behaviors that governments or charities alone rarely achieve.

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