

壹、請於閱讀論文後回答下列問題：(50%)

- (1)請以 100 字以內書寫本論文的摘要。(15%)
- (2)請評論本論文所使用的研究方法(含研究設計)。(15%)
- (3)請描述本論文的依變項並說明如何測量。(10%)
- (4)請說明假設 1a 和假設 1b 的形成來源。(10%)

WHEN OTHERS RETIRE EARLY: WHAT ABOUT ME?

Studies in layoff settings have documented that the perceived fairness of workforce reductions influences remaining employees' attitudes toward their organization (Brockner & Greenberg, 1990). In particular, fair treatment of layoff victims is important to remaining employees (Brockner, 1990; Brockner, DeWitt, Grover, & Reed, 1990; Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt, & O'Malley, 1987). However, it is unclear whether findings based on layoff survivor research are generalizable to early retirements, a workforce reduction alternative frequently used before or in lieu of layoffs. Following an early retirement program, remaining employees' reactions may be more influenced by an assessment of their own predicament. Remaining employees' concern for departing employees may be less important to them because, unlike employees who are laid off, early retirees have chosen whether or not to leave the organization. Further, remaining employees know that voluntary workforce reductions, such as early retirements, often precede involuntary job cuts. Remaining employees' self-focused attention may thus be heightened, and their perceptions of and reactions to the fairness attributes of an early retirement program are likely to be based on concerns for their own future.

We extend research on employees' reactions to workforce reductions by focusing on employees remaining in an organization who were not eligible for an early retirement program. Our study consid-

ered two questions: First, what influence does organizational assistance to early retirees (caretaking) have on the intentions to quit of remaining employees who are ineligible for the program? Second, because age and tenure are demographic characteristics that render employees eligible or ineligible for early retirement, we asked, do the age and tenure of remaining employees (their similarity or dissimilarity to those who are retiring early) moderate the relationships between caretaking and intentions to quit?

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Prior layoff research has suggested that remaining employees' intentions to quit are lower and their commitment to their organization higher when they perceive that laid-off employees were treated fairly (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994; Brockner et al., 1990; Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992; Sutton, Eisenhardt, & Jucker, 1986; Turnley & Feldman, 1998). One characteristic of fair treatment of layoff victims is caretaking, or compensation and other forms of assistance provided to victims. When an organization takes care of those laid off, surviving employees are less likely to see the layoff as unfair (Brockner, 1990).

Our study focused specifically on how remaining employees reacted to caretaking provided to early retirees. Following an early retirement, remaining employees are likely to scrutinize the terms of the pension and other financial benefits provided to early retirees. This caretaking provides a financial bridge that helps departing employees adjust to their change in employment status. More importantly, caretaking provisions influence remaining employees' expectations about how they are likely

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to be cared for if their jobs are targeted for elimination in the future. Consequently, when remaining employees perceive the caretaking the organization offers early retirees as adequate, they are less inclined to seek employment elsewhere.

Equity theory (Adams, 1965) suggests that employees may react negatively toward an organization that either undercompensates or overcompensates coworkers. When remaining employees perceive early retirement caretaking provisions as inadequate, they are likely to distance themselves from an organization they perceive to be unfair. On the other hand, remaining employees may perceive early retirement caretaking provisions as too generous. An early retirement decision is a choice made by the early retiree, one that is often based upon the individual's having preferred alternatives to continuing in the job (Feldman, 1994). Therefore, remaining employees may feel that early retirees don't need generous caretaking in the way that layoff victims do. Further, early retirees leave their organization closer to the time their natural psychological contracts would conclude. Thus, an early retirement is less likely than a layoff to be perceived as a violation of an implied psychological contract of job security (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Remaining employees may feel that very generous severance and benefit packages for early retirees limit the financial resources available to take care of their own needs and that, in addition, they are left to pick up the extra workload. When remaining employees perceive that generous caretaking provisions have been made to early retirees, they may feel envy and jealousy and may perceive themselves, not the early retirees, as having been treated unfairly (Leana & Feldman, 1992; Marks, 1994). These feelings of inequity may result in heightened intentions to leave the organization:

Hypothesis 1a. Following an early retirement program, intentions to quit will be higher when caretaking is perceived as inadequate.

Hypothesis 1b. Following an early retirement program, intentions to quit will be higher when caretaking is perceived as overly generous.

Caretaking should be of concern to all employees who observe a downsizing. However, in the early stages of a voluntary workforce reduction, when remaining employees know that more aggressive, personally threatening involuntary job cuts may be forthcoming, their "sense-making" is likely to be focused on how they might be treated. Sociodemographic attributes may form the basis for social comparison processes relevant to employees' assessments of organizational justice (Lansberg,

1989). Because early retirement eligibility and the level of severance payments are commonly based on age and tenure, these indicators are especially appropriate vantage points from which to consider remaining employees' attachment of relative importance to caretaking attributes.

In an early retirement setting, specific characteristics of caretaking provisions are likely to be more salient for older or more tenured employees. In comparison with younger or less tenured employees, older or more tenured employees, although not eligible for the early retirement, are nonetheless more demographically similar to and more likely to compare themselves with early retirees. They may ask themselves, "How does what the early retirees got compare with what I will get?" Similarity with a comparison other increases the felt inequity when that comparison other has received an underreward or overreward (Adams, 1965). Thus, older or more tenured employees may feel threatened when they believe that early retirees received less than adequate caretaking, perceiving this as a signal that they themselves are less valued by the organization and that subsequent workforce reductions will continue to thin their ranks (Newman, 1988). On the other hand, earlier we suggested that perceptions of overly generous caretaking of early retirees could lead to envy or jealousy on the part of remaining employees. If older or more tenured employees perceive themselves to be more similar to early retirees, and therefore deserving of the same or similar outcomes, these feelings of envy and jealousy may be especially exacerbated.

We hypothesized effects for age and tenure separately. Although likely to be correlated, age and tenure may be associated with distinctly different outcomes (e.g., Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). Age is a broad social phenomenon (Lawrence, 1996), whereas tenure is an organizationally specific characteristic. Further, both age and tenure are often negatively correlated with intentions to quit (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Therefore, we did not expect intentions to quit to be significantly higher among older or more tenured employees than among younger or less tenured employees. What we predicted was that the relationships described in Hypotheses 1a and 1b will be significantly more pronounced for older or more tenured employees.

Hypothesis 2a. The effects of inadequate or overly generous caretaking on intentions to quit will be more pronounced for older employees.

Hypothesis 2b. The effects of inadequate or overly generous caretaking on intentions to

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quit will be more pronounced for longer-tenured employees.

METHODS

Sample and Procedures

The data for this study were collected as part of a larger study of the downsizing efforts of a public utility firm located in the northeastern United States. The firm's downsizing efforts included an early retirement program (the focus of this study), followed later by a voluntary severance program (described in DeWitt, Treviño, and Mollica [1998]). Employees were eligible for the early retirement if they were at least 55 years old and had at least 5 years of service. The company enhanced the retirement benefits by adding 5 years to each eligible employee's years of service, so that the retirement package was actually based on a minimum of 10 years of service.

We developed a survey instrument in collaboration with a team of the organization's managerial employees who were familiar with both the organizational justice literature and employee concerns about the workforce reduction. Surveys were sent to a random sample of 1,089 employees, approximately 21 percent of the organization's 5,178 non-bargaining-unit employees. Two cover letters, one from the chief executive officer and the division presidents and one from the research team, accompanied the survey. The letters explained the purpose of the study and encouraged employees to participate. All responses were anonymous. We administered the survey about four months after implementation of the early retirement program.

A total of 699 usable surveys were returned within six weeks of mailing, for a 64 percent response rate. Twenty-four respondents were eliminated because they indicated they had been eligible for the early retirement, and 7 were eliminated because they did not indicate whether they had been eligible. These cuts resulted in a final sample of 668 remaining employees who had not been eligible for the early retirement. Respondents were representative of the larger non-bargaining-unit population (72 percent were men and 38.5 percent were managerial employees).

