

國立中山大學九十一學年度博士班招生考試試題

科目：人力資源管理【人管所】

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一、試說明下列人力資源管理的問題(50%)

- 1.薪資制度的內容為何？並以人力規劃的觀點說明設計薪資制度所應考慮的問題與各項要素？(25%)
- 2.離職(separation)的型態有那些？以目前大環境所引起的離職應屬於上述那一種型態？面對此問題應如何解決？試就離職管理觀點說明之。(25%)

二、我國企業正積極進行全球佈局，加速國際化腳步。面對國際競爭，全球化知識管理乃是成敗關鍵所在。試說明「全球化知識管理」有那些模式(15分)?海外子公司的知識移轉策略有那些，請圖示之(10分)?派駐不同策略子公司的經理人各具有那些角色(10分)?他們應具備那些不同的才能(15分)?

國立中山大學九十一學年度博士班招生考試試題

科目：論文評述【人管所】

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壹、請於閱讀下列論文後，回答以下問題：

1. 請以中文 100 字以內，寫出本論文的摘要。(10%)
2. 請評論本研究的研究設計。(15%)
3. 請評論本研究的研究樣本。(10%)
4. 請說明你/妳認為本研究討論部分的重點應為何？(15%)

CAN GOOD CITIZENS LEAD THE WAY IN PROVIDING QUALITY SERVICE?

Most companies have in recent years undertaken some type of program for continuous improvement, be it in service delivery, manufacturing quality, or another domain (Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Powell, 1995). The training of individual employees to bring their actions into compliance with program objectives tends to be a major concern among these organizations. However, the extent and sophistication of training in quality improvement programs seems to bear little relation to their success (Powell, 1995). A possible reason for this is lack of motivation among the training participants. As noted by Hackman and Wageman (1995), most of these organizational efforts do not fundamentally change the motivational structure of the work. They suggested that, in such cases, it should not be anticipated that nonmanagerial employees will easily commit themselves to completely new patterns of behavior that they have not accepted. Most quality improvement efforts seem to presume that acceptance can be achieved either by direct persuasion from authority figures or through peripheral information, such as rewards or changes in task structure.

This study tested the effects of using frontline employees who were seen as engaging in the most organizational citizenship behavior as leaders in a service quality improvement effort. Organ defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (1988: 4). This kind of behavior includes such actions as helping other

employees on organizationally relevant tasks and performing in a conscientious manner. The objective of the present study was to examine whether selecting the best organizational citizens to be service quality leaders can lead to higher service quality effectiveness.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Many studies have examined the antecedents (cf. Organ & Ryan, 1995) and consequences (e.g., Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998) of OCB, but to our knowledge no research has examined means by which good organizational citizens can be better utilized to enhance organizational effectiveness. We adopted a proactive approach to this issue by focusing on how an organization can actively facilitate a stronger relationship between OCB and organizational effectiveness. In the present study, we examined how high-OCB performers, or what we called good organizational citizens, may better contribute to an organization. Specifically, we integrated a training perspective with an interpersonal influence perspective to investigate how good organizational citizens may lead others toward higher service quality.

The basic proposition of our study is that good organizational citizens can be trained to effectively lead their colleagues to provide better-quality service to customers. We argue that peers who are good organizational citizens are good candidates for leading quality service initiatives. The study experimentally examined whether good citizens could more strongly influence their fellows to con-

form to a service quality initiative than could randomly selected frontline employees. We also compared a situation in which no employees led the quality service initiative to the two leader situations.

A common approach used to induce frontline employees to follow the quality initiatives of an organization is training. Noe (1986) noted that for training to be successfully transferred by employees to their work, they must have a positive attitude toward the desired behaviors. These attitudes are shaped by beliefs about the behaviors' usefulness and social acceptability. He also noted that social influences, particularly messages from peers, are significant determinants of these attitudes. Indeed, the practitioner literature is replete with examples of failures to implement change caused by inadequate acceptance among frontline employees. Larkin and Larkin (1996) observed that changes requiring frontline employees to modify their behaviors usually fail unless those employees themselves are involved as agents of the change. Supervisors and other managers rarely have the credibility that is needed to encourage positive attitudes toward change and persuade frontline employees to alter their behavior, especially in the absence of tangible incentives for doing so. In addition, the need for change, the desirability of change, and the means of change are more effectively communicated face-to-face. Most managers do not have the time to interact with frontline employees in small groups or one-on-one. Thus, we expected that service quality training principles would tend to be more effectively diffused among frontline employees when representatives from their units—regardless of whether they are good organizational citizens or not—are trained and charged as change agents.

Hypothesis 1. Compared to an organizational unit with no trained frontline employees serving as change agents, units using frontline employees as change agents will experience more successful implementation of a service quality initiative in terms of customer satisfaction and the supervisor- and self-ratings of employees' conformance to the quality scheme of the organization.

From an interpersonal influence perspective, there is a specific advantage in utilizing the better frontline organizational citizens to induce changes in their peers' behavior. Good organizational citizens are better candidates for service quality leadership because they may be more credible sources of influence. This is because good citizens tend to maintain a strong service orientation that is visible to their peers. When performing a leadership function in service quality, they may be seen as persons who "practice what they preach," and this characterization will enhance their credibility as purveyors of a service quality message. Psychological research has established that direct and persuasive communications from credible sources influence attitudes more than direct communications from less credible sources or from peripheral sources, such as explicit incentives and source attractiveness (Wu & Shaffer, 1987). Thus, we expected that good citizens would outperform other frontline employees as effective agents of change.

Hypothesis 2. Compared to an organizational unit using frontline change agents who are randomly selected, units using frontline employees who have exhibited good citizenship behavior as change agents will experience more successful implementation of a service quality initiative in terms of customer satisfaction and the supervisor- and self-ratings of employees' conformance to the quality scheme of the organization.

If good citizens are indeed better leaders than other types of frontline employees (Hypothesis 2), a follow-up issue is how the good citizens achieve their effectiveness. As discussed above, we suggest that good citizens are better-quality initiative leaders because they are credible sources in the service area. It may be argued, however, that good citizens achieve their effectiveness because they are better role models than randomly selected frontline employees. For example, Bandura suggested that "modeling" was "one of the most powerful means of transmitting values, attitudes, and patterns of thoughts and behavior" (1986: 47). Observers can acquire both cognitive skills and patterns of behaviors by observing the performance of others. Thus, good citizens may induce others to follow their behavior by acting as good role models. To examine whether good citizens achieve more effectiveness than modeling alone would account for, we compared the levels of conformance to the quality initiatives associated with the good citizens and the randomly selected quality leaders. If both types of quality leaders exhibited similar levels of transfer of knowledge from training room to workplace, yet the peers of the good citizens exhibited higher levels of conformance to the initiatives than the peers of the randomly selected frontline employees, then modeling could not have accounted for all of the effects of the good citizens. Thus, we expected that conformance to an organization's service quality program would be similar among the service quality leaders who exhibited good citizenship behavior and among service quality leaders who were randomly selected and that the service quality leaders would not show differential transfer of skills.

