

國立中山大學八十八學年度碩博士班招生考試試題

科目：人力資源管理 (人力資源管理研究所博士班) 共 / 頁 第 / 頁

一、請寫出五種學術期刊的名稱，同時也請說明該學術期刊的特性，但這些期刊所刊登的論文主要須與人力資源管理或組織管理有關。(20%)

二、若要針對招募(recruitment)進行學術研究時，請說明可以將哪些變項放進研究架構中，同時也請說明這些變項的特性。(15%)

三、甄選員工時，一般多會採用面談的方式，請說明非結構式面談與結構式面談(unstructured & structured selection interviews)的差異，同時也請說明各自的長處與限制。(15%)

四、組織前程發展管理的要素有哪些？這些要素的整合策略為何？試就人力培育的觀點說明之。(20%)

五、在企業內薪資隔差(wage differentials)的設計中，須考慮那二個問題？其處理的具體措施為何？試就激勵與公平的原則說明之？(20%)

六、工會組織的要件為何？其在勞資關係中扮演的角色為何？試就平時與戰時狀態說明之。(10%)

壹、請針對下列論文的研究方法評述並討論（50分）

討論問題：

（1）請說明本研究所採用的是演繹法或歸納法？（15分）

（2）演繹法與歸納法對理論的建立與驗證各有何貢獻？（20分）

兩者應如何結合使用？（15分）

本研究以兩階段研究法進行實證探討。為了對於服務業內部行銷的人力資源管理概念進行探討，首先訪談國內三家在內部行銷方面有較具體作法的公司，作為內部行銷人力資源管理概念的建構，俾進一步進行量表的建立。

綜合上述之文獻探討與對三家公司的訪談結果，本研究為進一步驗證內部行銷的人力資源管理對組織服務性氣候與顧客導向行為的影響，特建立圖一的研究架構。

根據圖一的研究建構，本研究建立下列假設：

假設 1 內部行銷的人力資源管理對組織服務性氣候有顯著正向影響。

假設 2 組織服務性氣候對員工顧客導向有顯著正向影響。

假設 3 對內部行銷的人力資源管理對員工顧客導向有直接顯著正向影響。

假設 4 對內部行銷的人力資源管理會透過組織服務性氣候，對員工顧客導向產生間接顯著正向影響。

內部行銷雖對所有的產業皆重要，但對於服務性產業尤其重要(Greene, Walls & Schrest, 1994)，因為一般於服務性公司，有超過 50%之人員會直接面對顧客(Flipo, 1986)。由於台灣的民營銀行正積極推動顧客滿意的服務，故本研究選擇台灣地區民營銀行第一線工作人員（與顧客有直接接觸者）為研究對象，進行問卷調查。

貳、請對下列論文加以評述並討論 (50分)

討論問題：

- (1) 請說明本篇論文的 research question 為何? (15分)
- (2) 本論文的依變項為何? 採用何種統計方法? 您對此種方法有何評論? (15分)
- (3) 本文研究結果為何? 您對此種結果有何評論? (20分)

### UNIONIZATION DETERMINANTS OF MULTINATIONAL FIRMS

During the past half century perhaps the most remarkable feature of the American economy is its transformation from an overwhelmingly domestic focus to its current integration in the global economy. For instance, in 1950 foreign direct investment ("FDI") by US firms totaled \$11.8 billion, and by 1995 US firms' FDI had increased to \$880 billion. After adjusting for inflation, aggregate FDI by US firms increased almost 12-fold during 1950 to 1995, which dwarfs the four-fold increase in real GDP during this period.

An important dimension of this increased offshore investment by US multinational firms is the industrial relations (IR) and human resource (HR) strategies they employ in their increasingly numerous facilities outside the United States. In this paper we analyze these employment relations strategies, and we give particular attention to US operations in Taiwan and South Korea. The emergence of union militancy in Korea and union independence from the government in Taiwan during the 1980s and 1990s make these two countries particularly worthy of study (Freeman, 1994).

