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Recruitment and selection and human resource management in the Taiwanese cultural context

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RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE TAIWANESE CULTURAL CONTEXT

by

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ABSTRACT

Recruitment and Selection and Human Resource Management in the Taiwanese Cultural Context

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The focus of this research is upon human resource management and recruitment and selection practices in the Taiwanese cultural context. The samples were primarily focused upon manufacturing industry in Taiwan. The postal questionnaire was chosen for data collection. The 500 manufacturing companies randomly selected for this research were sent two questionnaire each. The questionnaire on HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) was addressed to HR manager whereas the questionnaire on work-related values of national culture was addressed to non-managerial employee.

The research results indicate that there is a general desire among HR professionals in manufacturing organizations that HRM polices are integrated with corporate strategies and that HRM should be involved in decision making at board level. Evidence was also obtained that some HRM decisions are shared between line management and HR specialists and that line managers had a particularly influential role in decisions regarding recruitment and selection, training and development, and workforce expansion/reduction. There was also some evidence supporting an assertion that certain recruitment and selection practices were culturally sensitive and this was supported by evidence of association between practice and country of ownership.

The research also suggests that work-related values in Taiwan have changed over the last twenty years since Hofstede's original work and that in particular there had been change in the direction of Individualism and Masculinity. However, there was also evidence that traditional Chinese/Confucian values were still important to employees. These cultural findings have implications for the practice of HRM including appropriate recruitment and selection policies and practices. There was also some evidence that wok-related values vary with ownership pattern, company size, as well as with gender, age, and levels of educational attainment.

This research contributes to the body of knowledge through the findings detailed above and these were used to develop an analytical framework of HRM in Taiwan which encompasses work-related values as part of both the internal and external organizational context and which might also form an appropriate base for comparative analysis.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own investigation, except where otherwise indicated.

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award.

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Signed......................................

Date....15....March.,.1999

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

my beloved parents

Introduction

Theoretical Issues and Research Hypotheses

1. HRM and Recruitment and Selection

The globalization of product markets and enhanced multinational activity of business organizations has encouraged a greater degree of interest in HRM and its cultural relativism and transferability. As is mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.6, several of the theoretical or analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM (e.g., the Harvard model, Guest model, the European model of HRM, etc.) examined in this study are either American or European in origin and many of them tend to reflect the particular cultural characteristics of their country of origin. This raises questions about the applicability of these western-oriented models in a different cultural and contextual environment (in this case Taiwan).

Over recent years, a number of relevant studies on HRM practices among employing organizations in Taiwan have been conducted by a group of researchers (Yeh, 1991; Chu, 1990; He, 1993; Chin, 1993; Kao, 1993; Hsu, 1993; Tsai, 1995; Huang, 1997; Lin, 1997) (see Chapter 1, Section 1.6). These Taiwanese researchers who carried out the research seem to have adopted western models of HRM without critical evaluation of their suitability or transferability and none of them have actually developed an analytical framework of HRM to facilitate our understanding of the concept of HRM in the Taiwan context. Therefore, the first objective of this research is to develop an appropriate framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan. The framework proposed in this study may then be used as a base for a more comprehensive study of HRM in Taiwan and for further international and comparative studies.

In addition, this research also seeks to examine three main elements of HRM: the strategic aspect of HRM, the devolvement of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management, and recruitment and selection polices and practices. As is described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3 and 2.4, what makes HRM different from conventional personnel management is that the former has a number of distinctive characteristics or philosophies underpinning the concept. For example, it has been suggested that HRM is a strategic approach because it tends to emphasize the importance of integrating HRM strategy and practice with corporate strategy (Guest, 1989), that the locus of responsibility for people-management is devolved to line managers, and that the role of personnel or human resource specialists is to support and facilitate line management in this task, not to control it (Armstrong, 1992). These two central features of HRM have also been highlighted in an empirical survey conducted by Budhwar and Sparrow (1997), who used the concepts (levels) of 'integration' and 'devolvement' to analyze strategic HRM practices in Indian organizaions (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2).

As is mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.6 and Chapter 3, Section 3.1, there appears to be some general agreement among a number of leading American and European researchers (e.g., Beer et al., 1984; Guest, 1989; Brewster and Bournois, 1991; Bratton, 1994) that whatever models and perspective of HRM are used, recruitment and selection policies and practices can be perceived as integral. Recruitment and selection not only seek to attract, obtain, and retain the human resources the organization needs to achieve the strategic goals, but may also have significant impact upon the composition of the workforce, the ultimate fit with the organization's needs and culture, and upon long-range employment stability (Beer et al., 1984).

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There is some debate among cross-cultural and/or cross-national researchers as to whether HRM strategies and practices are converging across national boundaries or diverging. In two relevant and recent cross-cultural comparative studies, the research findings of Easterby-Smith et al. (1995) and Lawler et al. (1995) provided support for the culturally relativist (divergence) view of HRM with recruitment and selection practices being found to be culturally sensitive and to vary across national borders whereas others such as manpower planning and reward systems were not (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2). Moreover, in other recent studies (Lawler et al., 1995; Budhwar and Sparrow, 1997), company size and ownership pattern (along with other contingent and non-contingent variables) were suggested to have some influences upon HRM policies and practices. Therefore, a second group of related objectives of this research is to examine the strategic aspect of HRM, the extent to which responsibility for HRM is devolved to line management, and whether recruitment and selection processes, methods, and techniques in Taiwan vary with company size and ownership pattern.

Based upon the issues addressed above, nine hypotheses (H_1 to H_9) that related to HRM and recruitment and selection have been devised.

H_1 The perceived importance of having HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_2 The perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_3 There would be a decentralization of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management.

H4   Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H5   Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with company size.

H6   Recruitment methods would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H7   Recruitment methods would vary significantly with company size.

H8   Selection techniques would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H9   Selection techniques would vary significantly with company size.

2. Work-Related Values of National Culture

It should be noted here that it is not the aim of this study to replicate Hofstede's work by comparing the work-related values of the matched respondents from different national cultural contexts or different ethnic groups. Rather, this research (the third objective) seeks to examine Hofstede's value based dimensions of national culture, consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan, and establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices. As indicated earlier, some recent studies suggest that some elements of HRM are culturally sensitive; and recruitment and selection appear to be one of those (Easterby Smith et al., 1995; Lawler et al., 1995).