Measures

Items designed to measure respondents' demographic characteristics, perceptions of attributes of the early retirement program, and intentions to quit were contained in separate sections of the survey. Unless otherwise described, the attitudinal and

perceptual variables were measured on a scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree," to 5, "strongly agree."

Independent variables. Age and organizational tenure, in years, were measured as continuous variables and self-reported by respondents. Respondent age ranged from 23 to 65 years ($\bar{x} = 44$ years); tenure ranged from less than 1 year to 35 years ($\bar{x} = 15$ years).

Caretaking was based on responses to two items ($\alpha = .76$) measuring the perceived adequacy of early retirement provisions, including (1) pensions and (2) health and/or other kinds of insurance benefits. The following five-point Likert-type scale was used: 1, "completely inadequate," 2, "somewhat inadequate," 3, "adequate," 4, "somewhat too generous," and 5, "too generous." This scale was designed to accommodate the possibility that some remaining employees viewed caretaking of early retirees as inadequate while others viewed it as too generous.

Dependent variable. Intentions to quit were measured with a three-item scale ($\alpha = .85$) drawn from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). Employees were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with the following items: "I often think about quitting my job," "I am planning to look for a new job within one year," and "It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year."

Control variables. Previous research has documented that explanations provided by management during a layoff help to minimize the negative reactions of survivors (e.g., Brockner et al., 1990). In an early retirement setting, explanations may help mitigate remaining employees' concerns about how workforce reduction decisions might be made in the future. Therefore, we controlled for explanations, measured in terms of remaining employees' perceptions of the adequacy and clarity of explanations surrounding the early retirement. Two items ($\alpha = .71$) drawn from previous layoff research (Brockner et al., 1990) were used: "[The corporation] provided a clear and adequate explanation of the retirement program to those who were eligible for early retirement," and "The managers in my company provided a clear and adequate explanation of the retirement program to those who were eligible for early retirement."

Because remaining employees' reactions are likely to be influenced by their beliefs regarding the necessity of an early retirement, we included a measure of remaining employees' perceptions of the need for the early retirement. Employees were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with three statements ($\alpha = .93$); an example is "Consid-

ering [the corporation's] situation, the early retirements were justified."

Remaining employees may also speculate (perhaps accurately) that a voluntary workforce reduction will inevitably be followed by layoffs. Remaining employees will react more negatively to a voluntary program if it is seen as the harbinger of layoffs. We used two items ($\alpha = .82$) to control for variance in attributions about the *likelihood of future layoffs*; an example is "It is likely that [the corporation] will have involuntary severances in the future."

Finally, to control for the possibility of gender differences in intentions to quit, we included gender as a control variable (male = 1 and female = 0).

Analyses

We used moderated hierarchical regression analysis to test the hypotheses. In step 1, the control variables were entered as a set; these were explanations, perceived necessity of early retirements, likelihood of layoffs, and gender.

We created dummy variables to represent three levels of caretaking—adequate, inadequate, and generous. The first represented an average rating on the two caretaking items greater than 2 but less than 4; the second, an average rating less than or equal to 2; and the third, an average rating of 4 or more.

We used methods outlined by Aiken and West (1991) to test categorical variables and the interaction of categorical with continuous variables. With inadequate and generous caretaking entered in the regression model and adequate caretaking as the comparison variable (constant), we were able to determine if perceptions of either inadequate or overly generous caretaking were associated with higher intentions to quit than were perceptions of adequate caretaking. For example, if the regression coefficient for generous caretaking was significant

and positive, we would conclude that generous caretaking was associated with higher intentions to quit than adequate caretaking.

In step 2 of the regression, age, tenure, and the dummy variables for caretaking (inadequate and overly generous) were entered. Although we did not hypothesize main effects for age and tenure, we included these two variables prior to testing for moderating effects in the next hierarchical step. In step 3, we entered separate variables for the four respective interactions of age and tenure with the caretaking dummies to test for the moderating effects of age and tenure on the relationship between caretaking and intentions to quit.

RESULTS

Descriptive results, including means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables, are presented in Table 1. We expected that employees who were eligible for the early retirement but chose to remain in the organization would be less likely than ineligible employees to perceive caretaking as overly generous. Indeed, our small sample of eligible employees remaining in the organization expressed significantly lower perceptions of caretaking generosity ($\bar{x} = 2.77$) than the ineligible remaining employees ($\bar{x} = 3.10$, $p < .001$, $t_{677} = 2.93$).

Regression results are shown in Table 2. The control variables accounted for 10 percent of the variance in intentions to quit. As expected, perceptions of clear and adequate explanations were negatively associated with intentions to quit ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .001$). Perceived need for the early retirements was negatively associated with intentions to quit ($\beta = -.09$, $p < .05$), and the belief that the company would have layoffs in the future was positively associated with intentions to quit ($\beta = .20$,

TABLE 1
Summary Statistics and Correlations

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Intentions to quit	2.16	1.16							
2. Explanations	3.72	0.77	-.21**						
3. Need for early retirements	3.84	0.94	-.16**	.32**					
4. Likelihood of future layoffs	3.85	0.90	.20**	.02	.02				
5. Gender*	0.72	0.45	.03	-.05	-.03	.05			
6. Caretaking	3.10	0.54	.08	.11**	.08*	.08	-.13**		
7. Age	43.22	7.27	-.14**	.01	-.15**	-.11**	.26**	-.11**	
8. Organizational tenure	15.74	7.79	-.10**	-.01	-.18**	-.07	.19**	-.11**	.60**

* Male = 1, female = 0.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 2
Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results

Variable	Intentions to Quit		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.10	.10***
Explanations	-.21***		
Need for early retirements	-.09*		
Likelihood of future layoffs	.20***		
Gender	.01		
Step 2		.14	.04***
Inadequate caretaking	.01		
Too generous caretaking	.13***		
Age	-.11*		
Tenure	-.06		
Step 3		.16	.02**
Inadequate caretaking \times age	-.09		
Too generous caretaking \times age	-.74*		
Inadequate caretaking \times tenure	-.10		
Too generous caretaking \times tenure	.35**		

* Male = 1, female = 0.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

TABLE 3
Means for Intentions to Quit by Age and Tenure^a

Group	Perceptions of Caretaking ^b	
	Adequate	Too Generous
Age		
Older employees	1.94	2.29
Younger employees	2.23	2.67
Tenure		
More tenured employees	1.87	2.84
Less tenured employees	2.29	2.42

^a Means for intentions to quit are based on median splits of age and tenure, respectively.

^b "Adequate" represents >2 and <4 on a five-point scale where 3 = "adequate." "Too generous" represents ≥ 4 on a five-point scale where 4 = "somewhat too generous" and 5 = "too generous."

$p < .001$). There was no relationship between gender and intentions to quit.

In Hypotheses 1a and 1b, we predicted that intentions to quit would be higher when the organization's caretaking of early retirees was perceived as either inadequate or too generous. Hypothesis 1a was not supported. The dummy variable representing perceptions of inadequate caretaking was not significant. Thus, perceptions of inadequate caretaking were not associated with higher intentions to quit than were perceptions of adequate caretaking. However, Hypothesis 1b was supported: in

step 2 of the regression analysis, the coefficient for the dummy variable representing perceptions of too generous caretaking was positive and significant ($\beta = .13, p < .001$).

In Hypotheses 2a and 2b, we predicted that age and tenure would moderate the relationships between caretaking and intentions to quit. In step 3 of the regression, the coefficients for the interactions of inadequate caretaking with age and tenure were not significant; therefore, we concluded that neither age nor tenure moderated the effect of inadequate levels of caretaking on intentions to quit. However, the regression coefficients for the interaction of generous caretaking with age ($\beta = -.74, p < .05$) and tenure ($\beta = .35, p < .01$) were significant, suggesting that age and tenure moderated the relationship between levels of caretaking perceived to be overly generous and intentions to quit. To further investigate the relationships between age, tenure, caretaking, and intentions to quit, we performed median splits on the age and tenure data and computed the mean intentions to quit for each group. Although the differences in intentions to quit between two levels of caretaking were not large, we note that these intentions increased the most when adequate and overly generous caretaking were compared among the more tenured employees. Contrary to our prediction, intentions to quit increased less among older than among younger employees when caretaking was perceived as overly generous rather than as adequate, explaining the negative coefficient for the interaction of too generous caretaking and age in the regression.