METHODS

Sample and Procedures

The present study involved three U.S. branches (A, B, and C) of a large multinational bank and a total of 189 tellers (58 in branch A, 66 in branch B, and 65 in branch C). The participants were all tellers at the bank and ranged in age from 20 to 33 years, with a mean age of 25.7 years; 74 percent were women, and 95 percent had at least a high school education. The tellers had been employed in the organization from 1 to 7 years and had been in their present positions from 1 to 6 years ($\bar{x} = 2.4$ years). There were no significant differences between the participants in the three branches in age, education level, and organizational tenure.

To assess the effects of the experimental conditions on the conformity of the tellers to the service quality scheme (both as self-rated and as rated by supervisors), we used a repeated-measures design

crossing three branches (no leaders versus random leaders versus good citizen leaders) by two times (before and after training of leaders). Analyses predicting customer satisfaction were conducted using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The sample space for the present study was 43 branches identified by bank personnel as meeting three criteria: sufficient size (over 50 tellers), performance similar to other available branches, with performance measured in terms of customer feedback, and relative newness of establishment. One of the authors then randomly selected three branches using computer-generated random numbers. A treatment condition was then randomly assigned to each of the three branches. Because the hypotheses dealt with the effectiveness of training good organizational citizens for leadership, the first step in the procedure was to identify the better citizens to serve as service quality leaders. Once these leaders were identified, they had to be familiarized with the company's service quality initiatives. In the present study, we used the organization's own service quality scheme. Thus, after leader identification, the next step was to train them to understand the quality scheme of the organization and to teach them how to pass on the service quality messages to their coworkers.

Identification of service quality leaders. To identify the best organizational citizens, two branch managers who were familiar with all the tellers in branch C were trained to observe OCB at their branch. Two months before the training session, these managers used the eight-item altruism subscale of the OCB instrument developed by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) to make independent and unobtrusive behavioral observations at the branch for four weeks, recording the names of ten tellers who regularly performed acts of good organizational citizenship. Sample items include "helps others who have been absent," "volunteers for things that are not required," and "helps others who have heavy work loads" ($\alpha = .90$). The recording sheets were cross-matched for the employees who were mentioned by both supervisors. Six tellers from this branch received nominations from both supervisors and were considered key service quality leaders. These six service quality leaders were invited to participate in a training program. To verify the managers' observations, we also obtained and compared the OCB ratings of all the branch tellers in the present study. The immediate supervisors provided these OCB ratings based on the Smith et al. scale about one-and-a-half months prior to the pretest data collection. We asked the bank to include the OCB items in its annual performance evaluation. For branch B, one of the authors randomly selected six tellers from the list of all tellers in the branch to participate in the training program.

The 12 service quality leaders were trained together simultaneously. Branch A served as the comparative branch. The total training group consisted of 12 tellers, two men and ten women, with a mean age of 26.1 years. There was no significant difference between the service quality leaders and other subjects in age, education, and tenure.

Training the service quality leaders. The training consisted of three weekly, 120-minute group sessions led by an independent management consultant with substantial experience in training service workers for quality improvement. This trainer was blind to the branch membership of the participants. Session 1 covered the new company policy aimed at improving the quality of service. Session 2 covered how to identify specific behavior changes needed to improve service quality and how to use conversation to sensitize other tellers to the potential benefits of quality improvement. Service quality leaders were then asked to apply what they learned to their conversations with other tellers at work. Session 3 was a review of these conversations and a brainstorming session about alternative settings and strategies that would afford possible opportunities to initiate additional conversational contacts with their coworkers.

Dependent Variables and Data Collection

Three methods were used to assess quality practices: customer satisfaction ratings, self-ratings, and supervisors' observations.

The bank collected customer satisfaction data regularly. The present data were obtained two months after the end of the training. One hundred thirty-two customers from branch A, 142 from branch B, and 150 from branch C indicated how satisfied they were with the services provided by the tellers of the branch using the following scale: 5, "extremely satisfied"; 4, "satisfied"; 3, "neither satisfied or unsatisfied"; 2, "unsatisfied"; and 1, "extremely unsatisfied."

The self-ratings were the tellers' reports of their own conformance to the bank's service quality scheme. Surveys from all the tellers in branches A, B, and C were obtained in the same manner one month before and then two months after the end of the training. Tellers were asked to indicate how frequently they personally practiced the seven behaviors described in the quality guidelines on a five-point scale (5, "regularly"; 4, "frequently"; 3, "moderately"; 2, "occasionally"; and 1, "rarely"). Each behavior was represented by a survey item. The seven items were (1) have a "first time right" attitude when providing service to customers, (2) identify customers' needs when they approach for assistance, (3) listen to the needs of each individual customer, (4) look smart and confident, (5) give personal attention to customers, (6) always be willing to help customers, and (7) provide prompt services to customers. The average rating for all practices was a teller's mean quality performance score. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale before and after training was .89.

The third method of performance measurement was supervisory ratings of tellers' conformance to the service quality scheme of the bank. The branch supervisors were asked to rate the compliance of each teller working in the branch one month before and then two months after the service quality leaders training. The items and the response scale were the same as those used for the self-ratings. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale before training was .83, and after training, it was .81.

RESULTS

To test whether the service quality leaders selected in branch C were indeed better organizational citizens, we first examined the supervisory ratings of their OCB that were collected earlier as part of the company performance appraisal. As noted above, these ratings were made about one month prior to the pretest and used the Smith et al. (1983) scale. We compared the OCB ratings for the employees of the three branches plus the two groups of OCB leaders using a one-way ANOVA. The results indicated a significant difference between these five groups of employees ($n = 201$; $F_{4,196} = 4.81, p < .001$). Post hoc analysis indicated that the good citizens identified in branch C had higher OCB ratings than the other four groups of employees, whereas the other groups' means were not significantly different from one another. Because there was convergence between the OCB ratings and the supervisors' observations (see Methods), we inferred that the OCB leaders had generally higher levels of OCB than the other tellers in these branches had. In the debriefing section that followed the completion of the study, the supervisors, bank managers, and OCB leaders reported they were not aware of being in a study of service quality leadership effectiveness.

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to further examine the internal structure of our scales. We first subjected each of the four scales (two times and two sources, supervisor- and self-ratings) to individual CFAs. To assess whether the observed covariance matrix fitted our hypothesized model, we used the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) and the standardized root-mean-square-residual (RMSR; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1986) as indicators of overall model fit. Results of these analyses indicated that all four scales had good fit (time 1 self-ratings, $n = 189, \chi^2_{14} = 82.82, p < .001$, RMSR = .03, CFI = .90; time 2 self-ratings, $n = 189, \chi^2_{14} = 48.29, p < .001$, RMSR = .03, CFI = .95; time 1 supervisor ratings, $n = 189, \chi^2_{14} = 23.44, p > .05$, RMSR = .02, CFI = .97; and time 2 supervisor ratings, $n = 189, \chi^2_{14} = 28.00, p < .02$, RMSR = .02, CFI = .96). We also subjected the contemporaneously measured scales to the same CFA, allowing the error term of the same indicator to be correlated across sources within the same time period. The CFA models for both periods yielded acceptable fit indexes ($n = 189$; time 1: $\chi^2_{69} = 138.56, p < .001$, RMSR = .02, CFI = .96; time 2: $\chi^2_{69} = 145.21, p < .001$, RMSR = .03, CFI = .94).