### WORKPLACE TRANSFORMATION IN THE US

During the past 15-20 years US employers have implemented many work and employment practices designed to increase workplace efficiency. As domestic and global product market competition has intensified, many employers have developed and installed HR and IR practices that result in more flexible and productive workforces. We have identified three pertinent dimensions of this workplace transformation. First, some of these HR practices may involve changes that occur at the employees' expense. For instance, employers have pursued flexibility by expanding training and reducing job titles, thereby allowing them more opportunity to quickly move employees among tasks as production needs change. Many employers also have adopted practices that allow for rapid fluctuations in the size of their workforces and their labor costs as market demand changes, including an increased use of outsourcing (or subcontracting) of various types of work, and more use of temporary and part-time employees ("contingent workers") who have few fringe benefits and no job security. As these examples indicate, many employers have transformed employment in a manner that shifts some of the risk associated with product market success or failure from the stockholders to the employees (Kochan, Katz, and McKersie, 1986).

Second, some other workplace changes have been much more employee-friendly. Many employers have "empowered" employees to become more fully involved in their work and to be directly rewarded for superior performance (Appelbaum and Batt, 1994; Osterman, 1994). These "empowering" practices include: Self-directed work teams that have considerable task autonomy; substantial employee involvement in decisions regarding work scheduling, job assignment, and even discipline of other employees; reduced layers of management as employees take on tasks historically performed by supervisors; extensive and ongoing training; and various forms of performance-based pay.

Third, American employers historically have been strongly opposed to the presence of unions in their facilities (Lawler, 1990). There seems to be general agreement that during the 1980s and 1990s employer resistance to unions stiffened compared to earlier postwar decades. Among nonunion firms, this resistance usually emerged as efforts to defeat union organizing drives. Among unionized firms, these efforts emerged as seeking union concessions at the bargaining table, increasing the use of permanent replacements during strikes, and investing away from unionized facilities (including moving facilities to domestic and international locations to be operated on a nonunion basis).

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percent) were unionized, with 63 of 138 firms (46 percent) unionized in Korea and 30 of 48 firms (63 percent) unionized in Taiwan. Table 1 describes the sampled firms.

The dependent variable in our study is the percent of the firm's non-managerial workforce that is unionized. Union density is a much better proxy for the support the union enjoys within the firm than is a dummy variable measuring only the union's presence or absence, and union density is a particularly meaningful measure of union presence in these two countries where unions usually do not have exclusive bargaining rights. As can be seen in Table 1, mean union densities in the sampled facilities are rather low, though the large standard deviation indicates a wide range of facility-specific union penetration rates across our sampled facilities.

The principal independent variables in the analysis are dummy variables indicating the parent company's country of origin. There are three such variables: Japanese firms, European firms, and US firms. The reference category here is indigenous firms. Thus, the firm ownership variables indicate the difference in union density, other things being equal, between each category of MNC and the locally owned firms. For the reasons explained above, we expect that American subsidiaries in Korea and Taiwan will exhibit lower union densities than firms owned by other MNCs. Some of these MNC firms are joint ventures with local partners, which might alter the relationship between MNC nationality and union strength. Thus, a joint venture dummy variable is included as a control measure, although no specific relationship is anticipated.

Several other control variables are included. Part-time employees are less likely to have the same degree of attachment to a firm as are full-time employees. Thus, we include the percent of part-time employees in the analysis and expect this to be negatively related to union density. The existence of a free-standing HRM department in the firm, which is a proxy for the firm's willingness and ability to invest in high-commitment work practices as well as willingness to orchestrate union avoidance campaigns, is expected to reduce union density. We anticipate that older firms, which perhaps have greater internal rigidity and in any case have been available longer as union organizing targets, will have higher union density levels. Larger firms (measured by the natural logarithm of full-time employees) are more attractive union organizing targets than small firms, and therefore we expect they will have higher union densities. A dummy variable indicating whether the firm is part of the manufacturing sector is included, although no specific relationship to union density is posited.