Additional Analyses

We conducted two additional analyses. First, we explored the role of gender as a moderator of the influence of caretaking on intentions to quit, a possible relationship similar to the predicted relationships for age and tenure. Using the same regression procedure described above, we did not find significant moderating effects for gender. Table 3 gives results of the moderation tests.

Second, a dependent variable that is often included in studies of employee reactions to workforce reductions is organizational commitment (e.g., DeWitt et al., 1998). We measured organizational commitment in this sample using eight items ($\alpha = .91$) from a scale developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). We conducted a regression analysis with commitment as the dependent variable. There were no significant main effects of caretaking on organizational commitment, nor were there moderating relationships between age and caretaking or tenure and caretaking.

DISCUSSION

We extended organizational justice inquiry to consider the reactions of ineligible remaining employees to their coworkers' early retirements, thus examining a voluntary rather than an involuntary workforce reduction setting. The relationship between perceived organizational caretaking and reactions was different from those indicated in research on layoffs. The latter has demonstrated that greater levels of caretaking provided to victims is associated with lower intentions to quit on the part of survivors. On the contrary, we found that perceptions of overly generous caretaking were associated with *higher* intentions to quit on the part of ineligible employees who remained in the organization following an early retirement program. As eligible employees remaining in the organization expressed significantly lower perceptions of caretaking generosity than did ineligible remaining employees, our findings do not generalize to those employees who chose to stay in the organization even though they were eligible for the early retirement.

Following a voluntary workforce reduction, ineligible remaining employees may be likely to ask the self-interested question, "What about me?" Our results suggest that the survivor and victim distinction made in layoff research may not be applicable to a voluntary workforce reduction setting. In an early retirement, eligible employees have a choice about leaving. Further, employees who remain often confront a more uncertain employment picture, decreased resources, and more work. Layoff studies (e.g., Brockner et al., 1987, 1990) have not considered that survivors might perceive caretaking as too generous because layoff victims are forced to leave their organizations. It is interesting that we found no relationship between perceptions of inadequate caretaking and intentions to quit, as would be expected in a layoff setting. One conclusion that could be drawn from our findings is that in an early retirement program, as opposed to a layoff setting, remaining employees do not necessarily view the underrewarding of retirees as a negative outcome. However, since we examined only one type of employee reaction—intentions to quit—further research is needed to support this conjecture.

Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) encouraged researchers to examine the roles of age and tenure in employees' reactions to workforce reductions. Our study shows that more tenured employees are more sensitive than less tenured employees to the perceived overrewarding of early retirees, reacting with increased intentions to leave. More tenured employees may have a different frame of reference

in terms of what they see as an appropriate exchange relationship with their organization. Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) found that, compared with employees with less seniority, employees with greater seniority perceived their employees as owing them more and themselves as owing their employees less. Regardless of age, the length of time that an employee has been with an organization may increase feelings of entitlement, and tenure may play an important role in forming the basis for employees' expectations regarding caretaking provisions during an early retirement.

Our finding that intentions to quit increased less among older than among younger employees when caretaking was perceived as overly generous rather than as adequate was puzzling. This pattern may be explained by considering both age and tenure together. Prior to the workforce reductions, the organization that we studied had engaged in hiring practices that resulted in a cohort of older employees with less tenure. Among the respondents in the study, 17 percent were older than the mean age for the sample but had lower than the mean organizational tenure. We compared this group of employees with those who were higher than the sample mean on both age and tenure; the latter group represented 35 percent of the sample. The relationship between overly generous caretaking and intentions to quit did not hold for the group of older, less tenured employees; these employees did not exhibit higher intentions to quit when caretaking was perceived to be too generous. Apparently, despite the fact that these employees were closer in age to the early retirees than younger employees, their lower tenure with the organization may have lessened the extent to which early retirement caretaking provisions were salient to them.

貳、請由下附（節錄）論文，回答下列各問題（共50分）

- 一、在一個實證研究過程中概念如何轉換成電腦分析資料？統計工具又如何連結與檢驗理論？請以本論文為例說明之。（15分）
- 二、本論文使用之統計分析方法計有因素分析、集群分析、典型相關分析、變異數分析及卡方分析，請就這些方法分別說明（1）它所能達成的分析功能（2）它的簡單原理（3）它所適用的變數型態。（20分）
- 三、您對本研究有何評論？如果由您執行您有何進一步之改善措施？（15分）

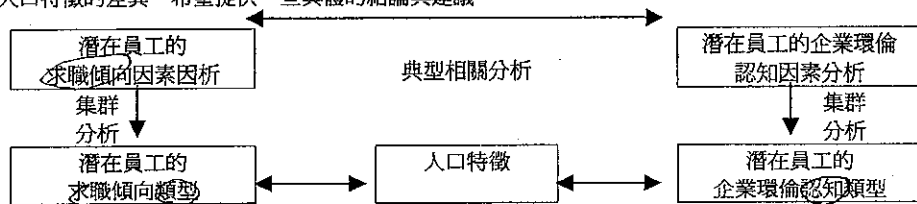
綠色招募之研究——潛在員工企業環境倫理認知與其求職傾向之關係

壹、緒 論

Shrivastava[1995]認為，隨著全球自然資源的逐漸稀少，環保乃成為刻不容緩的重要議題，而由於產業發展與自然環境之間，存有明顯的互動關係，所以國際間對於企業環保的要求與日俱增，各種關於企業環境管理的研究也持續增多。但近年來一些研究卻發現（如 Shelton[1996]、沈介文與徐木蘭[2000]），如果企業整體沒有相當程度的環境意識，也就是所謂的企業環境倫理（以下簡稱企業環倫）認知的话，那麼在執行環保時，往往就會出現「綠牆效應」（green wall）的現象，亦即經營單位與環管單位之間，會發生理念或執行上的衝突與不一致；因此，企業若要順利而有效的進行環境管理，則其對企業環倫認知的提昇就顯得相當重要了。

.....（節略）.....

基於綠色人力資源管理是有助於企業綠化的重要內部機制，而綠色招募又是其中重要的開始，所以瞭解潛在員工的企業環境倫理認知是必要的，將有助於企業為了顧及綠化目的，而進行任用時的篩選；除此之外，企業要進行有效的綠色招募，並不能只是一廂情願地提出要求，而是要兼顧潛在員工的需求。因此，本研究乃試圖針對潛在員工的企業環境倫理認知，及其求職傾向（亦即其選擇職業的需求）進行瞭解，而研究目的如圖一所示，包括了透過文獻與座談，整理出企業環境倫理認知和潛在員工求職傾向的問卷，並進行問卷調查與典型相關分析，以瞭解潛在員工的企業環倫認知與求職傾向之間的關係；最後，本研究將進行集群分析，以瞭解潛在員工的企業環倫認知和求職傾向之類型，並比較其人口特徵的差異，希望提供一些具體的結論與建議。



圖一：本研究架構

貳、文獻探討

一、企業環境倫理認知的相關文獻

.....（節略）.....