As is mentioned in Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.6, Hofstede's most famous cross-cultural study of work-related values was conducted during the 1960s and 1970s and his original findings for Taiwan indicated that the culture of Taiwan tended to exhibit relatively high levels of Collectivism and moderately high ratings on the Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Femininity dimensions. However, over the last four decades, Taiwan has been constantly

affected by the process of industrialization (e.g., from agricultural sector to industrial and service sectors) and may be to some degrees influenced by globalization and MNCs operating in Taiwan (see Chapter 1, Section 1.2). It has been suggested that, as countries are industrialized and modernized and as they become wealthier, there may be a tendency towards a convergence of management and individuals' work-related values and attitudes (Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Steward, 1991; Paik and Teagarden, 1995; Wasti, 1998). If this is the case, younger generations of Taiwanese people influenced by western media and education are more likely to be aware of and to have absorbed western ideas and values. There is also evidence that western management techniques (including those regarding HRM, recruitment and selection) have been adopted by various sectors of industry in Taiwan and are taught at universities/colleges (see Chapter 1, Section 1.6). It might therefore be anticipated that, at the organizational setting, some of the work-related values held by Taiwanese employees might have changed during the process of modernization and might not now be the same as Hofstede found two decades ago. Based upon the issues above, this research attempts to update Hofstede's index scores for Taiwan on the key cultural dimensions. A main weakness of Paik and Teagarden (1995) and Wasti's (1998) studies is that they used Hofstede's framework to compare socio-cultural differences in different countries with respect to HRM practices, but they have not sought to update Hofstede's findings in respect of the countries they investigated and they have therefore tended to ignore the dynamic nature of culture (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2).

Another reason for re-examining Hofstede's cultural dimensions in Taiwan is that his respondents only worked within a single computer industry and a single

multinational (IBM), thus, it can be argued that the values of IBM employees (white collar people) may not be typical of the values of all the members in the Taiwanese society, and that the American-owned IBM corporation may not be taken as representative of the various sectors of industry in Taiwan (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6). Unlike Hofstede's study, this research focuses on the work-related values of non-managerial employees of organizations engaged in manufacturing activity in Taiwan; and IBM is also included in the survey (see section 5.5.1 for further details).

As is indicated in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2, culture is an accumulative experience of various individuals who share common values, beliefs, and ideas. Nonetheless, sub-cultural distinctions or variations may still exist within the same national cultural, political, legal, and geographical context (in this case Taiwan). It has been argued that cultural variables such as a person's age, gender, social class, beliefs, education, wealth, and occupation, etc. would influence people's values and attitudes (Rokeach, 1979; Triandis, 1982, 1983; Tayeb, 1988, 1994). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) also comment that individuals in the same culture do not necessarily behave according to the cultural norms, and that individual personality, gender, and ethnicity mediate in each cultural system. Therefore, it could also be expected that not all people in an organization would think and behave exactly in the same way or hold the same values and attitudes due to differences in occupation, education level, gender, age, religions, life style, job position/status, organization size and structure, the sector of industry, and ownership pattern, etc. (Handy, 1993; Deresky, 1997). It seems that Hofstede prefers to hold sub-cultural and non-cultural variables constant.

Moreover, as is described in Chapter 4, Section 4.4, Hofstede (1991) indicates that certain values on the long-term orientation pole of the Confucian Dynamism (e.g., perseverance and thrift) tend to be strongly correlated with East Asian economic growth, at least for the period of 1965-1987. Clegg (1990) also suggests that East Asian economic achievement could be said to be attributable to deep-seated and culturally given social facts and values (e.g., industry, harmony, loyalty, co-operation, trust, and perseverance, etc.). Since there is arguably a correlation between traditional Chinese work-related values and economic growth, it may be reasonable to assume that such values mentioned above may be important in contributing to organizational success (in terms of survival in a dynamic and competitive business environment).

According to the issues discussed above, eight hypotheses (H_{10} to H_{17}) concerned with work-related values of national culture have been developed.

H_{10} The value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would not be the same as Hofstede previously found.

H_{11} The traditional Chinese/Confucian work-related values, as perceived by HR managers and non-managerial employees, would be important in contributing to organizational success.

H_{12} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{13} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with company size.

H_{14} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with gender.

H_{15} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related

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values would vary significantly with age.

H₁₆   Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with educational level.

H₁₇   HR managers and non-managerial employees would differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of work-related values.

Methodology

The samples for this research primarily focused on manufacturing industry in Taiwan due to its remarkable contributions to the economic growth over the last decades (see Chapter 1, Section 1.2). The postal questionnaire was chosen for data collection because of the samples' dispersion geographically and limitations of time and financial resources. The 500 manufacturing companies (sample size in this study) randomly selected from the Taiwan Trade Yellow Pages were sent two questionnaire each - HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) and work-related values of national culture. These two questionnaires were designed with different respondents in mind. The questionnaire on HRMRS (see Appendix A) is adapted from the *"Price Waterhouse Cranfield Survey"* questionnaire designed by Brewster et al. (1992) and is specifically for Taiwanese Personnel/HR manager to answer. The questionnaire on work-related values of national culture (see Appendix B) is adapted from the *"Values Survey Module"* questionnaire designed by Hofstede (1980) and is particularly for Taiwanese non-managerial employee to answer.

The reasons for adapting Brewster et al. and Hofstede's questionnaires are that: (1) they are the leading European authorities who specialize in the field of human resource management and national cultural differences respectively; (2)

Brewster et al.'s questionnaire on HRM incorporates a range of HRM issues, for example, recruitment and selection policies and practices, which are relevant to this research, hence their questionnaire is very helpful in this respect; and (3) since the third objective of this research is to examine Hofstede's value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan and establish what are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices, it may be advisable to make use of his questionnaire.

The empirical study was conducted in Taiwan in July, 1996. Both questionnaires were written in English and in order to facilitate the understanding of Taiwanese respondents, the English versions of the two questionnaires were translated into the Chinese versions (see Appendices A₁ and B₁). The translation work was carried out by the researcher herself, with the help of a group of Taiwanese HR specialists (see Chapter 5, Section 5.3.8). These HR specialists were requested to check the linguistic and content validity of the English and Chinese versions. They all agreed that the question items in the HRMRS and national culture questionnaires were relevant to the overall objectives of this research and commented that the questions items would elicit answers that could provide the necessary data for hypotheses testing.

To increase the response rate of this research, the follow-up letter was sent to the companies which did not respond to the initial mailing. The follow-up letter was similar to that of the covering letter with the addition of a short paragraph emphasizing the importance of their participation in ensuring the success of the research project. Also, a number of appropriate statistical techniques such as one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), two-way ANOVA, Duncan test, and the *t*-test were employed in this research to test the research hypotheses that related to the

studies of HRMRS and work-related values of national culture (see Chapter 6, Section 5.6).

Results

Response Rate and Reliability Analysis

The overall response rate for the two respective studies was 36 per cent, which could be considered as reasonable since the response rate for both studies appears to meet the criteria made by Black and Champion (1976) and Moser and Kalton (1985) (see Chapter 6, Section 6.1.1). The internal consistency reliability was used to test the 180 responses of HRMRS and 180 responses of work-related values of national culture. The results of reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha for the HRMRS questionnaire was 0.83 and for the work-related values of national culture questionnaire was 0.90. According to Sekaran (1992), a value of 0.60 or more is generally taken as representing acceptable reliability.

Characteristics of Sample

Based upon number of employees hired, company size was categorized into three main groups: small, medium-sized, and large businesses. Ownership pattern was also classified into three groups: Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned, or family-owned, non family-owned, and foreign-owned companies. Table 6.2 illustrates that most of the responding companies in Taiwan (65%) were small and medium sized. Of the 180 responding companies that returned the questionnaires, 140 (77.8%) were Taiwanese-owned, 18 (10%) were Japanese-owned, and 22 (12.2%) were western-owned companies. Of these 140 Taiwanese-owned companies, 91 (65%) were family-owned and 49 (35%) were non family-

owned businesses (see Chapter 6, Table 6.3(a)). Since Table 6.3(b) shows that, of the 91 Taiwanese family-owned companies, 61 (67%) were small and medium scale, it could be anticipated that family-owned businesses are one of the major organization forms in Taiwan and most of them are small to medium in size. Further, a profile of respondents, HR managers and non-managerial employees (in terms of their sex, age, and educational attainment), was summarized respectively in Tables 6.4 and 7.2.