To check the independence of the scales, we again conducted CFA. To model the within-subject effects, we allowed the error terms of the items rated by the supervisors and by the tellers over time to be respectively correlated. To model the common factor that underlies the same item within the same time period, we allowed the error term of the same indicator to be correlated across sources within the same time period. The resulting CFA model yielded an acceptable RMSR but an only

marginally acceptable CFI ($n = 189, \chi^2_{316} = 813.50, p < .001$, RMSR = .04, CFI = .89). Taking into consideration the possible common factor underlying the same item across time and rating source, this result indicated that the four measures could be distinguished fairly well from each other. Because the four measures were quite highly correlated, to further examine their discriminant validity, we combined the two factors with the highest interfactor correlation (between subordinate time 1 and supervisor time 2, $r = .86, p < .01$) into one factor ($\chi^2_{319} = 875.31, p < .001$, RMSR = .04, CFI = .88) and compared this simplified model to the four-factor model. Results of this analysis indicated that the two models were significantly different from each other ($\Delta\chi^2_3 = 61.81, p < .001$). This analysis indicates that despite the high interfactor correlation, combining the factors would reduce model fit significantly. Thus, the four-factor model fit better than a three-factor model, indicating the independence of the factors.

Testing the two hypotheses called for two different analytic techniques, given the two types of dependent measure: customer satisfaction ratings and employee conformance ratings. We first examined the customer satisfaction ratings using a one-way ANOVA. Hypothesis 1 suggests that branches B and C, the two branches with trained frontline employees as change agents, should have higher customer satisfaction ratings than branch A, the one with no change agents. Hypothesis 2 suggests that branch C, the one with good citizens as change agents, should have higher customer satisfaction ratings than branch B. Results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the three branches ($F_{2,421} = 17.89, p < .001$). Post hoc analyses using the Scheffé test indicated that C had significantly higher customer ratings than B and A and that B had significantly higher customer ratings than A. Thus, the customer satisfaction ratings supported both hypotheses.

To analyze the conformance measures for Hypotheses 1 and 2, we used a repeated-measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). When examining these two hypotheses, we excluded the quality leaders from the analyses. We had two measures of conformance, the teller self-ratings and their supervisors' ratings. We first examined whether our data satisfied the statistical assumptions of MANOVA, the first of which is multivariate normality. Because we did not expect our independent variables to be correlated with each other, we did not expect to violate this assumption. Furthermore, this assumption is robust when degrees of freedom for the error term are above 20. With at least 58 cases in each cell, this assumption appeared to have been met.

Another assumption of repeated-measures MANOVA is homogeneity of the covariance matrices of the dependent variables. This assumption was tested by Box's M -statistic ($F_{20,120,842} = 6.02, p < .001$). This statistic was significant,

TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations^a

	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	25.70	2.31								
2. Gender	0.74	0.44	-.02							
3. Educational level	2.03	0.29	.05	.06						
4. Firm tenure	2.40	0.76	-.01	-.06	-.09					
5. Service quality, self-rating, time 1	3.63	0.55	.08	.07	.06	.06	(.89)			
6. Service quality, supervisor rating, time 1	3.61	0.46	.02	.06	.05	.07	.87***	(.83)		
7. Service quality, self-rating, time 2	3.94	0.59	-.04	-.05	-.02	-.01	.79***	.67***	(.89)	
8. Service quality, supervisor rating, time 2	3.83	0.44	-.02	.01	.05	-.05	.75***	.79***	.67***	(.81)

^a Values in parentheses are Cronbach's alphas.*** $p < .001$.

indicating that the covariance matrixes may not have homogeneous covariance. A closer examination of the variances of the 12 cells of dependent variables (three branches \times two sources \times two times) indicated that the largest ratio between any two variances was smaller than 3:1, which is within acceptable levels. To examine the effects of the possible heterogeneity of variance on the parameter estimates in our repeated-measures MANOVA model, we first conducted two separate sets of repeated-measures ANOVA in which we separately used the supervisor ratings and the self-ratings as dependent variables in each model (for self-ratings, branch \times time: $n = 189$, Pillai's trace = .15, Wilks's lambda = .85, Hotelling's trace = .18, Roy's largest root = .18, $F_{2, 186} = 16.63$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .15$; for supervisor ratings, branch \times time: $n = 189$, Pillai's trace = .17, Wilks's lambda = .84, Hotelling's trace = .20, Roy's largest root = .20, $F_{2, 186} = 18.37$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$). Results of the ANOVAs yielded the same pattern as the repeated measures MANOVA.

Because heterogeneous covariances are rather robust to equal cell sizes and large sample size, we also examined the effects of the possible heterogeneity of variances on the parameter estimates by reducing the different cells to equal sample size. We accomplished this by randomly deleting eight cases in branch B and seven in branch C, respectively, to yield equal cell size (that is, 58 in each branch) between the three levels of our between-subjects factor (branches). Results of this equal-cell-size analysis yielded the same pattern as the full sample ($n = 174$, branch \times time: Pillai's trace = .26; Wilks's lambda = .74, Hotelling's trace = .35, Roy's largest root = .35, $F_{2, 171} = 29.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .26$). To ensure that the random deletion of cases did not bias the results, we repeated the random deletion of another set of eight and seven cases from the original sample of branch B and C, respectively, and then repeated the analysis. Again, results indicated the same patterns ($n = 174$, branch \times time: Pillai's trace = .26, Wilks's lambda = .74, Hotelling's trace = .35, Roy's largest root = .35, $F_{2, 171} = 30.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .26$). Another assumption of repeated-measures MANOVA is the normality between predicted dependent variable scores and errors of prediction. This assumption was examined by studying the residual "scatterplots," which did not reveal coherent patterns, as would indicate nonnormality, nonlinearity, or homoscedasticity. Together, these various tests supported using the repeated-measures MANOVA.

TABLE 2
Results of Repeated-Measures MANOVA^a

Service Quality Ratings	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.
Self				
Branch A	3.61	0.58	3.70	0.56
Branch B	3.61	0.56	3.81	0.50
Branch C	3.64	0.58	4.09	0.59
Supervisor				
Branch A	3.55	0.48	3.63	0.45
Branch B	3.61	0.45	3.82	0.39
Branch C	3.66	0.45	4.03	0.40
Time	183.35***			
Branch \times time	29.17***			

^a Branch n's: A, 58; B, 66; C, 65.*** $p < .001$.