在環境倫理方面，沈介文、徐木蘭、劉俐玫、黃梅芳等人認為可以分成 18 個議題來看（如表一），當企業對每一個議題越趨向肯定的答案時，該企業就越偏向永續發展的企業環境倫理觀。

表一：企業環境倫理認知議題

1. 自然資源是否有限	8. 企業是否應該根據倫理原則面對自然	14. 企業在使用自然資源時是否應該多元化
2. 自然是否為有機體	9. 企業對科技是否應該謹慎發展	15. 企業對需求與消費的刺激是否應該節制
3. 自然是否有內在價值	10. 企業是否應該順應時序與節用資源	16. 企業是否應該進行全面環境品質管理與永續競爭策略
4. 自然是否會改變	11. 企業是否應該保持適度成長即可	17. 企業是否應該成立自然資源的督導單位
5. 自然與企業是否息息相關	12. 企業是否應主動環保	18. 企業是否應該將環境資訊予以公開和討論
6. 萬物之間是否平等	13. 企業是否應該注重並推廣永續發展	
7. 經濟發展應否考慮對環境之影響		

資料來源：修正自沈介文、徐木蘭[2000]以及沈介文、劉俐玫和黃梅芳[2000]。

二、潛在員工求職傾向的相關文獻

傳統的招募活動，企業比較不會顧及到潛在員工的需求，而是站在自身的立場，對潛在員工之 KSA 提出要求，希望能找到符合企業在知識、技術與態度上所期望的人選；當然，除了 KSA 之外，許多學者（例如 Barrick & Mount, 1991, Daboub, Rasheed, Priem, & Gray, 1995）還認為，潛在員工的人格構面與人口特徵，也是企業在招募任用過程中，應該考慮的因素之一，但不論如何，這些觀點通常是站在企業如何「選擇」員工的角度上，來看待企業的招募活動。

然而，隨著工作與工作者的多元化、勞工權益的受重視、在家工作者與創業者的增加，使得員工「選擇」企業的現象與觀念越來越被接受[Schuler, 1998]；此時，有學者就開始以互動的角度對企業招募提出建議。例如，劉仲炬、沈介文、徐木蘭[1998]和 Shachter[1999]就認為，在招募過程中，組織應該留住與其特質相同的新進人員，所以除了要篩選潛在員工之外，也要多多瞭解他們的需求，並從自己出發進行改變或配合，以滿足求職者的期望，而非傳統所提及的心理契約模式，讓求職者「瞭解」現況然後接受；如此一來，企業才有可能克服雇用員工時的一些困境，例如找不到人或是留不住人等等。

至於潛在員工求職時的需求可能包括那些，相關的研究倒是不多。這可能是因為各種工作的屬性與內容差異太大，再加上每個人的需求不同，而各種需求之間又往往有魚與熊掌不可兼得的雙趨衝突，於是很難訂出潛在員工求職傾向（需求）的具體內容。雖然如此，沈岱華[1992]仍然發展出一份類似的問卷，不過其目的並不是為了改善招募的理論或實務，而是以大學生為對象，瞭解其相關變項與其對工作條件重視程度之關係。其中，沈岱華以 28 個題項來衡量工作條件，包括工作特性、工作聲望以及工作環境等等，而其結果除了驗證工作—性格搭配理論之外，也發現大學生的某些人口特徵，與其對工作條件的重視之間，有相當顯著的關係。以下，本研究也將參考沈岱華對工作條件問卷的設計，並與企業負責招募的人員，進行座談與分析之後，設計出潛在員工求職傾向的問卷，以利後續的衡量與分析。

參、研究方法

本研究主要是以問卷調查進行資料收集，繼而以多變量統計進行資料分析，其中包括因素分析、集群分析、典型相關分析、單因子變異量分析以及卡方分析，而這些資料收集與分析的方法將分別敘述如下。

一、問卷調查

在問卷調查方面，首先要決定的是問卷設計，由於本研究目的主要是針對潛在員工的企業環境倫理認知、求職傾向以及人口特徵進行比較分析（請見圖一之研究架構），所以在問卷設計上，也就包含這三部份的內容。其中，企業環境倫理認知問卷主要是參考沈介文[1998]的研究，而求職傾向問卷是參考沈岱華[1992]的研究，至於人口特徵方面則是參考 Kotler[1997]所提到的幾種項目。不過，由於沈介文和沈岱華的研究，分別是針對資訊電子業員工和大學生所進行，其對象與本研究不盡相同，再加上他們的問卷，後續研究所採用的情形還不是很多，所以如果不加修飾地全盤接受，恐怕在效度上會產生問題；其次，Kotler 對人口特徵的建議，比較屬於行銷學上的建議，未必完全符合本研究的議題（企業環境倫理認知與求職傾向）。因此，本研究除了參考文獻所寫之外，也進行了三場共 15 人次的座談，邀請企業中參與招募活動的人員（其中有些人正待轉業，也是一種潛在員工），分別針對此二議題，以及企業招募時所關心的求職者人口特徵進行討論，然後搭配文獻中所提到的項目，修正成最後的問卷內容，總共有 35 題衡量企業環境倫理認知、21 題衡量求職傾向以及 14 題關於人口特徵的題項；其中，在求職傾向方面，問卷修改的幅度比較大，這可能是因為大學生和在職者之間，對工作條件的期待本來就存有差異，再加上近年來各種工作內涵的改變，使得例如像「事少錢多離家近」這類過去認為不可能也不道德的工作期待，都在資訊科技進步、知識決定個人利基、在家工作者增加等等趨勢之下，越來越可行而為人所接受，使得現在員工的求職傾向與過去不太相同。

在問卷設計好之後，本研究接著以某大學研究所及大學應屆畢業生為對象進行前測，目的是想瞭解問卷題項是否有文字不清、難以理解與回答之處，並在接受大家意見之後加以潤飾，然後開始正式的問卷寄發。至於本研究問卷寄發的對象，主要是以青輔會網站登錄的求職人員為抽樣架構（sampling frame），而根據 Yeh & Lawrence[1996]的研究指出，當樣本數接近或大於 200 的時候，其因素分析結果的可信度將大為提高；因此，本研究乃於民國 88 年 4 月至 10 月之間（此時青輔會網站仍有公佈求職人員的電子郵件地址，但現在已經不公佈了），逐日隨機抽取共 1071 份求職人員的名單，然後透過電子郵件發出問卷，共回收 222 份有效問卷，其人口特徵的分佈如表二所示。

透過表二可以發現，本研究的回卷者主要是以男性居多，大部份目前是單身，但其中有些可能曾經結過婚（因為有子女的人數比已結婚的人數多）；同時，回卷者祖籍大多是台灣人、曾經有過工作經驗（部份的月所得還不錯）、住在北部但都市化程度未必很高、主要學歷是商管或理工方面的大專程度、年齡集中在 28 歲以下，至於在信仰方面則是以佛教或其他（包括無神論者）居多，而主要的休閒場所則是戶內戶外平均分佈。

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在整理出表二的人口特徵分佈之後，本文在後續的資料分析中，也將針對都市化程度、年齡和所得，與企業環境倫理認知以及求職傾向的分群結果，進行單因子變異數分析，而其他變項則進行卡方分析，以探求這些人口特徵分佈的含意。其次，關於問卷的效度方面，由於問卷主要來自於文獻，又經過專家座談討論以及語意前測，所以基本上已經具備了表面效度和專家效度，而在信度方面，本研究將在以下因素分析的說明中，予以提報。

表二：有效回收問卷 14 種人口特徵分佈

性別：男/女	125/97	子女：有/無	117/105
祖籍：大陸/客家/台灣/其他	47/23/146/6	工作經驗：有/無	131/91
戶籍所在：北/中/南/外島/其他	113/51/46/2/10	主要專長：理工/商管/文法/藝術設計/其它	60/92/13/12/45
都市化程度：直轄/省轄/縣轄/其他鄉鎮	56/24/36/106	最高學歷：高中職/大專學/碩士/其他	52/141/15/14
信仰：佛/道/基督/天主/其他	77/40/17/89	主要休閒場所：戶外/戶內/皆可	64/80/78
婚姻狀態：已婚/單身	50/172	是否服役：志願/義務役/其他	13/79/130
年齡：22 歲以下/22-28/29-35/36-42/43-49/49 歲以上	60/99/34/21/7/1	月所得：18K 以下/18-25K/25-35K/35-50K/50-70K/70K 以上	40/67/37/38/22/18