Findings

1. HRM and Recruitment and Selection

The research results indicated that, in the majority of the responding firms, there was an HR manager/department (73%). Irrespective of firm size and ownership pattern, the majority of HR managers (71% and 88%) felt it was important that there was an HR specialist on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy, and that HR policy and corporate strategy were fully integrated. Given such results, the study thus found no support for the alternative hypotheses H_1 and H_2 (see earlier section). However, when asked whether there were written statements of corporate strategy and HR policy, only about 30 per cent of the HR managers said there were. A further 30 per cent affirmed that there were unwritten corporate strategy and HR policy.

It should be noted that this research is not able to provide empirical evidence concerning how many responding firms do have personnel/HR representation at board level and whether those Personnel/HR managers who do have a place on the board are actually involved in the development of corporate strategy from the outset, or whether they are involved in a consultative capacity or

perhaps at the implementation stage. In future years, it may be possible to tell from further research whether there is an increasingly strategic role for the personnel function and whether this is combined with a greater integration of personnel policies with business objectives.

This study also acknowledges that although most HR managers in the survey may find 'strategic integration' important, in practice it may be very difficult for them to achieve without having the formalized and explicit corporate strategy and HRM policy (in terms of a written form) to refer to on the board. As noted earlier, only about 30 per cent of the responding companies in Taiwan claimed to have a written corporate strategy and HRM policy.

Responsibility for HRM Functions/Activities

In the majority of the areas of HR activity included in the survey, HR managers indicated that they shared responsibility with line management rather than having sole responsibility. The area in which they seem to have the greater incidence of sole responsibility being "health and safety". The results also showed very few instances of sole line responsibility for these HRM functions. However, line involvement seems to be stronger in the areas of "recruitment and selection", "training and development", and "workforce expansion/reduction". Line managers also seem to have a particularly significant role in final hiring decisions. Given these results, this study supports Hypothesis H_3 that there are some substantial decentralized responsibilities for HRM functions/activities to line management.

When it actually comes down to making the selection decisions, one would expect line managers to be involved and to have a greater say in that decision than HR managers/specialists especially given that the prospective employees would

eventually work for the line managers in their departments. To some extent, these responses may give an indication of line management preferences as well as HR managers' preferences for involvement in these HRM functions/activities. These responses may also indicate differences in the locus of responsibility for individual and collective issues and those areas in which decision-making may be both appropriately decentralized.

Recruitment and Selection Practices

The empirical results showed that recruitment is the only item that varied with firm size. Large companies tend to consider recruitment to be more important than do small and medium-sized companies (see Chapter 6, Table 6.10(b)). The rest of the stages in the recruitment and selection processes appear not to vary significantly with ownership pattern and company size. Hence, the findings support the alternative hypothesis H5, but reject H6.

Recruitment Methods

The research results showed that a range of recruitment methods shown in Table 6.12(a) have all been used to varying degrees by the responding firms in Taiwan for filling vacancies at the managerial, professional, and entry levels. When it comes to the managerial and professional recruitment, the responding firms in Taiwan appear to use "promotion-from-within", "transfers", "advertisement in the media", "job rotations", and "direct applications" more frequently. Other methods such as "employee referrals", "colleges/universities", "private employment agencies", "public employment agencies", "recruitment consultants", and "executive search consultants" are seldom used by the firms for managerial and

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professional positions. For the entry-level recruitment, "colleges/universities" and "employees referrals" seem to be used more frequently by the responding firms along with other methods such as "advertisement in the media", "direct applications", "transfers", and "job rotations". In the family-based culture like Taiwan, one could expect that "employees referrals" (the hiring of family members, relatives, or close friends) would be a common method for the recruitment of entry-level employees.

Recruitment Methods by Ownership Pattern and Company Size

Table 6.12(b) showed that while western-owned companies in Taiwan appear to use "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" more frequently than do Japanese-owned and Taiwanese-owned companies for managerial and professional vacancies, Japanese-owned companies seem to recruit new graduates directly from "colleges/universities" more often than do Taiwanese-owned and western-owned companies for entry-level openings (see the significant levels in Table 6.12(b)). These results may be indicative of support for the culturally relativist arguments that recruitment practices are culturally sensitive across national boundaries and that the results are consistent with the findings of Easterby-Smith et al. (1995) and Lawler et al. (1995) (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2). Moreover, since the empirical evidence supports the alternative hypothesis H_6 that ownership pattern has significant effects upon some of the recruitment methods, models of recruitment methods in Taiwan can then be proposed according to the pattern of ownership and the frequency level as Figures 6.1 to 6.3 illustrate.

Based on the certain types of recruitment method used by the Japanese-owned and western-owned companies, it could be inferred that these foreign subsidiaries in Taiwan tend to adopt Perlmutter's (1969) ethnocentric approach to management, particularly with regard to recruitment practices (these are reflective of home country practices).

In addition to ownership pattern, recruitment methods also vary with company size, hence the alternative hypothesis H7 is accepted. Table 6.12(c) showed that medium-sized firms tend to use "direct applications" more frequently than do small firms for entry-level recruitment (see the significant levels). Large companies tend to use "transfers", "job rotations", and "employee referrals" more frequently than do small and medium-sized companies for managerial, professional, and entry-level posts (also see the significant levels in Table 6.12(c)). As compared with small firms, "promotion-from-within", the internal recruitment method, is also used more often by large firms for filling vacancies at managerial and professional levels. This may be a reflection of the respective size of internal labour markets and that a greater variety of recruitment methods are used by larger organizations.

Other Practices Associated with Recruitment

The research results showed that "technical competence", "leadership", and "past performance" based promotion tend to be considered by HR managers of the responding firms as important. "Loyalty" and "sociability" are perceived as moderately important. "Seniority" is found to be the last important. The greater emphasis on "technical competence", "performance", and "leadership" and less emphasis on "loyalty" and "sociability" based promotion may be an indication of

culture change or changes of work-related values of Taiwanese people within the society in the past two decades when compared to Hofstede's findings (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3).

Among the factors that may facilitate recruitment efforts, "marketing the company's image" tends to be considered by HR managers of the responding firms as most important. Factors like "training for new employees" and "retraining existing employees" are perceived as moderately important. There may be a relationship between the findings above and the findings on culture, for example, a relationship between status/reputation of the company and own status and self-esteem; and training and retraining practices may be a reflection of long-term values with respect to Confucian Dynamism.

The research results showed that "people with work experience" tend to be targeted most frequently, and that "friends and relatives" are also commonly targeted in recruitment. It could be expected that, in the Confucian culture an emphasis on family traditions, the hiring of friends, relatives, and family members (in-groups) would be a common recruitment practice within the organizations (see Chapter 1, Section 1.7).