Porter's (1985) well-known typology of organizational strategies distinguishes between *cost leaders* and *differentiators*. A firm that selects a cost leadership strategy seeks to become the low-cost producer in its industry, which creates a sustainable competitive advantage. In contrast, a differentiator firm seeks to make its products unique along one or more dimensions valued by customers (e.g., technical prowess, product durability, outstanding service, etc.). If successful, these unique features will enable the firm to levy premium prices, which provides a sustainable competitive advantage. We included a six-item scale that measures the degree to which a firm follows a differentiator rather than cost leader strategy. This is based on responses to Likert-style items on our survey form assessing such things as the firm's commitment to product quality and service to customers rather than competing on the basis of price. The summed scale demonstrates high reliability (coefficient alpha > .80). Firms that stress differentiation are presumed to prefer greater workplace flexibility and thus have a strong incentive to avoid unions. At the same time, low-cost producers have a strong incentive to operate without unions in order to keep their costs down. As a result, we are unsure how this business strategy variable will be related to union density, so we do not specify direction.

Questions also asked for upper management's perceptions of the importance of human resources as a source of the firm's competitive advantage. Following Bae (1997), this is

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assessed using six items that were adapted from Lewin and Yang (1992). The human resource value scale measures top management's belief that its employees and HR practices are sources of competitive advantage. We anticipate that firms in which top management strongly values human resources will introduce HR policies and practices that reduce conflict between labor and management. Thus, the HR value score is posited to be negatively related to union density.

## Results

Empirical assessment of the framework developed above involves using ordinary least squares to regress union density on the set of independent variables. These relationships may differ between Korea and Taiwan as a function of variations in culture, legal and political systems, and the nature of social and economic institutions (including labor unions). Consequently, we have done separate regressions for each country.

The regression results for the Korean sub-sample are reported in Table 2. The overall regression is statistically significant ( $F_{11,126} = 4.59; p < .01$ ) with an adjusted  $R^2$  of .22. These results indicate that union densities in subsidiaries of American, European, and Japanese firms operating in Korea are significantly higher than in indigenous firms. However, the largest effect is for European firms, and Japanese firms also have somewhat higher union densities than American firms. T-tests of the difference between regression coefficients indicate that the difference between the European and American coefficients is significant at the .10 level, though the difference between the Japanese and American coefficients is not significant. Thus, to the extent that country of origin serves as a proxy for union avoidance desires, our results suggest that American MNCs have a greater propensity in this direction than MNCs from the other advanced industrialized countries (though MNC facilities in Korea, on average, are more highly unionized than indigenous firms).

Other results in the Korean analysis indicate, as predicted, that larger firms and older firms are associated with higher union densities. In addition, firms that score higher on Porter's product differentiation scale are associated with reduced union densities.

The regression results for the Taiwan sub-sample also are reported in Table 2. The overall regression is statistically significant ( $F_{11,36} = 5.16; p < .01$ ) with an adjusted  $R^2$  of .49. In this analysis, the dummy variables for firm national origin are not statistically significant in the case of the US and Europe (the Japan indicator is significant and positive, but with only two Japanese-owned firms in our Taiwanese sample we are reluctant to place any practical significance on this result). Thus, union densities in American and European firms operating in Taiwan are not significantly different from indigenous firms, a result quite different from the Korean analysis. At the same time, larger firms and older firms in Taiwan—as in Korea—are associated with higher union densities. Taiwanese firms that emphasize a product differentiation strategy report lower union densities, though this result is not statistically significant.

Two interesting differences emerged across the two countries. In Korea, manufacturing firms reported lower union densities than other firms, but in Taiwan manufacturing firms are more highly unionized than firms in other sectors. Most intriguing, Taiwanese firms with free-standing HR departments report significantly lower union densities compared to Taiwanese firms without such departments, but in Korea the presence or absence of such an organizational unit has no relationship with unionization levels.