二、資料分析

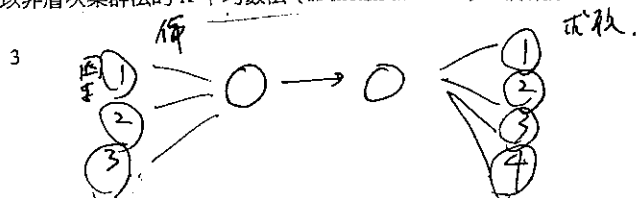
本研究在資料分析部份，首先針對企業環境倫理認知問卷，及求職傾向問卷進行因素分析 (factor analysis)。.....本研究採用的是主要因素法。.....本研究根據 Kaiser 原則和階梯檢定之後，.....決定萃取三個因素，其對總變異數的可解釋程度為 66%；至於在求職傾向方面，則.....萃取四個因素，其對總變異數的可解釋程度為 52% (請見表三所示)。在選取因素後，.....本研究接著進行最大變異轉軸法 (varimax rotation)，求得轉軸後的因素負荷量矩陣，並根據 Schlinger[1969]的建議，將因素負荷量最高，並大於 0.35 的各題項，分別歸類至各因素之中，然後針對每一因素所含的題項，進行 Cronbach α 信度測試。結果在企業環境倫理認知方面，因素一的信度為 0.96，因素二的信度為 0.95，因素三的信度為 0.91，三個信度都相當高，顯示此一問卷對各構面的衡量，其內部一致性良好；至於求職傾向方面，因素一的信度為 0.83，因素二的信度為 0.74，因素三的信度為 0.70，因素四的信度為 0.55，雖然整體來講都比較低，而其中除了因素四之外，其它三個因素的信度仍然達到 0.7 以上，所以還是有一定的信度水準。

表三：各因素之特徵值、特徵值差距及累積可解釋變異程度

企業環境倫理認知						
	因素一 (15 題)	因素二 (13 題)	因素三 (10 題)	因素四	因素五	因素六
特徵值	20.740	1.3507	0.9473	0.8580	0.8003	
特徵值差距	19.389	0.1681	0.0893	0.0577	0.0669	
累積可解釋變異程度	0.5926	0.6311	0.6920	0.7165	0.7394	
求職傾向						
	因素一 (六題)	因素二 (七題)	因素三 (五題)	因素四	因素五	因素六
特徵值	5.3937	2.3908	1.7898	1.2941	1.1001	
特徵值差距	3.0029	0.6010	0.4030	0.1939	0.1555	
累積可解釋變異程度	0.2568	0.3707	0.4559	0.5836	0.6360	

除了因素分析之外，本研究接著想要瞭解，潛在員工的企業環境倫理認知與求職傾向之間，是否有顯著的關係存在，但因為這二個概念，都包含了數個構面（因素），而不適合直接以相關或迴歸來進行檢測，所以本研究乃進行典型相關 (canonical correlation)，以求得各含數個構面的二概念之間，是否有一些顯著的線性組合關係。同時，本研究也針對回卷者進行集群分析 (cluster analysis)，希望透過客觀的方法，將相似的觀察值歸為同一集群，使總觀察值減縮成數個齊質群，並經由其資料的「重心」，將各集群予以命名[黃俊英，1991]。

在集群分析方面，本研究首先分別選擇因素分析所萃取的企業環境倫理認知因素，以及求職傾向因素為指標，來衡量觀察值的相似性，並參考 Anderberg 和 Punj & Stewart 的建議[引自黃俊英，1991]，透過二階段集群方法 (two-stage clustering approach)，先將標準化的資料以層次集群法 (hierarchical methods) 中的平均連鎖法 (average linkage)，找出適當的集群數 (通常是群內誤差遞增量最大者)，再以非層次集群法的 K 平均數法 (K-means methods)，將觀察



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值分類至各集群之中。最後，本研究也將各集群與各因素之間，分別進行單因子變異數分析，以瞭解各集群的資料特性，而能對集群加以命名與解釋；此外，本研究也將各集群與表二所列的各種人口特徵，進行單因子變異數分析或是卡方分析，以瞭解不論是根據企業環境倫理認知，或是求職傾向所得到的集群，其成員在各種人口特徵上是否有顯著差異。以下，就是本研究的結果說明。

肆、研究結果

一、因素分析結果

(節略)

表四：因素命名與其所含蓋之代表性題目

	因素命名	代表題目 (用以命名因素)
企業環境倫理	因素一：企業生態認知	第 5 題：「自然不只是一些物質的集合，還有各種生命的精神意義」
	因素二：企業規範認知	第 26 題：「企業應將生態永續的理念納入年度計劃之中，以具體的方針、行動、與規約，時時提醒和訓練員工保持應有的環保理念與行動」
	因素三：企業角色認知	第 13 題：「企業應該順著自然發展，而不是征服自然，所以企業不應該為了私利而改變生態」
求職傾向	因素一：外在安定性	第 7 題：「我的上班時間一定要固定」
	因素二：外在舒適性	第 6 題：「我的工作場所一定要怡人舒適」
	因素三：內在單純性	第 11 題：「我會選擇自主性不需要太高，凡事按部就班的工作」
	因素四：內在挑戰性	第 14 題：「我喜歡有挑戰性的工作，即使可能因而不穩定」

二、典型相關分析結果

(節略)

表五：典型相關分析結果

	第一對 典型相關係數 0.47*	第二對 典型相關係數 0.10	第三對 典型相關係數 0.04
變項	典型係數	典型係數	典型係數
求職傾向			
外在安定性	0.3023	-0.7633	0.8377
外在舒適性	0.8051*	0.2605	-0.6703
內在單純性	-0.1094	0.9304	0.5418
內在挑戰性	0.2152	0.2230	-0.0365
企業環境倫理認知			
企業生態認知	-0.5806*	-2.2610	-0.8835
企業規範認知	1.2097*	1.9014	-0.9337
企業角色認知	0.3409	-0.0472	1.8771

*：達顯著水準

三、集群分析結果

(節略)

表六：平均連鎖法分析結果

企業環境倫理認知					
集群數	群內誤差和	誤差遞增量	集群數	群內誤差和	誤差遞增量
10	0.6671	0.0042	5	0.9963	0.0516
9	0.6713	0.0456	4	1.0479	0.0017
8	0.7169	0.0090	3	1.0496	0.0751
7	0.7259	0.0737	2	1.1247	0.6158
*6	0.7996	0.1967	1	1.7405	
求職傾向					
集群數	群內誤差和	誤差遞增量	集群數	群內誤差和	誤差遞增量
10	0.7425	0.0027	5	1.0207	0.0571
9	0.7452	0.0365	4	1.0778	0.0351
8	0.7817	0.0879	3	1.1129	0.0251
*7	0.8696	0.0925	2	1.1380	0.2819
6	0.9621	0.0586	1	1.4199	

*：決定分群的群數

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(節略)

表七：企業環境倫理認知因素各集群單因子變異數分析結果

集群/ 觀察值個數	因素一 [*] 企業生態認知	因素二 [*] 企業規範認知	因素三 [*] 企業角色認知
集群一/21個	58.9189	32.2070	24.6244
集群二/21個	29.2172	46.0065	28.3453
集群三/30個	42.8277	29.6286	50.4717
集群四/13個	10.6521	10.3037	18.9791
集群五/110個	61.7812	63.8320	67.6695
集群六/27個	54.2917	64.6936	39.1539
集群間比較 [*]	4<2<3<1=5=6	4<1=3<2<5=6	4<1=2<6<3<5

^{*}: p-value < 0.01

(節略)

表八：求職傾向因素各集群單因子變異數分析結果

集群/ 觀察值個數	因素一 [*] 外在安定性	因素二 [*] 外在舒適性	因素三 [*] 內在單純性	因素四 [*] 內在挑戰性
集群一/52個	34.5594	39.8956	38.0235	70.0483
集群二/16個	62.8874	34.5117	71.1557	19.2991
集群三/38個	62.4888	71.7966	33.7883	46.6536
集群四/16個	20.0117	30.0920	31.3997	35.9495
集群五/25個	63.2699	30.0673	38.2064	45.8436
集群六/41個	67.4084	64.3144	76.2624	56.9490
集群七/34個	42.1941	57.6651	60.8855	38.9152
集群間比較 [*]	4<1<7<2=3=5=6	1=2=4=5<3=6=7	1=3=4=5<7<2=6	2<3=4=5=7<6<1