Selection Techniques

Like the recruitment methods, a range of selection techniques identified in Table 6.13(a) have also been used to varying degrees by the responding firms in Taiwan. It appears that "application forms", "one-to-one interviews", "skill or knowledge tests", and "panel interviews" are the dominant selection techniques that the responding firms used at all levels (managerial, professional, and entry). Other techniques such as "medical examinations", "aptitude tests", and "references" are

seldom used by the responding firms. "Psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" seem to be used least at all levels. It may not be surprising to see such results because "psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" are the western-oriented selection techniques and hence may not be used as commonly in Taiwan as in the USA and/or in Europe. In this respect, selection practices might be culturally sensitive.

Selection Techniques by Ownership Pattern and Company Size

The research results do not provide statistically significant support for the alternative hypothesis H_8 because the selection techniques listed in Table 6.13(b) do not vary significantly with ownership pattern. Nevertheless, models of selection techniques in Taiwan can still be developed according to the type of selection techniques being commonly used by the respective Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned companies (see Figures 6.7 to 6.9). As is shown in Figures 6.7, 6.8, and 6.9, "application forms", "skill or knowledge tests", and "one-to-one interviews" appear to be the common selection techniques used by Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned companies. "Panel interviews" is used more frequently by Taiwanese-owned and western companies. "Medical examination" is used more often by western-owned companies. It appears that western-owned companies in Taiwan tend to use more variety of selection techniques than do Taiwanese-owned and Japanese-owned companies (see Figure 6.9).

Unlike ownership pattern, company size has significant effects on some of the selection techniques that the responding firms used, therefore the alternative hypothesis H_9 is accepted. As Table 6.13(c) shows, both medium-sized and large

firms appear to use "aptitude tests", "psychometric tests", and "skill or knowledge tests" more frequently than do small firms for managerial or professional selection. Large firms also use "panel interviews", "assessment centres", and "medical examinations" more often to select the potential applicants at all levels than do small firms. The findings above suggest that the number and type of selection techniques that the responding companies used to select the right employees for the jobs may be associated with firm size; and this is confirmed by the significant levels as Table 6.13(c) illustrates. The findings above also enable this study to propose some appropriate models of selection techniques in Taiwan according to size variation and the frequency level (see Figures 6.10, 6.11, and 6.12).

On the whole, the research results discussed so far demonstrated that a range of recruitment methods and selection techniques (the main area of focus) identified in this study have all been used by the survey firms in Taiwan to varying degrees, and that recruitment methods varied significantly with ownership pattern and selection techniques did not. However, the Japanese-owned companies' more frequent hiring of graduates directly from "universities/colleges" and western-owned companies' more use of "recruitment consultants", "executive search consults", "psychometric tests", and "assessment centres" suggest that recruitment and selection practices may be culturally sensitive. Therefore, the research findings provide some support for the culturally relativist view of HRM particularly in the area of recruitment and selection. In addition to ownership pattern, company size also has significant effects upon some of the recruitment methods and selection techniques used. It could be anticipated that, as the company expands or grows bigger, the more variety of recruitment methods and selection techniques that the company is likely to use. The main contribution of this study is that the findings

above enable the development of appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques in Taiwan on the basis of ownership pattern and firm size. These models could be used as a base for further international and comparative studies.

2. Work-Related Values of National Culture

Power Distance and Leadership Style

The research results showed a moderately high score on the Power Distance dimension. Most of the Taiwanese non-managerial employees (69 per cent) indicated that they would prefer to work for managers with either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style. This means that, some Taiwanese non-managerial employees prefer managers to make major decisions, assign tasks, and solve problems for them, whereas others expect and/or prefer to be consulted by their superiors in most decisions.

From the subordinates' perspective, about 64 per cent of their current superiors tend to adopt either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style and there would therefore appear to be considerable consistency between the style that employees preferred and the approach that they say their current superiors adopt. Given the moderately high Power Distance Index scores, it may not be surprising to see that some Taiwanese managers would make the decisions very quickly without consulting with their subordinates while some would consult with their subordinates before they make the decisions.

Uncertainty Avoidance and Security of Employment

The empirical results showed a moderately high score on the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension and since this indicates a moderate desire to avoid uncertainty, it could be expected that most of the Taiwanese non-managerial employees would stay longer in the same business. As the results have demonstrated, 63 per cent of employees asserted that they would either intend to work for the same company for more than 5 years or would like to or prefer to remain in the same company until their retirement. When choosing an ideal job, Taiwanese employees generally consider "security of employment" as an important work goal. While this is probably consistent with Confucian traditions, it seems also possible that it is a reflection of Taiwan's economic slow-down in recent years (see Chapter 1, Section 1.3).

Individualism vs. Collectivism and Femininity vs. Masculinity

The research results showed that the culture of Taiwan now exhibits high levels of Individualism and Masculinity. Compared with Hofstede's original findings for Taiwan, it appears that there has been a significant shift in these two value dimensions - from Collectivism to Individualism and from Femininity to Masculinity.

Such a shift in values can be seen from the research evidence. Taiwanese non-managerial employees consider "get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job", "have sufficient time for your personal or family life", "freedom to adopt your own approach", "challenging tasks", "opportunities for high earnings", and "opportunities for job advancement" as important work goals. "Self-

advancement/initiative" and "competitiveness" have also been considered as important work values that may contribute to organizational success (in terms of survival in a competitive and dynamic business environment). The findings above imply that Taiwanese employees in some respects have become more individualistic and masculine in their orientations than was the case two decades ago.

Nevertheless, the evidence also showed that the characteristics which are associated with of Collectivism and Femininity are still appreciated by Taiwanese employees. For example, they still regard "have good working conditions", "have good relationships with your superior", "live in a desirable area" as important. This suggests that employees still have concern for the quality of life and the work environment and place an emphasis on friendliness and personal relationships.

However, a closer examination of the degree of perceived importance of these values indicates that Taiwanese employees tend to place more emphasis on the work values (e.g., self-actualization) that are commonly accepted and prevalent in Individualist and Masculine cultures like the USA, Great Britain, and Australia, etc.. There are a range of possible explanations for such apparent cultural change:

1. the process of modernization in Taiwan;

2. the influences of foreign direct investment (FDI) from e.g., the USA and/or Europe;

3. domestic organization's engagement in joint ventures with foreign multinational companies;

4. the prevailing western management theories, practices, and techniques (e.g., HRM), many of which have been applied and adopted by the local and foreign-owned companies and are taught in universities and colleges in Taiwan;

5. the prevalence of western media in Taiwan;

6. the academic exchange activities (including exchange students) arranged by universities and colleges in Taiwan and in the USA and/or in the UK;

7. the opportunities of travelling and receiving further education abroad, particularly in the West.

8. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) in their model of "clustering countries on attitudinal dimensions" suggest or hypothesize that as countries become wealthier, there may be a tendency for a convergence of culture. The high Masculinity Index scores uncovered by this research may indicate trends in Taiwan consistent with Ronen and Shenkar's hypothesis. Taiwan has become wealthier (see Chapter 1) and now employees demonstrate scores on the Masculinity dimension which are much closer to those Hofstede found in countries such as Japan, UK, USA, and France, etc..