Results of the tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2 using the repeated-measures MANOVA were reported in Table 2. We did not expect source (supervisor or self) to affect the dependent variables. We expected a significant interaction term between time and branches only because Hypothesis 1 predicts that branch B and branch C will have higher conformance than branch A at time 2 and that branch C will have higher conformance ratings than branch B at time 2. Consistent with this expectation, only the interaction between time and branches was significant. All the multivariate statistics were significant and had acceptable effect sizes ($n = 189$; Pillai's trace = .24, Wilks's lambda = .76, Hotelling's trace = .31, Roy's largest root = .31, $F_{2, 186} = 29.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .24$). Post hoc analyses using the Scheffé test indicated that for the supervisory ratings of conformance at time 2, both branch B ($p < .037$) and branch C ($p < .001$) had higher conformance ratings than branch A. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported by the supervisory ratings. The branch C ratings were also significantly higher than those for branch B ($p < .014$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was also supported by the supervisory ratings. For the self-ratings, branch C had significantly higher ratings than branches A ($p < .001$) and B ($p < .017$), respectively. However, branch B did not significantly differ from branch A on self-ratings.

The repeated-measures MANOVA also offered us insight into whether the three branches had comparable histories in terms of conformance prior to the introduction of the quality leaders. Post hoc analyses of time 1 supervisory ratings and self-ratings indicated no significant differences.

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Hypothesis 2 also suggests that the two types of trained leaders should not differ in their conformance after the training (no differential transfer). We compared means and standard deviations of the supervisory ratings of the conformance of the randomly selected leaders (branch B) and the OCB leaders (branch C): (before training—B: $\bar{x} = 3.16$, s.d. = .12; C: $\bar{x} = 3.16$, s.d. = .14; after training—B: $\bar{x} = 4.00$, s.d. = .11; C: $\bar{x} = 4.16$, s.d. = .13). Self-ratings of conformance were also compared (before training—B: $\bar{x} = 3.33$, s.d. = .18; C: $\bar{x} = 3.16$, s.d. = .14; after training—B: $\bar{x} = 4.16$, s.d. = .16; C: $\bar{x} = 4.16$, s.d. = .12). Although the sample was small, a repeated-measures ANOVA showed no difference between B and C in supervisory ratings of the leaders' conformance ($F_1 = .29$, $p > .10$) or in the self-ratings of their conformance ($F_1 = .17$, $p > .10$).

貳、某論文以「組織政治知覺與工作滿足及工作壓力之關係」為題，以某傳統集團公司為實證研究對象，共蒐集 227 份有效問卷，試圖達到下列三項分析目標：①探索性引進及建構新的「組織政治知覺量表」，並以經驗資料驗證其構面及信度。②驗證組織政治知覺與工作滿足、工作壓力等結果變項之關係。③探討「瞭解」、「控制」、「年資」等干擾變項對調和組織政治與結果變項間負面影響之效果。該論文之「實證分析結果」如下。

- (1)該論文之實證分析內容仍有些許瑕疵，甚至錯誤，請指出並說明原因。(20 分)
- (2)請就該論文(糾正錯誤後)之實證分析結果，幫作者撰寫一份「結論與建議」。(20 分)
- (3)本研究如果由您執行，您有何更理想之作法？(10 分)

組織政治知覺與工作滿足及工作壓力之關係

實證分析結果

一、組織政治知覺量表信度及因素分析

在進行正式資料分析前，必須對所使用量表的信度作分析，以瞭解研究量表獲得的資料是否正確、穩定地代表研究欲測量的內容。本研究的目的之一即要引進新的「組織政治知覺」量表，故該量表的信度檢驗對本研究至為重要；而其它如工作滿足、工作壓力及瞭解、控制等量表則為國內研究多所採用者，故本節僅針對新採用的「組織政治知覺」量表進行構面因素分析及信度、項總相關分析。

使用主成份分析法抽取特徵值(eigenvalue)大於一的因素，並利用變異數最大法(Varimax)進行正交轉軸後得到四個構面，累積解釋變異量為 61.6 %。

以上述因素分析所得構面分別進行整體及分構面之信度分析，結果整體量表的 Cronbach's α 係數為 0.8764，與國外相關研究非常類似；但其中「逢迎順從」構面因 Cronbach's α 為 0.4918，刪除第 13 題可提升整體量表信度，又第 11 題在四個構面中因素負荷量平均分佈，構面代表性低，故將 11、13 題刪除，再進行因素分析；結果發現第 4 題的共同性過低(0.388)，再將第 4 題刪除後重作因素分析及信度分析，結果如表 4。

表 4 組織政治知覺量表因素及信度分析

題號	題項內容	構面因素負荷量			信度分析 (α)		
		因素一 薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距	因素二 一般政治行為	因素三 溝通障礙	共同性	項總相關	刪除本題後 α 值
14	在升遷制度下，縱使我符合了升遷的條件，依然未有機會獲得提拔	.801	.145	.147	0.684	.6296	.8512
15	公司雖然有制度化的薪資與升遷政策，但實際上的施行卻相差很遠	.762	.202	.181	0.655	.6465	.8497
10	在這裡，員工什麼時候該加薪和晉升，沒有明文規定	.667	.316	.115	0.557	.6191	.8507
9	在這裡獲得晉升並不是什麼值得榮耀的事，因為政治力決定一切	.642	.296	.225	0.549	.6245	.8510
12	有時候告訴別人他們想聽的比告訴他們實情好	.633	.096	.148	0.431	.4748	.8600
3	整體而言，公司對於薪資與升遷的規則、政策均沒有依明文規定執行	.551	.412	-.168	0.502	.4798	.8605
6	在這裡，部門中具有影響力的團體，沒人敢冒犯	.106	.848	.089	0.738	.5119	.8579
8	在這裡最好不要管別人自利行為的閒事	.285	.642	.262	0.562	.5884	.8533
7	在這裡順從有權力的人，是最好的選擇	.254	.622	.396	0.609	.6160	.8510
5	有人為了提昇自己，而踩在別人身上往上爬	.405	.599	-.023	0.524	.5453	.8559
2	在這裡不容許沒有意見、只會說「是」的人存在，只要是好的意見，就算與上司的意見不同也可以表達 (RS)	.084	.170	.871	0.795	.4125	.8644
1	在這裡，員工的想法被鼓勵坦白的表達出來，即使是批評一些已建立且行之多年的政策或規範 (RS)	.242	.093	.845	0.781	.4715	.8607
特徵值		4.965	1.395	1.027			
解釋變異量%		41.38	11.62	8.56			
累積解釋變異量%		41.38	53.00	61.56			
各因素構面 Cronbach's α 值		0.8210	0.7501	0.7940			
總量表 Cronbach's α 值		0.8660					

備註：刪除原量表第 4、11 及 13 三題

備註：刪除原量表第 4、11 及 13 題

表 4 總共得到三個因素構面，本研究依構面所含題項重新定義構面名稱，其中「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」構面解釋變異量為 41.38%，「一般政治行為」構面解釋變異量為 11.62%，「溝通障礙」構面解釋變異量為 8.56%，合計累積解釋變異量為 61.56%，且各構面分量表的 Cronbach's α 分別為 0.8210, 0.7501, 0.7940，皆超過 Nunnally (1978) 所建議的 0.7 以上，顯示本量表內部一致性水準可接受，故本研究後續分析，將以此三構面為討論標的。