^{*}: p-value < 0.01

四、人口特徵比較結果

最後，本研究將集群結果，包括針對企業環境倫理因素所分出來的 7 群，以及針對求職傾向所分出來的 6 群，分別與表二所列的 14 種人口特徵，進行單因子變異數分析（針對都市化程度、年齡和所得）與卡方分析（針對其他變項），並將達顯著水準的各個結果整理成表九至表十三。（節略）

表九：企業環境倫理認知集群與人口特徵單因子變異數分析

集群	都市化程度 ^{**}	年齡 [*]	最高月所得 ^{**}
中性企業環境倫理認知者	1.428571	2.190476	1.714286
中度規範認知者	1.047619	1.952381	1.285714
低度規範認知者	0.9	1.966667	1.8
整體認知偏低者	1.461538	1.846154	1
整體認知偏高者	1.836364	2.381818	2.418182
企業角色質疑者	1.037037	1.703704	1.37037
集群間比較 [*]	1=2=3=4=6<5	1=2=3=4=6<5	1=2=3=4=6<5

^{*}: p-value < 0.05; ^{**}: p-value < 0.01

(表十至表十三略)

伍、結論與建議

一、研究限制

(節略)

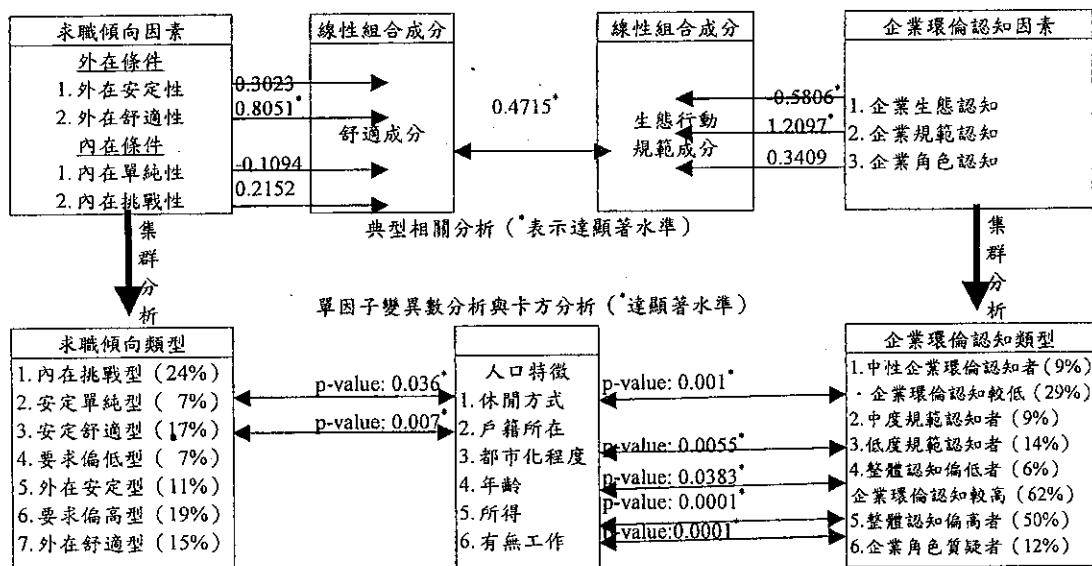
二、研究結論

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圖二所示為本研究的結果彙整，其中在因素分析方面，潛在員工的求職傾向大致上可分成二類共四個因素，一類是與外在條件有關的因素，包括工作的「外在安定性」與「外在舒適性」，另一類是與內在條件有關的因素，包括工作的「內在單純性」與「內在挑戰性」；至於企業環境倫理認知方面，則找到三個因素，分別是「企業生態認知」、「企業規範認知」以及「企業角色認知」。此外，透過典型相關分析，本研究也發現，越追求工作舒適性的潛在員工，越可能對組織的行為或規範有高度的環保認知，但對於整個生態或企業角色的定位，卻未必會有很深入的倫理認知。這種為了追求自己舒適，以自利為導向的高環保認知，或許可以用來說明鄰避現象（Never In My Back Yard, NIMBY）的發生原因。因為人們一方面要求環保，包括公害的處理，例如垃圾問題與工業廢料等等，但一方面又要求千萬不要自家村鎮處理這些公害，這就可能是一種自利導向的環保認知，亦即環保是為了讓「自己的」生活環境更舒適，至於對生態或是人類在自然界的角色等等，則未必會有清楚的倫理認知。



圖二：潛在員工求職傾向、企業環境倫理認知與人口特徵之關聯圖

表十四：潛在員工人口特徵與各集群之比較結果（達顯著水準者）

企業環境倫理認知與人口特徵關係	
整體認知偏高者	較有工作經驗、年齡/所得/都市化程度較高、較偏好戶外休閒
企業角色質疑者	較沒有工作經驗
整體認知偏低者	較沒有工作經驗、較不強烈偏好戶外休閒
低度規範認知者	較沒有工作經驗、較不強烈偏好戶外休閒
中度規範認知者	較不強烈偏好戶外休閒
求職傾向知與人口特徵關係	
外在安定型	較偏好戶外休閒
外在舒適型	較不強烈偏好戶外休閒、北部人較少、中部者較多
安定舒適型	較偏好戶外休閒、較少中部者
安定單純型	較不強烈偏好戶外休閒、較偏好戶外休閒
要求偏低型	較偏好戶外休閒、北部者居多、較少南部者
要求偏高型	較少北部者、較少中部者、南部者居多

三、研究建議

..... (節略)

..... (節略)

..... (節略)

..... (節略)

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一、Jeffrey Pfeffer 在 1994 出版的一本書書名為 “Competitive Advantage through People: Unleashing the Power of the Work Force” 中有一段文字寫到：

People and how we manage them are becoming more important because many other sources of competitive success are less powerful than they once were. Traditional sources of success—product and process technology, protected or regulated markets, access to financial resources, and economies of scale—can still provide competitive leverage, but to a lesser degree now than in the past, leaving organizational culture and capabilities, derived from how people are managed, as comparatively more vital. (p. 6)

請評論此段文字，為何傳統競爭優勢來源已經被認為較不重要？人力資源管理的競爭優勢來源有哪些？您對這段文字的看法為何？（請以中文作答，二十五分）

二、何謂策略性人力資源管理(strategic human resource management)？另外請就 Michael Porter 所提出三種策略與人力資源管理系統的關係加以闡述。（二十五分）

三、在人員甄選的工具中，何謂 Biodata ？何謂 Five Factor Model (Big Five)？二者之間有何關連？（25%）

四、何謂 Organizational Justice？與人力資源管理中的確保、開發、維持、報償有何關連？（25%）

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I、請以中文摘要下列四段文章內容。(50%)

Individual difference approaches

Unsurprisingly perhaps, the personality profile considered to be characteristic of the person prone to the use of coercive power is not especially flattering. Indeed, many of the ideas here were borrowed directly from Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford's (1950) depiction of the person prone to extreme prejudice and fascism in their influential text *The Authoritarian Personality*. These researchers administered a range of psychometric tests and interview schedules to people and identified a number of distinctive patterns of thinking that appeared to differentiate between those who were potentially prejudiced (authoritarians) and others who were more tolerant. In particular, the thought processes of the prejudiced person were characterized by (a) intolerance of ambiguity, (b) rigidity, (c) concreteness (poor abstract reasoning), and (d) over-generalization.

It is not hard to see how this analysis can be directly applied to the organizational setting. Here authoritarians are expected to display all the hallmarks of pathology in their dealings with fellow workers. Most particularly, within a syndrome of *petty tyranny* or *bureaupathy* (Thompson, 1961), they should behave in a fawning and sycophantic manner towards their superiors while abusing the power those superiors give them by treating subordinates with utter disdain. According to Ashforth (1994), the six defining dimensions of this syndrome are: (a) arbitrariness and self-aggrandizement; (b) belittling of subordinates; (c) lack of consideration for others; (d) a forcing style of conflict resolution; (e) discouragement of initiative; and (f) non-contingent use of punishment. It is unlikely, of course, that in self-reports or interviews of the type used by Adorno and his colleagues, managers would be likely to own up to such behaviour. Accordingly, the primary means of identifying petty tyrants is through subordinates' ratings of managers' behaviour (e.g. using the LBDQ; see Chapter 3 above).