The points outlined above may be the possible explanations for Taiwanese employees' growing awareness of the western values and for the cultural change in Taiwan (in terms of individuals' work-related values). The current study has not examined these points, yet further research may usefully examine some of them and interrelationships between them and work-related values.

The combination of the moderately high ratings on Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance and relatively high levels of Individualism and Masculinity provides support for the alternative hypothesis H_{10} that 'the value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would not be the same as Hofstede previously found'.

Traditional Chinese/Confucian Work-Related Values

In the case of the hypothesis H11, the research results showed that Taiwanese non-managerial employees and HR managers/specialists generally appreciate the importance of "harmonious" and "co-operative" working relationships with other people in their organizations and regard "industry", "loyalty", "caring and nurturing", "trust", and "perseverance" as important work values that may contribute to organizational success. This may be a reflection of a continuing influence from the traditional Chinese culture or Confucian ideology. It appears that these traditional Chinese work-related values are still emphasized by Taiwanese people. This may be due to the fact that these values are so deeply rooted in them as part of their distinctive cultural identity that these values are not likely to be totally diminished no matter what types and forms of organization that they choose to work for (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.3).

The Effects of Ownership Pattern, Company Size, Gender, Age, and Educational Level on Work-Related Values

The research results showed that company size and ownership pattern, and gender, age, and educational level have significant effects upon some of the perceived importance of work-related values and thus provide support for the alternative hypotheses H12, H13, H14, H15, and H16. Given such results, it could be argued that Taiwanese employees do hold the work-related values differently according to these organizational and demographic variables.

As the findings illustrate, Taiwanese non-managerial employees in large and medium-sized firms tend to consider "challenging tasks", "time for personal or

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family life", "initiative", "competitiveness", "co-operation", "harmony", "caring and nurturing", "perseverance", and "trust" to be more important than do employees in small firms. Employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" to be more important than do employees in foreign-owned companies. It perhaps is to be expected that this Confucian value emphasized upon unequal relationship pairs (e.g., superiors and subordinates) may still be prevailing among Taiwanese-owned companies, and that employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies may be more likely to expect and accept the power being distributed unequally than those employees in foreign-owned companies.

The results also showed that male employees in Taiwan tend to view "challenging tasks", "opportunity for advancement", "industry", and "caring and nurturing" to be more important than do female employees. This seems to suggest that male employees are more ambitious in their work, have more desire to succeed and strive for advancement as compared with female employees, even though at the same time they still appreciate the importance of work values which are associated with the characteristics of Femininity more than female employees.

Furthermore, a closer examination of the 'age' variable among Taiwanese non-managerial employees suggests that the older the employees are, the less they consider both western and Chinese values as important. Take the Chinese work values, "perseverance" and "co-operation", and western work values, "opportunities for higher earnings and advancement", as examples. Employees who are aged between 50 to 59 tend to appreciate these Chinese and western values less as compared with the other three age groups of employees. This may be

due to the fact that this group of employees is approaching the stage of retirement and thus is less concerned with the importance of the work values.

Employees who are aged between 40 to 49 generally consider both Chinese and western values as important. However, those Chinese and western work values tend to be perceived as the most important by employees who are aged between 20-29 and 30-39 when compared with the previous two age groups. This may be due to the fact that these employees who are aged from 20 to 39 are just at the threshold of their long career life with lots of potential to offer and hence may be more ambitious in their work and more concerned with high earnings and advancement/promotion while at the same time still possess the traditional Chinese work-related values (e.g., perseverance and co-operation) and carry them into the workplace.

In addition, employees who received diploma (junior colleges) or first/masters degree tend to see "security of employment", "co-operation", "loyalty", and "industry" to be less important than do employees who were graduated from high school or vocational high school. This seems to imply that people who have received higher education in Taiwan or have absorbed western media and management (e.g., HRM or motivation theory) are more likely to de-emphasize these Chinese work values (although these values, on average, are still considered by these employees as important). However, the findings may warrant further investigation.

Different Perceptions of the Importance of Work-Related Values
In addition to company size and ownership pattern, and gender, age, and educational level, job position also has some influences on the perceived

importance of work-related values. Therefore, the research results support the alternative hypothesis H17 that HR managers and non-managerial employees have different perceptions of the importance of work values.

As the evidence has shown, HR managers tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" (e.g., employer and employee) to be more important than do ordinary employees. This suggests that the Confucian value emphasized on unequal relationship pairs may be associated with job position. Given the moderately high Power Distance Index scores, it seems likely that Taiwanese HR managers may consider themselves and subordinates as existentially unequal and thus may tend to more appreciate special privileges and status symbols than do ordinary employees.

In summary, the results of the present study showed that, compared to Hofstede's findings for Taiwan, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance dimensions have not changed dramatically since the 1970s. However, there has been a significant shift in values from Collectivism to Individualism and from Femininity to Masculinity. In particular, the findings give a considerable emphasis upon self-actualization and recognition, job advancement, and high earnings, etc., which are the western work values commonly accepted in the USA and/or in UK. This implies that there may have a cultural change or change of work-related values of Taiwanese people within the society in the last two decades. The current findings provide support for the argument that there is a need to 'update' Hofstede's analysis for Taiwan on his key cultural dimensions.

Nonetheless, the traditional Chinese work values such as co-operation, trust, harmony, industry, and perseverance, etc. have still been appreciated and perceived as important by both Taiwanese HR managers and ordinary employees.

This may be a reflection of a continuing influence from the traditional Chinese culture or Confucian ideology. The findings also support the views of a group of researchers (Rokeach, 1979; Handy, 1993; Deresky, 1997) that work-related values that individuals held would be influenced by organizational (in this case, ownership pattern and company size) and demographic (respondents' gender, age, educational level, and job position/status) variables and therefore should take them into consideration rather than simply ignore them.

Conclusions and Implications

The findings related to HRM and recruitment and selection as well as work-related values of national culture enable the study to draw some appropriate conclusions and establish the implications for both HRM theory and practice.

1. HRM and Recruitment and Selection

Strategic Approach to HRM

The results of the present survey showed that HR managers of the responding firms in Taiwan generally felt that it is important to have HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy and that it is important to fully integrate the HRM policy with the corporate strategy. As is indicated in Chapter 2, Sections 2.4 and 2.6, at the conceptual or theoretical level, HRM tends to be seen as a strategic approach because it focuses on the importance of 'strategic integration (or fit)', where HR polices and practices are closely linked to the strategic objectives of the firms (external integration/fit) and are coherent and consistent among themselves (internal integration/fit) (Guest, 1989; Brewster and Bournois, 1991; Storey, 1992; Armstrong, 1992; Legge, 1989, 1995).

According to Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988), the integration of HRM with business strategy has four advantages: (1) it provides a broader range of solutions for solving complex organizational problems; (2) it ensures that human, financial, and technological resources are given consideration in setting goals and assessing implementation capabilities; (3) organizations explicitly consider the individuals who comprise them and who implement polices; and it ensures that human resource considerations contribute to, rather than are subordinate to, strategic decisions. In response of Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall's last point, Legge (1995) also makes a similar comment that HRM policies should not passively integrated with business strategy, in the sense of flowing from it, but should be seen as an integral part of strategy, in the sense that they underlie and facilitate the pursuit of a desired strategy.