二、相關分析

由表7 Pearson 相關分析可知，組織政治知覺與工作滿足呈顯著負相關($r=-.52, p<0.01$)，即員工對組織工作環境政治知覺的程度愈高，則其工作滿足感愈低。又組織政治知覺與工作壓力呈顯著正相關($r=.33, p<0.01$)，即員工對組織工作環境政治知覺的程度愈高，則其工作壓力感愈大。由相關分析中也發現，當個人對組織運作的過程愈瞭解，或知覺能加以控制，則較不易感受到組織政治的存在及影響($r=-.28, -.54, p<0.01$)。上述結果與過去的研究結論相吻合。

表7 研究變項描述性統計及相關分析

變項名稱	平均數	標準差	政治知覺	工作滿足	工作壓力	瞭解
政治知覺	3.40	0.60				
工作滿足	3.27	0.53	-.520**			
工作壓力	3.50	0.61	.331**	-.261**		
瞭解	2.85	0.69	-.282**	.267**	-.028	
知覺控制	3.14	0.62	-.539**	.680**	-.218**	.411**

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

三、變異數分析

為瞭解組織政治知覺高低對員工工作態度之影響，本研究將樣本依照各變項程度高低（如組織政治知覺>平均數3.4044者列為高；瞭解>平均數2.8458者列為高）區分為不同組別，分別對工作滿足、工作壓力作變異數分析，結果如表8。由表8可知：

(一) 在工作滿足方面

「控制程度高，政治知覺低」的員工，其工作滿足感最高(3.5960)，而「控制程度低，政治知覺高」的員工，其工作滿足感最低(2.8428)，又瞭解、控制程度高的員工，其工作滿足感大體上都較瞭解、控制程度低的員工來得高。

(二) 在工作壓力方面

「控制程度低，政治知覺高」的員工，其工作壓力最高(3.6832)，另瞭解、控制低且政治知覺高的員工，都較易感受到工作壓力。

表8 組織政治知覺高低與工作態度差異分析

自變項		依變項(工作態度)			
變項程度高低組合	樣本數	工作滿足	多重比較 Scheffe	工作壓力	多重比較 Scheffe
瞭解高 × 政治知覺低(1)	85	3.5376	F=19.21*** 1>2*** 1>4*** 3>2* 3>4**	3.4168	F=3.85* ns
瞭解高 × 政治知覺高(2)	51	3.0559		3.6331	
瞭解低 × 政治知覺低(3)	36	3.3569		3.2937	
瞭解低 × 政治知覺高(4)	55	2.9891		3.6468	
控制高 × 政治知覺低(1)	87	3.5960	F=40.19*** 1>2* 1>3*** 1>4*** 2>4*** 3>4**	3.3448	F=4.21** 4>1***
控制高 × 政治知覺高(2)	37	3.3541		3.5598	
控制低 × 政治知覺低(3)	34	3.1971		3.4706	
控制低 × 政治知覺高(4)	69	2.8428		3.6832	

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

四、複迴歸分析

本研究以前述因素分析所得之組織政治知覺三個構面，包括「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」、「一般政治行為」及「溝通障礙」，並納入個人變項如性別、年齡、教育程度、年資及是否擔任主管等，對「工作滿足」與「工作壓力」進行迴歸分析，以進一步確認到底哪些組織政治知覺構面對員工的工作態度具有影響力，以補相關分析結果之不足。

(一) 工作滿足的迴歸分析

1. 整體滿足

表9顯示，個人變項及組織政治知覺三構面可解釋工作滿足30.5%的變異量($R^2=0.305$, $F=11.9$, $P<0.001$)，且政治知覺三構面對工作滿足都具有顯著的負向影響力，政治知覺各構面的程度愈高，員工的工作滿足程度愈低。

2. 內在滿足

為進一步瞭解組織政治知覺究竟對內在滿足或外在滿足具有影響力，針對二者再進行複迴歸分析，結果如表 9。「內在滿足」係指個人對目前工作的活動性、獨立性、創造性、變化性，工作所能給予的成就感、責任感，工作的穩定性、安全感等各方面感覺滿意的程度。表 9 顯示，「一般政治行為」及「溝通障礙」對員工的內在滿足具有顯著的負向影響力，但「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」則不具顯著效果。此意味了想要提高員工的內在滿足，僅從薪資或升遷公平等規章著手，是無法達成目的的，唯有加強與員工溝通及降低組織內自利的政治行為，才能減少組織政治知覺對員工工作滿足的負向衝擊。

表 9 組織政治知覺構面對工作滿足與工作壓力的複迴歸分析

依變數→ 自變數↓	整體滿足		內在滿足		外在滿足		工作壓力	
	標準迴歸係數β	P 值	標準迴歸係數β	P 值	標準迴歸係數β	P 值	標準迴歸係數β	P 值
性別	.072	.224	.036	.570	.099	.095	-.021	.740
年齡	-.048	.557	-.055	.526	-.028	.729	-.033	.707
教育程度	.030	.611	.035	.584	.018	.763	-.101	.114
年資	.146	.066	.157	.064	.099	.214	-.235**	.006
擔任主管	-.013	.830	-.006	.928	-.019	.758	.104	.113
薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距	-.210**	.006	-.077	.335	-.322***	.000	.114	.158
一般政治行為	-.247**	.001	-.283**	.001	-.146	.057	.347***	.000
溝通障礙	-.205**	.001	-.179**	.009	-.189**	.003	-.140*	.040
R	0.552		0.461		0.552		0.453	
R-Square	0.305***		0.212***		0.304***		0.205***	

強迫進入法，*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

3. 外在滿足

「外在滿足」係指個人對於目前工作的升遷，所得報酬與讚賞，組織的政策與實施方式，技術上的督導，以及人際關係的好壞等各方面感覺的滿意程度。表 9 顯示，「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」對員工的外在滿足具有最大的預測效果 ($\beta = -0.322, p < 0.001$)。此結論與一般的見解相同且合理。

(二) 工作壓力的迴歸分析

以個人變項及組織政治知覺三構面對工作壓力進行複迴歸分析，結果如表 9。表 9 顯示，個人變項及組織政治知覺三構面可解釋工作壓力 20.5% 的變異量 ($R^2 = 0.205, F = 7.00, P < 0.001$)，其中「年資」對工作壓力具有顯著的負向影響力，即年資愈長，愈不感覺工作壓力的存在；此結果印證了前述文獻之主張，當員工隨著年資或職務的增長，將增加其對組織運作的瞭解，進而減少其工作壓力；而當員工覺得組織內「一般政治行為」的政治事件愈多，且組織內訊息愈閉塞及缺乏溝通管道，則其工作壓力將愈大。

五、層級迴歸分析

本研究是採用干擾模式，以層級迴歸分析方法，將預測變項 × 干擾變項的交互作用項最後再投入迴歸分析中，視其對依變項（工作滿足、工作壓力）解釋度 (R^2) 是否有顯著增加，以驗證干擾變項是否具有干擾作用。並輔以交互作用圖表示干擾變項程度高低對依變項的影響效果。由迴歸分析中得之，在個人變項中，以「年資」一項對依變項較具影響力，故僅將年資納入迴歸分析中。本研究使用層級迴歸分析之目的首在瞭解究竟有哪些變項在組織政治知覺與工作態度間具有干擾效果，故於後續統計結果中僅針對干擾部份提出研究發現，有關自變項對依變項間的影響及解釋程度，請參閱本研究迴歸分析之說明。