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**TABLE 1**  
**Firm Characteristics**  
 (means, standard deviations)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Korea</u>	<u>Taiwan</u>
Union Density	.37 (.40)	.33 (.44)
% Japanese-owned Firms	.10 (.31)	.03 (.19)
% European-owned Firms	.30 (.46)	.19 (.39)
% American-owned Firms	.29 (.45)	.26 (.45)
% Joint Ventures	.24 (.43)	.17 (.38)
% Full-time Employees	.92 (.09)	.95 (.13)
Free-Standing HR Department	.70 (.46)	.88 (.32)
Age of Company (Years)	19.79 (16.11)	17.14 (11.70)
Number of Employees (Log)	5.78 (1.58)	6.07 (1.22)
Manufacturing Firm	.57 (.49)	.62 (.49)
Differentiator Score (1-6)	4.81 (.89)	5.15 (.95)
HR Values Score (1-6)	4.22 (.93)	4.49 (.86)
N	138	48

**TABLE 2**  
**Determinants of Union Density**  
 (OLS regression results, t-statistics in parentheses)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Korea</u>	<u>Taiwan</u>
Constant	-10.45 (-0.237)	-25.87 (-.446)
Japanese firm	32.37** (2.178)	54.69* (1.751)
European firm	43.75*** (3.771)	2.99 (.194)
American firm	28.68*** (2.511)	-.75 (-.064)
Joint venture	-0.64 (-0.074)	8.62 (.487)
Percent full-time employees	-40.69 (-1.282)	1.90 (.045)
Has free-standing HR department	-7.14 (-0.886)	-45.88** (-2.397)
Age of company (years)	0.54** (2.139)	1.64 *** (3.302)
Number of employees (log)	13.47*** (4.199)	11.75** (2.238)
Manufacturing firm	-12.60** (-1.969)	27.40** (2.403)
Differentiator score	-9.90*** (-2.745)	-5.44 (-1.042)
HR values score	4.10 (1.177)	1.30 (.201)
N	138	48

\*\*\* significant at .01 level, \*\* significant at .05 level, \* significant at .10 level

(1) Please translate the following article into Chinese. (50 分)

The path-goal approach has its roots in a more general motivational theory called expectancy theory. Briefly, expectancy theory states that an individual's attitudes (e.g., satisfaction with supervision or job satisfaction) or behavior (e.g., leader behavior or job effort) can be predicted from: (1) the degree to which the job, or behavior, is seen as leading to various outcomes (expectancy) and (2) the evaluation of these outcomes (valences). Thus, people are satisfied with their job if they think it leads to things that are highly valued, and they work hard if they believe that effort leads to things that are highly valued. This type of theoretical rationale can be used to predict a variety of phenomena related to leadership, such as why leaders behave the way they do, or how leader behavior influences subordinate motivation.

This latter approach is the primary concern of this article. The implication for leadership is that subordinates are motivated by leader behavior to the extent that this behavior influence expectancies, e.g., goal paths and valences, e.g., goal attractiveness.

Several writers have advanced specific hypotheses concerning how the leader affects the paths and the goals of subordinates. These writers focused on two issues: (1) how the leader affects subordinates' expectations that effort will lead to effective performance and valued rewards, and (2) how this expectation affects motivation two work hard and perform well.

While the state of theorizing about leadership in term of subordinates' paths and goals is in its infancy, we believe it is promising for two reasons. First, it suggest effects of leader behavior that have not yet been investigated but which appear top be fruitful areas of inquiry. And, second, it suggests with some precision the situational factors on which the effects of leader behavior are contingent.

The initial theoretical work by Evans asserts the leaders will be effective by making rewards available to subordinates and by making these rewarded contingent on the subordinate's accomplishment of specific goals. Evans argued that one of the strategic functions of the leaders is to clarify for subordinates the kind of behavior that leads to goal accomplishment and valued rewards. This function might be referred to as path clarification. Evans also argued that the leader increases the rewards available to subordinates by being supportive toward subordinates, i.e., by being concerned about their status, welfare and comfort. Leader supportiveness is in itself a reward that the leader has at his or her disposal, and the judicious use of this reward increases the motivation of subordinates.