There is no doubt that, for those of us who believe that we have fallen victim to regimes of petty tyranny in the workplace (and most of us have, or will, at one time or another), this analysis is very appealing. Certainly, it is comforting to think that the managers who give us grief are by their very nature socially dysfunctional and mentally deficient. By the same token, it is not hard to imagine that reports of aggrieved workers would support this analysis.

Unfortunately though, the empirical evidence that might back these reports up is unconvincing (for a general critique of the literature on authoritarianism, see Billig, 1978; Brown, 1965; Oakes et al., 1994). Possibly the best illustration of this fact comes from a study conducted by Kipnis (1972). The participants in this research were university business majors who were each told they would be given the task of supervising a group of four high-school students who were said to be working on an administrative task in an adjacent building. In performing this role half of the participants were told that they could exercise a range of powers customarily available to managers, including the ability to reward and penalize the workers financially, to transfer them to another job, or to fire them.

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On the other hand, the remaining participants had no such power and were simply told that in order to get the most out of the workers they must use their legitimate powers as appointed leaders and their personal powers of persuasion.

In fact the high-school students did not exist, and feedback indicative of their performance was contrived by the experimenter and controlled so as to be identical across the two conditions. In this way, Kipnis (1972) was able to see how granting reward and coercive powers to some of the participants affected their treatment of, and reactions to, the workers independently of actual variation in that performance. The results were very clear and generally supported Kipnis's view that the provision of these powers had a corrupting influence on the student managers. Specifically, participants who were given power were: (a) twice as likely to try to interfere with the workers (e.g. by urging them on or making threats); (b) more likely to underrate the workers' ability and their worth to the company; (c) less willing to want to rehire the workers in future; and (d) less likely to recommend workers for promotion. Even more interestingly, after the experiment had been completed, the participants were asked if they would now like to 'meet with the workers and talk with them while sharing a cup of coffee' (Kipnis, 1972, p. 38). This invitation was accepted by 79 per cent of the participants in the low-power condition but by only 35 per cent of those who had been given a high amount of power.

Because the participants in this study were normal healthy adults who had been randomly assigned to experimental conditions, these findings deal a severe blow to arguments that the corrupting potential of power is confined to individuals with pathological personalities. Instead, on the basis of his findings, Kipnis (1972) concluded that at a much more general level:

Inequity in power is disruptive of harmonious social relations and drastically limits the possibilities that the power holder can maintain close and friendly relations with the less powerful. (p. 39)

In seeking to apportion blame for abuses of power, it thus appears that we have to look beyond individual differences in personality.

Motivational approaches

If the corrupting potential of power is not confined to particular power holders, one alternative is that it is the manifestation of universal human drives. This view was developed long before the formal study of organizational psychology, particularly in the philosophical writings of Hobbes and Nietzsche (for an excellent review, see Ng, 1980). For Hobbes (1651/1968), the attainment of power was the primary means by which individuals could satisfy egoistic goals and for Nietzsche (1888/1968) 'the will to power' was a fundamental human drive. Significantly, neither writer saw these drives as inherently wrong or immoral. Both recognized that conflicts of interests between powerful individuals and groups could give rise to discord and hostility, but for Hobbes the achievement of power was also a necessary path to future good and for Nietzsche *powerlessness* was more to blame for tyranny than power per se. Contemporary statements of similar views are presented by Kanter (1979), Ashforth (1989) and Pfeffer (1992).

Nevertheless, the dominant view of power-related motivation is less positive. This is particularly true of Mulder's (1977) *power distance reduction theory* in which power is characterized as a psychological addiction which — like a drug — inevitably makes victims of those who are given even the smallest quantity. Two basic motivations underlie this analysis. The first is *power distance reduction* (PDR): individuals' desire to reduce the psychological distance between themselves and more powerful others. The second is *power distance enlargement* (PDE): the desire to enhance the distance between oneself and powerless others. As Figure 8.1 suggests, these two motivations are assumed to work in tandem to ensure that individuals always gravitate towards more powerful others. This applies (a) as long as a person does not have complete power (so that there

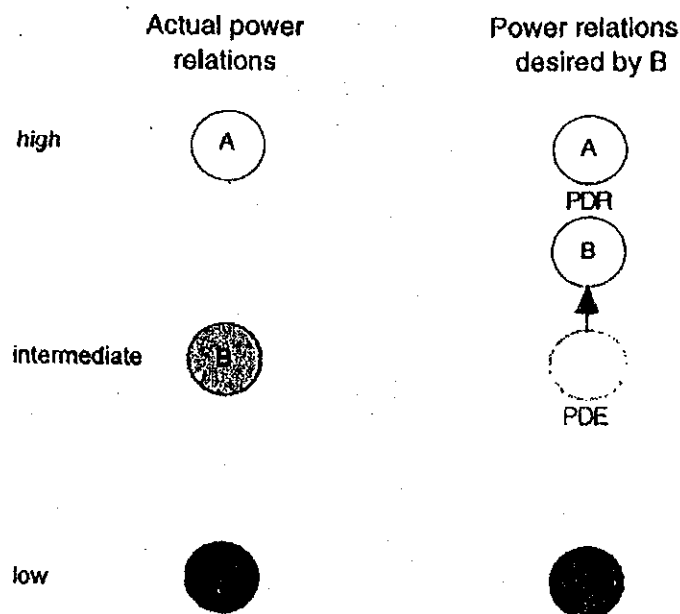


Figure 8.1 Mulder's (1977) principles of power distance reduction (PDR) and power distance enlargement (PDE)

4:
is some distance to reduce) and (b) to the extent that he or she already has some power (so there is some distance to enhance).

The predictions of this model appear to be consistent with observations that the attainment and use of power in organizations is of more concern to those who already have some control over others (i.e. managers) than to those who do not (e.g. Pfeffer, 1992; see also Bruins & Wilke, 1992, 1993). They also accord with the patterns of interaction reported by Kipnis (1972) where the refusal of managers who had been given power to go for a drink with their subordinates can be interpreted as a manifestation of a power distance enhancement motive. The analysis also provides a simple explanation for the 'dog-eat-dog' dimensions of the contemporary corporate world — where the mean get meaner and the lean get leaner.

It is less clear, however, that Mulder's (1977) model is equipped to account for behaviour in less individualistic environments or where structural factors (e.g. rules governing interaction and advancement) impede (and may ultimately redirect) workers' motivations. How does it explain the behaviour of a department head who joins his subordinates on a picket line? Or that of a promising doctor who gives away her career to do overseas aid work? By wedding individuals only to incremental step-by-step changes in power, the model also buys heavily into an assumption that the status quo of existing power relations is an enduring feature of organizational life. As Ng (1980, pp. 224-229) notes, this is a very pessimistic message for those without power, but it is also one that denies the possibility of organizational change that might overturn any given power structure and in which the powerless might play (or at least try to play) a role.

Social exchange approaches

Bearing in mind the rather dismal view that many of the above images of power-related behaviour convey, one obvious question is 'Why do people put up with it?'. Why do workers continue to play their part in power games in which, more often than not, they turn out to be the losers? As with topics of leadership and motivation discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, one very popular answer to this question is in terms of social exchange principles (after Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; in particular see Bacharach & Lawler, 1980, pp. 19-26). The idea here is that when workers enter organizations they voluntarily forgo certain powers (e.g. to do as they please, to say exactly what they think) in return for certain rewards (e.g. pay, security, training). Moreover, because workers with less power in an organization are usually dependent on those with more power for the provision of rewards and punishment, this dependence is assumed to foster compliance with the power-holder and tolerance of their whims and foibles. However, if the costs associated with staying in a subordinate power relationship become too high, it is assumed that the individual will either (a) exit the relationship if a more attractive alternative is available or (b) attempt to restructure the relationship through political behaviour, possibly in coalition with like-minded others.