(一) 瞭解對組織政治知覺與工作態度關係之干擾效果

以組織政治知覺與瞭解之交互作用項分別對工作滿足、工作壓力等依變項作層級迴歸分析，結果如表 10。由表中發現「瞭解」僅在組織政治知覺與工作滿足間具有顯著之干擾效果，為進一步分析其影響方式，將樣本依瞭解程度高低分為兩組，並繪其作用圖，結果如圖 2 所示。

表 10 組織政治知覺與瞭解對依變項的層級迴歸分析表

依變項→ 自變項↓	工作滿足			工作壓力		
	各模型 係數β			各模型 係數β		
	模型 1-1	模型 1-2	模型 1-3	模型 2-1	模型 2-2	模型 2-3
年資	.115	.120*	.128*	-.268**	-.278**	-.277**
組織政治知覺		-.489**	-.050		.358**	.454*
瞭解		.125*	.736**		.084	.219
組織政治知覺×瞭解			-.658*			-.145
R ²	0.013	0.302	0.319	0.072	0.189	0.190
R ² Change		0.289**	0.017*		0.118**	0.001
F	2.99	32.04**	25.90**	17.28**	17.30**	12.99**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

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由交互作用圖 2 中可知，當員工覺得其對組織運作之瞭解程度高者，在組織政治知覺與工作滿足間之影響較瞭解程度低者為明顯（由迴歸方程式中斜率可知），且為負向作用，本結果與部份國外相關研究認為瞭解程度高可正向提高工作滿足的作用不同。推論其可能原因為：

1. 國外係以「年資」作為對組織瞭解之代名詞，本研究則以量表題項詢問員工，測量基準不同。
2. 員工雖然表示其對組織事務的瞭解程度高，但對於組織中發生的政治行為無法與之抗衡及改善、利用，僅將「瞭解」組織政治視為更大的「威脅」，而非可藉由政治行為達成其個人目標的「機會」，故愈瞭解組織政策的運作實多為政治因素所決定，造成其工作不滿足的加劇。

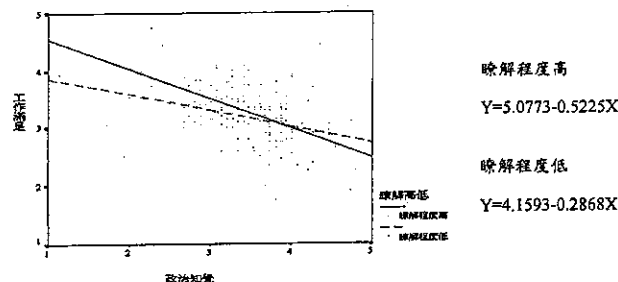


圖 2 政治知覺與瞭解的交互作用對工作滿足的影響

為探索上述疑問本研究依循國外相關研究，以「年資」代替瞭解，將年資區分為「10 年以下」及「10 年以上」兩組，繪其交互作用圖 3，結果則與國外研究結果類似；即當個人隨著年齡、成熟及從組織生活中獲得的經驗累積，一些原本可能採取激烈反應的，變的較為緩和；也對組織中如何運作的事實習以為常，故可能會減少其對政治的知覺及不滿足的程度。

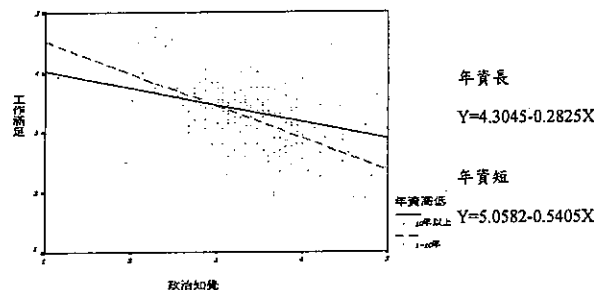


圖 3 政治知覺與年資的交互作用對工作滿足的影響

(二) 控制對組織政治知覺與工作態度關係之干擾效果

以組織政治知覺與控制之交互作用項分別對工作滿足、工作壓力等依變項作層級迴歸分析，結果如表 11。發現「控制」在組織政治知覺與各工作態度間皆不具有顯著之干擾效果，為進一步分析其影響方式，將樣本依控制程度高低分為兩組，並繪其作用圖，結果如圖 4 所示。

表 11 組織政治知覺與控制對依變項的層級迴歸分析表

依變項→	工作滿足			工作壓力		
	各模型 係數β			各模型 係數β		
自變項↓	模型 1-1	模型 1-2	模型 1-3	模型 2-1	模型 2-2	模型 2-3
年資	.115	.061	.062	-.268**	-.274**	-.266**
組織政治知覺		-.225**	-.189		.328**	.537*
知覺控制		.554**	.596**		-.010	.233
組織政治知覺 × 控制			-.040			-.228
R ²	0.013	0.502	0.502	0.072	0.183	0.187
R ² Change		0.489**	0.000		0.112**	0.003
F	2.99**	74.52**	55.66**	17.28**	16.59**	12.67**

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

由交互作用圖 4 中可知，雖然「控制」在組織政治知覺與工作態度間不具有顯著之交互作用，但其以「正向相加」的效果呈現，即當員工覺得其對組織運作之控制程度高者，在工作滿足方面顯著高於控制程度低者，本結果與部份國外相關研究認為知覺控制程度高可正向提高工作滿足的作用結果相同。

Ferris (1996) 則對【政治知覺 × 控制】>【政治知覺 × 瞭解】的結果提出解釋，認為雖然透過對組織狀況及原因的瞭解，有助於減少些許個人的模糊及焦慮等負面反應，但員工仍感覺到無助及煩惱，故仍然有潛在的焦慮及不滿足發生。相對的，感覺有較佳的控制，不僅可以減少無助感或煩惱，而且個人也知道在政治的工作環境中該扮演的角色，甚而成為該環境中的主角。

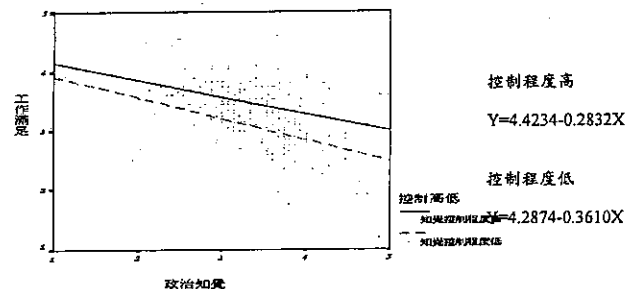


圖 4 政治知覺與控制的交互作用對工作滿足的影響

六、典型相關分析

本節將以前述組織政治知覺因素分析所得出之三個構面為 X 組變項，以工作滿足因素分析所得出之兩個構面，及工作壓力因素分析所得出之兩個構面為 Y 組變項，進行典型相關分析，以瞭解組織政治知覺構面與工作滿足及工作壓力構面間的關係。