Evans studied the relationship between the behavior of leaders and subordinates' expectations the effort leads to rewards and also studied the resulting impact on ratings of the subordinates' performance. He found that when subordinates' view leaders as

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being supportive (considerate of their needs) and when these superiors provided directions and guidance to the subordinates, there was a positive relationship between leader and subordinates' performance ratings.

However, leader behavior was only related to subordinates' performance when the leader's behavior also was related to the subordinates' expectations that their effort would result in desired rewards. Thus, Evans' findings suggest that the major impact of a leader on the performance of subordinates is clarifying the path to desired reward and making such reward contingent on effective performance.

Stimulated by this line of reasoning, House, and House and Dessler advanced a more complex theory of the effects of leader behavior on the motivation of subordinates. The theory intends to explain the effects of four specific kinds of leader behavior on the following three subordinate attitudes or expectations: (1) the satisfaction of subordinates, (2) the subordinates' acceptance of the leader and (3) the expectations of subordinates that effort will result in effective performance and that effective performance is the path to reward. The four kinds of leader behavior included in the theory are: (1) directive leadership, (2) supportive leadership, (3) participative leadership and (4) achievement-oriented leadership. Directive leadership is characterized by a leader who lets subordinates know what is expected of them, gives specific guidance as to what should be done and how it should be done, makes his or her part in the group understood, schedules work to be done, maintains definite standards of performance and asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. Supportive leadership is characterized by a friendly and approachable leader who shows concern for the status, well-being and needs of subordinates. Such a leader does little things to make the work more pleasant, treats members as equals and is friendly and approachable. Participative leadership is characterized by a leader who consults with subordinates, solicits their suggestions and takes these suggestions seriously into consideration before making a decision. An achievement-oriented leader sets challenging goals, expects subordinates to perform at their highest level, continuously seeks improvement in performance and shows a high degree of confidence that the subordinates will assume responsibility, put forth effort and accomplish challenging goals. This kind of leader constantly emphasizes excellence in performance and simultaneously displays confidence that subordinates will meet high standards of excellence.

A number of studies suggest that these different leadership styles can be shown by the same leader in various situations. For example, a leader may show directiveness toward subordinates in some instances and be participative or supportive in other instances. Thus, the traditional method of characterizing a leader as either highly participative and supportive or highly directive is invalid; rather, it can be concluded



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that leaders vary in the particular fashion employed for supervising their subordinates. Also, the theory, in its present stage, is a tentative explanation of the effects of leader behavior-it is incomplete because it does not explain the effects of the leader on factors other than subordinate acceptance, satisfaction and expectations. However, the theory is states so that additional variables may be included in it as new knowledge is made available.

(2)

1. Jeffrey Pfeffer in his new book, " The Human Equation ", asked the question, "Wouldn't our existing strategy, whatever it is, be better implemented and better served if our people were more involved, committed, and better skilled?" Please write an essay to express your opinion regarding this HRM question and identify management practices that can fulfill Pfeffer's expectation. (Keep the essay within 400 words.) (25%)

2. We have seen waves of bankruptcy and failure of many corporations since 1998. Taiwan seems to undergo a potential economic crisis. In your opinion, why did so many corporations fail? What does it take to be successful in managing a business in such a turbulent time? Particularly, what kind of HRM practices and strategies would you suggest to fight with Asian economic crisis? (Keep the essay within 400 words.) (25%)

一 次の文章を中国語に翻訳せよ。

(30%)

日本の経営と労使関係の相互関係

日本の経営は労使関係にどのような効果をもつのか。まず、日本の経営の特徴として考えられるものを列挙すると、①雇用の安定、②年功賃金制、③年功昇進制、④シニア・ローテーションや多能工化の手法、⑤経営理念や経営目的の強調、⑥弾力的な管理(マニュアル中心でない)、⑦集団による意思決定、⑧集団責任、⑨人間関係政策の重視、⑩稟議制度の採用、⑪経営者と一般従業員の間の身分・地位格差の最小化(平等志向)、⑫小集団活動の活用。