This however seems to stand in opposition to the view generally held by a group of researchers that HRM should in some sense 'follow' corporate or business strategy (Devenna, et al., 1982, 1984; Ackermann, 1986; Miller, 1987). For example, as Devenna et al. note, "...human resource management has been largely missing from the general strategic management process...the critical managerial task is to align the formal structure and the HR systems so that they drive the strategic objectives of the organization" (1982: 47) (see the matching model in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.4). Purcell and Ahlstrand (1994) also argue that HRM policies are not developed and implemented independently of corporate strategy. Rather, they constitute 'third-order' decisions that follow from decisions on strategy (first-order) and structure (second-order), and should be closely linked to them. This implies that HRM is the dependent variable and the corporate strategy the independent variable in this relationship. The underlying assumption

of this view is that HRM in some sense becomes strategic only when it follows closely the corporate strategy.

However, in the context of the present findings and as far as 'strategic integration' is concerned, it would appear that HR managers of the responding firms in Taiwan would prefer or desire a tight fit between HRM policy and corporate strategy, although this research is not able to produce empirical evidence on the extent to which strategic integration taken place.

Responsibilities of Line Management

In the majority of the areas of HR activity included in the survey, HR managers indicated that they shared responsibility with line management rather than having sole responsibility. The area in which they seem to have the greater incidence of sole responsibility being "health and safety". Line involvement seems to be stronger in the areas of "recruitment and selection", "training and development", and "workforce expansion/reduction". Line managers also appear to have a particularly significant role in "final hiring decisions". The findings to some extent appear to be consistent with the point made by Armstrong (1992) who emphasizes that the performance and delivery of HRM is a management responsibility, shared among line (operational) managers and those responsible for running service or staff (related) functions (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2).

The decentralization of responsibilities to the line has also been viewed by a group of researchers (Krulis-Randa, 1990; Sisson, 1990; Kirkpatrick et al., 1992; Armstrong, 1992; Legge, 1989, 1995) as one of the key characteristics of HRM that differs from conventional personnel management (see Chapter 2, Sections 2.3 and 2.4). Given the results presented earlier, it could be argued that line managers

in the survey firms indeed have some substantial responsibilities for HR issues, particularly in the areas of recruitment and selection, training and development, and workforce expansion/reduction.

Contributions of Personnel/HR Managers to the Organizations

The research results showed that around 73 per cent of the responding firms in Taiwan have a Personnel/HR management department/manager to deal with Personnel functions. However, only 33 per cent of the responding firms have a written HRM policy, with 59 per cent of companies claiming to have an unwritten HRM policy or have no HRM policy at all. The implication of the findings for practice is that Personnel/HR managers who would like to make positive contributions to their organizational performance could help to formulate *written* HR policies and practices, according to their firms' overall organizational objectives and business plans.

However, in some cases, for example, in smaller firms, there may not be much of a need for formalized and detailed HRM policies due to the simple nature of tasks and limited organizational functions. But in large companies, there usually involves high structuring of organizational activities and complex tasks. In order to ensure the proper accomplishment of tasks, it may be important to establish formal rules and procedures, as well as explicit HRM policies and practices, so that they can be communicated to employees at all levels and followed by them.

The Proactive and Strategic Role of HR Managers

As the research evidence has shown, HR managers of the responding firms felt that it is important to have HR managers on the board participating in the

development of corporate strategy, and that it is important to fully integrate HRM policy with corporate strategy. If HR managers in these responding firms would like to pursue and achieve 'strategic integration', they may need to play a proactive role by being members of the senior management team and by participating in the development of corporate/business strategy. It has been suggested that, only by being involved at this stage, HR managers would be in a much better position to develop an effective HR strategy which could integrate with the business strategy and to institute coherent and consistent HRM policies which could directly support the achievement of strategic goals (Armstrong, 1992).

Recruitment Practices

The research results showed that internal recruitment methods such as "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" are commonly used by the responding firms in Taiwan. The implication for practice is that the good use of the internal recruitment methods may not only motivate current Taiwanese employees to perform better and increase their commitment toward the organization, but may also improve their job security through upward or lateral career opportunities (potentially desired HRM outcomes). Using internal personnel sources effectively may also allow management to observe and assess the abilities of employees accurately given the accrued knowledge gathered over the employment relationship (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.1).

Although the findings showed that "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" (the external recruitment methods) have not yet been commonly used in Taiwan, a small number of the survey firms (including local, Japanese-owned, and western-owned) are turning to such firms to look for

potential candidates with specialist knowledge, technical, or managerial skills for the most senior posts. As an HR manager/specialist, it may be important to bear in mind that using a search firm to recruit a senior executive or a manager with rare technical or managerial skills should be considered as important as planning the career development of a company's existing high-potential managers and should be handled with the same careful planning and attention to detail (Adshead, 1990). While the search firm is assisting with recruitment, the HR manager may need to retain responsibility and accountability for the overall success of the service. This means that he or she should be able to act as the in-company project manager monitoring and guiding the work of the consultant at every stage of the assignment. The combination of a well-connected and professional search consultant working closely with an involved and fully accountable company HR manager may minimize the risk of failure and achieve the desired results (Adshead, 1990).

Selection Practices

Among the selection techniques, the research evidence showed that "application forms", "knowledge or skill tests", and "one-to-one and panel interviews" appear to be used most frequently by the survey firms in Taiwan. "Psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" seem to be used least. This may be because such western-oriented selection instruments are still new to local Taiwanese firms and hence may not be used as widely in Taiwan as in the USA and/or in Europe. It should be noted that although the use of a psychological or psychometric test may have a positive effect on an organizational effectiveness (e.g., reduce employee turnover rates), this technique can be quite costly if the organization (e.g., small firm) does

not have trained and qualified staff and require the help of professional psychologists from outside of the firm to administer and interpret the test results.

Personnel/HR managers should recognize that the types of selection technique they utilized to select the right employees for the jobs are critical to their firms' success. Because the misuse of any kinds of instrument may be costly to the organization and may also consequently be demoralizing to the employee who may find himself or herself in the wrong job and de-motivating to the rest of the workforce (undesired HRM outcomes) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.10). Further, when making the final hiring or selection decisions, HR managers/specialists in Taiwan should look for potential candidates whose qualifications, characteristics, and work-related values and attitudes most closely conform to the requirements of the open positions and who can fit well with the organization's current needs and culture, and can effectively carry out required tasks and collaborate well with other colleagues.

On the whole, HR managers/specialists need to ensure that the type of recruitment and selection practices they adopted is coherent and consistent with their firms' business strategies and with other associated functions of HRM such as HR planning, training and development, pay and benefits, etc.. In other words, recruitment and selection need to be considered as an integrated process rather than a marginal, *ad hoc* activity. Since recruitment and selection are the first stages of a dialogue between applicants and the organization that form the employment relationship, HR managers/specialists in Taiwan may need to realize the importance of the formation of expectations during the recruitment and selection processes. If they fail to do so, it may result in the loss of high quality applicants and set the initial level of the employment relationship at such a low level as to

make the achievement of potentially desired HRM outcomes (e.g., increasing employee performance and commitment, etc.) most difficult (Gold, 1994).