(一) 組織政治知覺構面與工作滿足構面的典型相關分析

將組織政治知覺構面與工作滿足構面進行典型相關分析，結果共抽取兩組典型變量，經顯著性檢驗，典型相關係數分別為 $\rho_1=0.551$, $p<0.001$; $\rho_2=0.174$, $p<0.05$ ，均達顯著水準。茲將典型相關分析結果整理如表 12。唯第二組典型變量僅解釋 Y 組變項總變異量的 0.696%，不具討論價值，故以下說明僅針對第一組典型變量，探討變項間之多重相互關聯。

表 12 組織政治知覺與工作滿足的典型相關分析摘要表

X 組	第一組典型變量		第二組典型變量		Y 組
	典型負荷量				
	X 組	Y 組	X 組	Y 組	
薪資升遷政策與實際 施行之差距	-0.861	0.775	-0.433	-0.632	內在滿足
溝通障礙	-0.708	0.970	0.185	0.243	外在滿足
一般政治行為	-0.831		0.398		
抽出變異數%	64.438	77.062	12.693	22.938	
重疊指數%	19.585	23.422	0.385	0.696	
典型相關係數 ρ	0.551***		0.174*		
ρ^2	0.304		0.030		

累計抽出變異數：典型自變量 74.131% 典型依變量 100.000%

累積重疊指數：典型自變量 19.970% 典型依變量 24.117%

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

第一組典型變量 X 組變項中「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」、「溝通障礙」及「一般政治行為」均與第一個典型自變量 (CX1) 高度關聯 (以絕對值大於 0.4 為取捨標準)，典型負荷量分別為 -0.861, -0.708, -0.831；Y 組變項中「內在滿足」及「外在滿足」亦與第一個典型依變量 (CY1) 高度關聯，典型負荷量分別為 0.775, 0.970；「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」、「溝通障礙」及「一般政治行為」透過第一組典型變量共可解釋「內在滿足」及「外在滿足」23.42% 的變異量 (重疊指數)。茲將第一組典型變量主要影響因素路徑繪如圖 5，並討論如下。

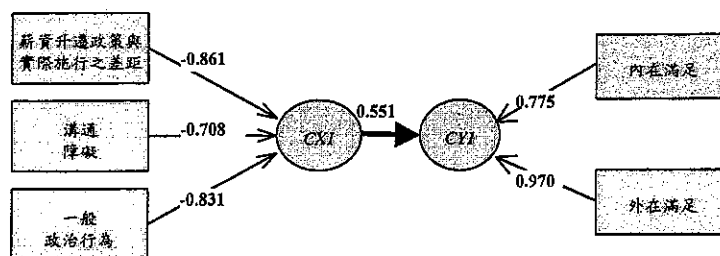


圖 5 組織政治知覺與工作滿足第一組典型變量組型圖

圖 5 顯示，「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」、「溝通障礙」及「一般政治行為」均與「內在滿足」及「外在滿足」呈現顯著負向關聯。此意味了，當個人政治知覺程度愈低，例如組織升遷制度透明化並完善實行、薪資與獎酬公平公正、員工對公司的決策可發表個人看法並提出建議、組織中謀取個人不正當利益的政治行為被杜絕，則可提高員工的「內在滿足」及「外在滿足」，進而增加對公司的向心力。

(二) 組織政治知覺構面與工作壓力構面的典型相關分析

將組織政治知覺構面與工作壓力構面進行典型相關分析，結果共抽取兩組典型變量，經顯著性檢驗，典型相關係數分別為 $\rho_1=0.388, p<0.001$; $\rho_2=0.188, p<0.05$ ，均達顯著水準。茲將典型相關分析結果整理如表 13。唯第二組典型變量僅解釋 Y 組變項總變異量的 1.258%，不具討論價值，故以下說明僅針對第一組典型變量，探討變項間之多重相互關聯。

第一組典型變量 X 組變項中「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」及「一般政治行為」與第一個典型自變量 (CX1) 高度關聯，典型負荷量分別為 0.803, 0.963；Y 組變項中「負荷過度」及「角色衝突」亦與第一個典型依變量 (CY1) 高度關聯，典型負荷量分別為 0.630, 0.945；「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」、「溝通障礙」及「一般政治行為」透過第一組典型變量共可解釋「負荷過度」及「角色衝突」9.735% 的變異量 (重疊指數)。茲將第一組典型變量主要影響因素路徑繪如圖 6，並討論如下。

表 13 組織政治知覺與工作壓力的典型相關分析摘要表

X 組	第一組典型變量		第二組典型變量		Y 組
	典型負荷量				
	X 組	Y 組	X 組	Y 組	
薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距	0.803	0.630	-0.376	0.777	負荷過度
溝通障礙	0.294	0.945	-0.846	-0.327	角色衝突
一般政治行為	0.963		0.007		
抽出變異數%	55.28	64.50	28.57	35.50	
重疊指數%	8.343	9.735	1.012	1.258	
典型相關係數 ρ	0.388***		0.188*		
ρ^2	0.151		0.035		

累計抽出變異數：典型自變量 83.85% 典型依變量 100.00%

累積重疊指數：典型自變量 9.355% 典型依變量 10.992%

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

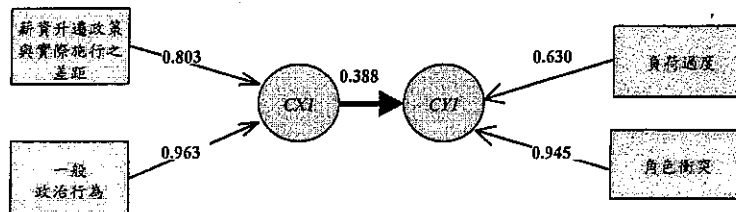


圖 6 組織政治知覺與工作壓力第一組典型變量組型圖

圖 6 顯示，「薪資升遷政策與實際施行之差距」及「一般政治行為」與「負荷過度」及「角色衝突」呈現顯著正向關聯。可見造成員工工作壓力的主要原因，來自於員工知覺到組織中「一般政治行為」的事件多，且薪資升遷與其努力付出無關，主觀上認為薪資升遷政策的施行受到某些人所操控，個人得不到公平的對待，因此在此心理上加深了工作負荷的壓迫感，並對角色認知產生衝突與混淆。

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1. Writing summaries for the following two sections in **English** (Keep your summaries within 150 words each): (50%)

【Summary means a concise statement of the main points using your own words】

- (a) Historically, academic work has been seen as highly satisfying (Sales & House, 1971) and, in comparison with other occupations, relatively stress-free (French et al., 1982). As Thorsen (1996) points out, until recently, it was generally believed that factors such as autonomy, role clarity and tenure protected academics from the job characteristics and working conditions usually associated with occupational stress: e.g. lack of job control, time constraints, role ambiguity and job insecurity (Kahn et al., 1964). A non-competitive, collegiate culture was also believed to provide a protective and supportive framework which acted as a buffer in potentially stressful situations (Gmelch et al., 1984).