次に、労使関係が良いか否かをみる場合の指標として労使紛争を継続したか否かおよび出勤率・離職率をとる。もし労使関係がうまくいっているならば、労使紛争が起こる可能性は低くなるであろうし、従業員の職場でのモラルも高く、したがって、出勤率も高くなり、その会社をやめようと思う従業員も少なくなり、その企業の離職率も低くなると思われることにする。

二 次の文章を読んで、コメントを述べなさい。

(日本語で)

(30%)

台湾における日系合弁企業が採用している日本の経営を、採用している頻度の高い順に高いほうから五項目選ぶと以下ようになる。①経営理念や経営目的の協調(八三%)、②雇用の安定(八一%)、③人間関係政策の重視(七一%)、④年功賃金制(四五%)、⑤稟議制度の採用(四三%)。

台湾における日本の経営の中で労使紛争の可能性・出勤率・離職率に対して良い効果を持つと考えられる日本の経営は、弾力的な管理・経営者と一般従業員との間の身分・地位格差の最小化の二項目である。すでに述べたように、弾力的な管理は企業特殊人的資本の蓄積につながり、離職率を下げ、従業員の長期的な生活水準の維持や向上に役立つと考えられる。一方、経営者と一般従業員との間の格差の最小化は垂直方向の情報の流れの増加に役立つとかんがえられる。他方、台湾の日系合弁企業の労使関係を悪くするような日本の経営はみあたらない。

台湾の労働者が持つ価値観や考え方と日本人労働者のそれとの差は、東南アジア諸国の労働者のそれらとの差よりは小さいと考えられる。また、現在台湾においては、政府が積極的に労使協調的な労使関係を育成するように働きかけている。このことが、台湾の日系合弁企業に日本の経営が離職率を下げるという意味において成功している理由であろう。ただし、年功制度は、労使紛争の可能性や出勤率に対する影響から、あまり適切であるとは言えないかもしれない。台湾も、シンガポールと同様に、シニア・ホッピングの問題があり、労働市場も外部労働市場が中心であることから、日本の経営の中でも年功制度は台湾の労働者にはあまり受け入れられないのではなかろうか。

台湾でのトップに対するアンケート結果によると、日系合弁企業における労働組合の有無は労使紛争が起こる可能性や出勤率には大きい影響を与えない。他方、労働組合がある日系合弁企業の離職率の平均値は、一カ月当たり三・六%で、そうでない企業の四・六%よりかなり低い。さらに、前者の生産性改善のための提案制度やQCサークルを行っている割合は、後者のそれらよりも顕著に高い。したがって、台湾の場合には、先に述べたように輸出加工区内外での区別の差はあるが、平均的には、労働組合の存在は日系合弁企業の生産活動にとってプラスに働いていると考えられる。

そうした例として、家電・電子産業のA社があげられる。A社は、さまざまな種類の日本の経営をすべて採用しており、その労働組合は企業別労働組合である。台湾における労働組合の活動の主たるものは、個人的なトラブルの処理や企業内福利厚生のような消極的なものである。しかしながら、A社の労働組合の主な活動は月一回の労使協議会であり、そこにおいてボーナス等に関する協議も行われる。さらに、ボーナスが出た後、労働組合が一般従業員の不満を調査するという積極的な活動を行っている。したがって、A社の従業員の離職率は一般従業員の場合年間二〇%、一般職員の場合年間三%であり、台湾の一般企業のそれよりも低だけでなく、現地の日系合弁企業の中でも低い。

- 三. 平仮名をカタカナに。(40%)
1. 物流
  2. 技術革新
  3. 無在庫経営
  4. 教育訓練
  5. 效果測定
  6. 品質保證
  7. 戦略的研究開発
  8. 設備投資計画
  9. 共存の競争
  10. 業績評価