2. Work-Related Values of National Culture

As is indicated in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1, the index scores obtained in this study showed that the culture of Taiwan now demonstrates moderately high ratings on the Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance and high ratings on the Individualism and Masculinity dimensions. This combination of scores has a number of potentially important implications for motivation, job design, leadership style, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices, which are discussed in the following.

Power Distance

Hofstede suggests that the Power Distance dimension has implications for leadership style (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3). Given a moderately high Power Distance Index score in Taiwan, it could be expected that most of the non-managerial employees would prefer to work for managers with either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style. The results also showed that, in subordinates' eyes, most of their current superiors tend to adopt either a consultative or paternalist type of leadership style.

The implication of the findings may be that, in the areas of recruiting and hiring for a managerial position, the candidate who most closely matches the paternalist or consultative type of leadership style should be selected and hired if companies seek to match employee preference and management style. Moreover, since the findings imply that Taiwanese employees tend to be motivated by seeking

self-actualization (given the high scores on Individualism and Masculinity indices), managers who adopt a consultative or democratic leadership style might be more willing to get them involved in making decisions about their own work and have the responsibility to do so. Tayeb (1996) suggests that this type of management style can allow employees further down the hierarchy to express their views and to respond quickly to the events or react to customer needs if need be without having to refer matters to the managers higher up.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Given the moderately high scores on Uncertainty Avoidance, it could be anticipated that most of the non-managerial employees in Taiwan would have a desire for long careers in the same business and regard "security of employment" as an important work goal. The implication of the findings may be that HR managers/specialists in Taiwan can put the focus on the internal labour market by using "promotion-from-within", the internal recruiting method, more effectively to increase employee job security. Examination of the findings from the two studies suggests that the use of "promotion-from-within" appears to be consistent with the wishes and values of employees, who have indicated in the study concerning culture, that work-related values such as "opportunities for job advancement", "high earnings", and "security of employment" are important to them.

Furthermore, to minimize uncertainty, ambiguity, and/or anxiety in the moderately strong Uncertainty Avoidance work environment in Taiwan, there should be an emphasis on experts and expertise; and organizations can establish a formal organizational structure and detailed rules and procedures, which may include the following activities:

- developing explicit employment or personnel/HR policies (in a written form);

- designing job descriptions and specifications according to HR planning and job analysis;

- establishing a set of explicit criteria for promotion, selection, and job evaluation;

- developing open communication channels, and

- clearly defining the authority and duty for every post within the organization so that each individual can be rewarded in proportion to their contribution to the organization.

Hwang (1990) and Chen (1995) suggest that only in an institutionalized organization with a clear-cut organizational structure and with explicit regulations and rules would professionals and ordinary employees be able to identify themselves with the company and give their effort and creativity for the benefit not just of themselves, but of the organization that employs them.

It should be noted that "the security of employment", although considered by Taiwanese employees as an important work goal, might be difficult for them to pursue particularly in today's global marketplace where downsizing and insecurity appear to have become commonplace.

Individualism vs. Collectivism and Femininity vs. Masculinity
The combination of the high Individualism and Masculinity Index scores indicates that work-related values commonly accepted and prevalent in the USA, UK, and Australia, etc. have been greatly emphasized and perceived as important by non-managerial employees in Taiwan and this has a number of implications for motivation, job design, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices.

For example, the research evidence showed that Taiwanese non-managerial employees regard "get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job" as an important work goal. The implication of this finding is that "performance" and "technical competence" based promotion (currently considered by HR managers of the responding firms as important) may be able to fulfil their wishes and values. Furthermore, since employees found "challenging tasks" and "full use of their skills and abilities" important, the internal recruitment methods such as "transfers" and "job rotations" (currently used by the responding firms) might be able to meet their needs and desires (Note: these work goals appear to be consistent with Maslow's (1943) notions of self-actualization and recognition which he suggests are in some sense higher order needs in the context of his pyramid or hierarchy of needs and its relevance for motivation and work design).

In addition, employees also felt that "opportunities for training" and "caring and nurturing" are important to them. Under such circumstances, it may be more advisable for HR managers/specialists in Taiwan to establish effective education and training programmes to improve employees' skills continuously, both to suit their jobs and to fit the company's future requirements. The provision of a comprehensive career development system may also help employees to realize their career goals. By providing a development path for everyone, organizations may increase their chances of keeping their employees. In this research, HR managers of the responding firms also felt that "training" is an important factor in facilitating recruitment and considered "caring and nurturing" as an important work value. This again appears to be consistent with the wishes and values of their employees.

Moreover, Taiwanese non-managerial employees tend to not only appreciate the stereotypically males values such as "competitiveness" and "self-advancement/initiative", but also consider "have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach" as an important work goal. The managerial implications of these findings may include the following:

1 management by objectives (MBOs) can be used to fulfil the wishes and values of employees (see Chapter 9 for further details);

2 the notions of job enrichment (including job enlargement) can be applied by organizations to meet employees' personal work goals and to increase their intrinsic satisfaction since this type of job design aims to give employees greater autonomy, freedom, and authority over the planning, execution, and control of their own work; and

3 to improve their commitment and job satisfaction, HR managers/specialists can seek to provide them with monetary rewards or link their performance in some way to the incentive-based payment systems.

It should be noted that these management theories, techniques, and HRM practices that originated in the USA might work well or might prove to be successful in American organizations. Yet their underlying assumptions and prescriptions given certain sets of circumstances and values might not necessarily be appropriate in a different cultural context (in this case Taiwan). However, these management theories and practices could perhaps be appropriately applied or adopted by these survey firms given the wishes and values expressed by their current employees in this survey.

Traditional Chinese/Confucian Work-Related Values

In addition to the work values that are associated with the characteristics of Individualism and Masculinity, Taiwanese non-managerial employees also consider the traditional Chinese values such as "co-operation", "harmony", "trust", "industry", and "perseverance" as important factors that may contribute to organizational success. The implication of these findings may be that, when making hiring/selection decisions, the applications' traits, attitudes, and work-related values may need to be taken into consideration. It may be important for HR managers/specialists in Taiwan to ensure that the applicants' overall qualifications and characteristics (including their work values and attitudes) can fit and/or are compatible with the organization's needs and prevailing culture, and that once they are hired, they are able to effectively carry out required tasks and collaborate well with their colleagues.

On the whole, since work-related goals such as self-actualization, high earnings, and job advancement, etc. have been greatly emphasized by Taiwanese employees, it may be important for HR managers/specialists to be aware of these values so that they could design forms and systems of work and develop a set of HRM policies and practices which could be consistent with or could meet the wishes and values of their current employees. Moreover, HR managers in Taiwan could design jobs to give employees more say in their working lives and create a climate in which employees are able to take responsibility for their own work. Also constantly assessing and re-assessing their performance and development along their career paths and frequently linking this to rewards may be able to increase their motivation, job satisfaction, and operational effectiveness. This may not be

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easy and is often time-consuming. Expenditure on getting these polices and approaches right should be seen as an investment rather than merely a cost. After all, success not only depends primarily on the size of the budget, the intrinsic worth of the products, and the supporting technologies, but also depends on their employees' work attitudes and values, competencies, and skills. Their commitment and trust may be critical to the long-term success of the businesses (Gratton, 1997).