The image of academia as an occupation that is intrinsically low in stress and high in satisfaction is exemplified by a longitudinal study of 1600 American academics conducted over three decades by Willie & Stecklein (1982). Whilst this study did not examine work-related stress directly, 80 percent of respondents indicated that they found their careers satisfying and, given the opportunity, would make the same career choice again. Respondents' level of job satisfaction did not significantly differ between the first and second wave of data collection (i.e. 1956 and 1968), and only slightly decreased in the final wave (1980). Academic working conditions, however, have changed significantly in the last 20 years. Thorsen (1996) suggests that university lecturers and researchers now experience similar pressures to professionals in any large organization. Willie & Stecklein's findings should be contrasted with a more recent national study conducted in the UK (Kinman, 1998), where 52% of a sample of 782 academics indicated that, if given the opportunity to start afresh in their careers, they would not choose to work in higher education. (25%)

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- (b) Over the past decade, companies such as Chrysler, Xerox, Ford, and Whirlpool have drastically cut their number of suppliers so that they can move away from making supply decisions based primarily upon price (Dyer, 1996; Fram, 1995). Instead, their intent is to build the enduring relationships that are an essential part of quality improvement programs, just-in-time inventory control, and similar management practices (Moss Kanter, 1989). Recent research in management (e.g., Chow & Holden, 1997; Doz, 1996; Smith, Carroll, & Ashford, 1995; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998a), marketing (e.g., Doney & Cannon, 1997; Fram, 1995), and materials management (Moore, 1998; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Smeltzer, 1997; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998b) indicates that trust is an important factor in the success of such long-term relationships.

Trust is "a state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to one's self in situations entailing risk" (Boon & Holmes, 1991: 194) and, thus, is an orientation toward others that is beyond rationality (Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Tyler & Kramer, 1996) because it increases one's vulnerability to opportunistic behavior (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Zand, 1972). In the same vein, McAllister explains trust as "the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another" (1995: 25), and he empirically identifies cognitive- and affect-based trust as separate constructs. This combination of views and findings provides us with a definition of trust between individuals (i.e., interpersonal trust).

However, trust also occurs at the level of the organization (organizational trust) and has empirically been found to be different from interpersonal trust (Doney & Cannon, 1997). Zaheer et al. describe organizational trust as "the extent to which organizational members have a collectively held trust orientation toward the partner firm" (1998a: 143). This definition closely matches the understanding of macrolevel trust in sociology. For example, Coleman explains trust at the macro level as being a "a generalization of the two actor system of mutual trust, but [it] involves a greater number of actors" (1990: 188). Coleman also argues that there is circularity (feedback) between the macro and micro, and micro and macro, levels. To keep our analysis manageable, we treat trust as a steady state and avoid these feedback issues, which really speak to the formation and development of trust at the macro level.

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Management research on organizational trust is largely in agreement that it is beneficial for performance, but the results of research on interpersonal trust are less clear. For example, Chow and Holden's (1997) study provides strong support for the importance of interpersonal trust, whereas Zaheer and colleagues (1998a,b) found that its role was less important than that of organizational trust. We contend that more theory is needed before the importance and effects of trust are more fully understood. Therefore, we address this question here: How does trust affect the quality of solutions to problems of adaptation in relational contracts? Organizational trust, with its implicit rules for such things as information disclosure, provides a context for interpersonal trust and the relationship between negotiators. The theoretical contribution of this work, therefore, is to show how organizational trust and interpersonal trust interact to affect negotiators' motivation to find optimal solutions to problems of adaptation. Also, and as a consequence of those discussions, we offer the first explanation of the role of affect-based trust in relational contracting.

Our discussions focus on the execution stage of the contracting process, where the need can arise for adaptation because of the changes in demand and requirements on amount, quality, delivery times, and so forth that the contracting parties have to deal with jointly.¹ Although we assume that contracting parties desire a long-term relationship, we do not assume that there are any additional expectations, such as interorganizational learning or technology transfers, where trust may also be important. To frame our discussions and establish our main constructs, we start by briefly summarizing extant thinking on relational contracting and trust. (25%)

2. Case Analysis (50%)

It is literally impossible for a month to go by and not have Bill Gates leering at you from the cover of one or more business periodicals. As co-founder and chairman of Microsoft, he seems to be everybody's pick as one of America's foremost corporate leaders. First a little background on Gates, then some comments from a recent interview.

Gates grew up in Seattle, Washington. His father was a prominent attorney and his mother a supporter of community cultural and educational activities. He attended a prestigious private school, went off to Harvard for college, but quit to start a business. He and his friend from high school, Paul Allen, began a business writing software for the first personal computers. While executives at the big computer companies like IBM, Digital, and Control Data saw not future in PC's Gates and Allen disagreed. They envisioned a world where everyone would own one or more personal computers. And as part of Gate's vision, he saw his company. Microsoft. Providing the basic operating software and programming software for these new machines.

Of course, history has proven Gates right. PCs became the computer of choice by both business and individuals. Meanwhile, almost all those PCs have Microsoft software inside them. And Microsoft has become a company valued at more than General Motors. As Microsoft's largest stockholder, Gates is worth in excess of \$20 billion.

In 1995, Gates published his first book, *The Road Ahead*. It was an immediate best seller. Not a biography, the book essentially described Gates's interpretation of what has happened, so far, in the communication revolution and his vision of what the future holds. Several chapters describe how he and Allen saw the potential for PCs well before the large computer companies. Gates tells how he believed he had no choice but to drop out of Harvard-while he loved college; he figured time was of the essence. If he and Allen didn't move quickly to begin writing software for PCs, someone else would fill the opportunity. Ironically, that concern with moving quickly to grab opportunities continues today. Microsoft, the company, reflects the ambition, aggressiveness, and paranoia of its con-founder and chairman. Never satisfied to rest on its accomplishments. Microsoft behaves like a company fighting for survival. And as it does, it makes life miserable for its competitors.

One of the more interesting topics in Gates's book is his description of what he thinks most of us will be carrying around with us in a few years-a wallet-sized PC. This "appliance" will do almost anything for you. It will allow you to check on your bank balance, get a stock quote, access your e-mail, talk with friends or business associates, send messages to people, make flight reservations, check highway traffic patterns, or search the Internet for shopping bargains. It will even provide you with digital currency. You won't have to carry money with you since your wallet PC will be your money source. And the appliance will allow you to transfer funds from your bank account to wallet PC when the latter gets low money.

Critics of Gates fear the power he is amassing at Microsoft. Some even think he wants to rule the world. He laughs off that claim, but one can't ignore the power that come from controlling the operating systems of 80 to 90 percent of all computers and having the wealth to buy jut about

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anything or anybody. When ask why so many people are worried about him and Microsoft. He says he thinks it's because of the focus on the information revolution and the change it is bringing about. "It is bringing change, and change does cause problems. People are afraid of change. You know, the status quo, even though you can complain about it, you like a lot of things that are going on. And so Microsoft, almost iconically, represents this pace of change, and doing new things and people imagine that we actually know exactly how it's going to unfold, which certainly isn't the case."

Please Answer the following questions in English

1. Bill Gates is at the top of nearly everyone's list of corporate leaders. Why? Explain (10%)
2. What characteristics make Gates a transformational leader? Explain (15%)
3. Do you think if Bill Gates had finished Harvard, earned an MBA, and joined IBM, he would have risen rapidly up the IBM ranks? Explain (10%)
4. Do you think he would have been seen as a leader at IBM? Explain (15%)