According to the social exchange perspective, *dependency* is therefore the key to power (e.g. Bacharach & Lawler, 1980, p. 20; Robbins, Millett, Cacioppe & Waters-Marsh, 1998, p. 440). As a result, for many researchers (e.g. Pfeffer, 1992), the secret of effective power use is to exploit relationships of dependence appropriately, while poor management is seen to result from neglect or abuse of such relations. In Pfeffer's (1992) words:

When interdependence exists, our ability to get things done requires us to develop power and the capacity to influence those on whom we depend. If we fail in this effort — either because we don't recognize we need to do it or because we don't know — we fail to accomplish our goals. (p. 38)

In the broadest terms, this approach suggests that success (or even survival) in organizational life is a function of a person's ability to make others dependent on them through control and management of resources. This is best achieved by ensuring that those resources are important, scarce, and non-substitutable (Mintzberg, 1983). Consistent with this view, a number of studies suggest that within organizations it is those departments and officers who allocate key resources, who devise company policy and who promote company activity to outsiders who are perceived to have most power (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1980).

The dependence approach has widespread appeal, not least because it opens the door to the study and appreciation of various forms of political behaviour in organizations. In the true spirit of Machiavelli (see Grint, 1997; Ng, 1980, pp. 18-21) it thus points to the use of power as a skill and art, rather than as a blunt and sinister instrument. Nevertheless, the approach has a number of interrelated limitations (see Ng, 1980, pp. 173-185; Turner, 1991, pp. 118-122). The first is that the principles of cost and benefit (and indeed of power and dependency) which lie at its heart, are much less tangible than the approach suggests. Whenever a person submits to coercion we can argue that they perceive the costs of resistance to be too high, and whenever they resist coercion it can be argued

6.

that the costs of submission are too high. But, much as we argued in Chapter 4, what actually *makes* a cost too high to bear cannot be specified in advance of the behaviour that it is used to predict. It is certainly the case that perceptions of cost and benefit are *correlates* of the power process (and are a general feature of organizational life), but this may only be as rationalizations of behaviour that actually has *other* causes. Furthermore, even if the full specification of perceived costs and benefits were possible, it is not obvious that people always seek to exit or change what they acknowledge to be a non-beneficial power relationship when options to do so are available. Data presented by Tyler (1988, 1998, 1999a) and Smith and Tyler (1996) suggest, for example, that responses to injustice are best predicted by identification with particular groups and associated feelings of respect and pride (see also Chapter 10 below). Amongst other things, this means that people sometimes stay in highly unrewarding relationships with particular managers because they have a sense of pride in the organization as a whole and leave highly rewarding ones because they have no such sentiments.

Yet probably the most significant problem with the social exchange approach lies in its assumption that power can work as a basis or substitute for social influence. The view that managers should acquire resources and then use them to control others' behaviour through reward and punishment, neglects the fact that such actions can seriously backfire — precisely because they are seen as coercive (Brehm, 1966). Thus attempting to buy the affections of one's subordinates can lead to resentment as can attempts to ingratiate oneself with superiors through acquiescence. This much was recognized by Machiavelli (1513/1984) when he observed:

If a prince holds on to his state by means of mercenary armies, he will never be stable or secure; for they are disunited, ambitious, without discipline, disloyal; they are brave among friends; among enemies they are cowards ... and your downfall is deferred only so long as the attack is deferred. ... The reason for this is that they have no other love nor other motive to keep them in the field than a meagre wage, which is not enough to make them want to die for you. (pp. 77-78)

Consistent with this point, the evidence that people's attitudes and behaviour are easily manipulated via reward and punishment is much more scant than commonly supposed (Turner, 1991).

The cognitive miser approach

As outlined above, a social exchange approach provides one explanation of powerless individuals' willingness to put themselves at the mercy of those with power. It is still unclear, however, exactly why the powerful so often abuse that relationship by appearing to behave in an insensitive or cavalier manner towards their subordinates. Social exchange principles can be used to explain why people put up with petty tyranny, but why do people behave like petty tyrants in the first place?

One answer to this question is provided by the work of Fiske and Dépret (1996; Dépret & Fiske, 1993; Fiske, 1993) which portrays power holders as victims of insufficient cognitive resources. This builds upon the cognitive miser model of social perception which argues, amongst other things, that people are only inclined to form detailed, individuated impressions of others under conditions where they are dependent on them for important resources (Fiske & Neuberg, 1989; Fiske & Taylor, 1984; see Chapter 1 above). Under other conditions, where a person does not explicitly need to invest the time required to form such impressions it is argued that he or she is liable to fall back on stereotypes. In line with arguments that dominate the social psychological literature (e.g. as observed in Chapters 5 and 7 above), these stereotypes are seen as 'necessary evils' — necessary because they allow perceivers to conserve valuable cognitive resources, but evil because they are tools of repression that deliberately or inadvertently maintain the status quo (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Operario & Fiske, 1998) and are liable to prove misleading as guides to the behaviour of any particular individual (Allport, 1954).

To elaborate this argument, Fiske (1993, p. 622) cites the case of Ann Hopkins, a top manager with Price Waterhouse (one of the 'Big Eight' accounting firms in the United States) who, despite her impressive performance in accumulating more billable hours than other applicants and attracting \$25 million in business, was denied a partnership on grounds that she was not 'feminine enough'. Why did this happen? For Fiske (1993), the answer is that 'the powerful managers simply had no need to attend to the relatively powerless women as unique individual subordinates' (p. 625). Because the men who controlled the organization were too busy doing other things, they 'took the easy way out' and fell into the trap of stereotyping — a trap that on this occasion proved particularly costly because Price Waterhouse was found guilty of sexual discrimination both at an initial trial brought by Hopkins and on appeal at the Supreme Court (for details of the case and the expert testimony of psychologists, see Fiske, Bersoff, Borgida, Deaux & Heilman, 1991).

Empirical support for these arguments is provided by studies which examine patterns of attention deployment and stereotyping in interpersonal judgement contexts (e.g. Fiske & Dépret, 1993; Goodwin, Fiske & Yzerbyt, 1995). These typically find that those who are dependent on others for resource outcomes (i.e. the powerless) pay more attention to those others and are more likely to detect stereotype-inconsistent details about them than those who are not outcome-dependent (i.e. the powerful). In this way, attention is seen to be directed up the power hierarchy, while error flows the other way.

As with Mulder's power distance research, this analysis seems to capture some of the motivations that come into play in situations where employees' behaviour is informed by a desire to get ahead *as individuals*. Even here though, there are reasons to doubt whether the behaviour of the powerful is as thoughtless as the cognitive miser analysis suggests. In the case of Ann Hopkins, for example, was it the case that the male partners at Price Waterhouse overlooked or failed to accept her individuality because they were too busy or simply couldn't be bothered to treat her as an individual? Or was it perhaps the case that this was an *intergroup* strategy, knowingly and *carefully* designed to maintain womens' low status? If it was, we might argue that the treatment meted out to her was a *psychologically rational* response to intergroup reality *as perceived from the vantage point of the male partners* (cf. Oakes et al., 1994; Oakes & Turner, 1990). Most of us disagree with what the partners did and see things from a different vantage point entirely, but we can still recognize that they did it not because they couldn't have cared less, but because they *couldn't have cared more*. Moreover, recognition of this intergroup dimension to power also alerts us to the possibility that under certain circumstances individuals in positions of low or threatened power (e.g. employees tired of exploitation or managers fearful of worker revolt) might adopt a similar strategy in which they band together *collectively* in order to improve their lot. Such a possibility clearly takes us beyond most of the scenarios that we have considered so far. Accordingly, to understand the dynamics and consequences of such action we need to move beyond the restrictive concepts of economic exchange and cognitive capacity and instead embrace a much more social view of power.

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II. Please answer the following essay questions in **English** (50%):

1. The e-age is an age of knowledge, network, and globalization. Write an essay on how to attract, manage and retain human capital in the e-age. (Keep the essay within 500 words.) (25%)
2. Morris Chang (張忠謀) remarked on the knowledge economy and argued that there are several myths of the knowledge economy in our society. In your opinion, what are the myths about the knowledge economy in our society? (Keep the essay within 400 words.) (25%)