3. Developing a Framework for Examining HRM in Organizations in Taiwan

The conclusions and implications above enable the study to develop a revised framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan. As is shown in Figure 8, this framework, the main contribution of the study, has a number of significant features, which are highlighted in the following paragraphs.

The first feature is that this framework is partially based on empirical evidence; and most of the models of HRM examined in Chapter 2, Section 2.6 were not. The second feature is that, at the macro-level outer context, Figure 8 takes into account the current external environmental contexts of organizations in Taiwan (see Chapter 1). The third distinctive feature of Figure 8 is that, unlike the Harvard model, Guest model, the matching model, and the European model, the framework in Figure 8 incorporates the composition of the workforce (gender, age, and educational level of non-managerial employees) as part of the micro-level inner context. The research results indicated that gender, age, and educational level are the factors that influence attitudes on the part of employees, besides firm size and ownership pattern (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.4).

The fourth feature, perhaps the most striking one, is that unlike any models of HRM exhibited in Chapter 2, Section 2.6, Figure 8 encompasses the work-

related values of Taiwanese non-managerial employees as part of the internal environment, for example, employees' attitudes towards leadership style (paternalist or consultative), security, challenge, recognition, and earnings, as well as their attitudes towards traditional Chinese/Confucian work values such as harmony, industry, and perseverance, etc.. This framework acknowledges that the values and wishes expressed by the current employees in this survey may pose some important influences and/or constraints upon an organization's HRM policies and practices and may also have some potentially important implications for recruitment and selection practices. For example, employees' emphasis on "security of employment", "job advancement", "high earnings", "challenging tasks", "full use of skills and abilities", and "job recognition" imply that the organizations' focus on the internal labour market and their effective use of "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" (the in-group recruitment practices) and "performance" and "competence" based promotion may be able to fulfil the wishes and values of their current employees. Although the Harvard model also includes employees as stakeholders, it does not seem to take their work values and attitudes into consideration.

The fifth feature of Figure 8 is that, given the combination of the moderately high scores on the Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance dimensions, an appropriate organizational structure for firms in Taiwan would appear to be the 'pyramid of people'. This implicit form of organization, as Hofstede points out, illustrates a moderately centralized decision-making, moderately high degree of acceptance of inequality and hierarchy with a desire for order, security, rules and regulations, and expert advice (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.5). In addition, the 'family' form is also common among organizations in

Taiwan because the empirical evidence showed that most of the responding firms are family-owned businesses and are small to medium in size (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2). Other previous studies (Whitley, 1990; Hwang, 1990; Chen, 1995) also showed that the authoritarian or paternalist type of leadership style tends to be adopted most by the owners or managers of family firms. In smaller companies, there usually lacks of formal rules and procedures and impersonal written communications due to the simple nature of tasks or limited organizational functions (see Chapter 1, Section 1.7). This, in some respect, may be consistent with organizations' 'high context culture' as Hall and Hall (1990, 1995) suggest; and this form of organization may be more consistent with Hofstede's 'family' model (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.5).

As far as the organization is concerned and given the present findings that emphasize strategic integration, a range of HRM policies/activities outlined in Figure 8 are placed closely with corporate strategy. These HRM policies/activities were identified on the basis of the current findings. Like the Harvard model, Guest model, the European model, and Hendry and Pettigrew's model, Figure 8 also incorporates the assumption that HRM policies/activities should be designed to achieve certain desired HR and organizational outcomes. Except 'strategic integration', the present study is not able to specify what these desirable outcomes are because of the lack of empirical evidence. However, this could be pursued in further research.

The last feature which is worth mentioning is that Figure 8 provides a dual-way feedback loop to each and between the components. "↔" indicates a continuously interactive flow of communications, planning, adjustments, and/or

evaluations. This dual-way feedback loop seems to be neglected in those models of HRM examined in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.

As is indicated in Chapter 1, Section 1.6, a number of relevant studies on HRM practices among employing organizations in Taiwan have been conducted by a group of researchers (Yeh, 1991; Chu, 1990; He, 1993; Chin, 1993; Kao, 1993; Hsu, 1993; Tsai, 1995; Huang, 1997; Lin, 1997). However, none of these Taiwanese researchers who carried out the research have actually developed an analytical framework of HRM to facilitate our understanding of the concept of HRM in the Taiwan context. They seem to adopt the western models of HRM without critical evaluation of their suitability or transferability. The framework in Figure 8, the contribution of the study, could be used as a base for a more comprehensive study of HRM in Taiwan and for further international and comparative studies.

4. Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

It should be noted that the current study was centred on in-depth manufacturing industry analysis. Therefore, the findings related to HRM, recruitment and selection, as well as work-related values of national culture should not be generalized to outside the manufacturing sector covered in this study. However, future study of HRM policies and practices could be extended to cross-industry (e.g., public vs. private sectors or manufacturing vs. service sectors) and cross-national (e.g., Taiwan and USA, or Taiwan and UK) comparisons. Also, the comparisons of the work-related values of matched respondents from different national cultural contexts could be conducted in future research.

This study has established some of the implications of work-related values for HRM policies and practices in Taiwan. However, the current study is not able to provide empirical evidence concerning whether these value based dimensions of national culture have direct and significant impacts/effects upon the policies and practices actually pursued by organizations. In future research, areas such as the relationships between the cultural dimensions and HRM policies and practices could be examined.

Structure of the Study

As Figure 1 illustrates, the structure of this research is categorized into nine chapters.

The introductory chapter provides a summary of the thesis, which basically covers the following areas: theoretical issues and research hypotheses, methodology, results, findings, and conclusions and implications.

Chapter One introduces the context of Taiwan including the recent economic development, employment conditions, labour law and regulations, education and training systems, human resource management in Taiwan, as well as the influences of Confucianism and family-based culture.

Chapter Two reviews the existing literature on human resource management. This chapter describes the reasons for the emergence of human resource management, examines the definitions, philosophies, and characteristics of HRM, highlights the debate concerning whether HRM is significantly different from personnel management, introduces the HRM activities and the role of HR managers/specialists, evaluates the strengths and weakness of the theoretical and analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM, and discusses the inherent

contradictions in HRM. This chapter is concluded with the development of a framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan from a synthesis of the literature highlighted in this chapter and Chapter 1.

Chapter Three presents an overview of recruitment and selection policies and practices, which begins with the reasons for the growing importance of recruitment and selection to an organization, and then examines definitions, responsibilities, and purposes of recruitment, discusses external environment of recruitment and the recruitment process, identifies methods used in internal and external recruitment, examines the nature of selection, selection responsibilities, and the selection process, and ends with the selection techniques/instruments.

Chapter Four discusses the work-related values of national culture. This chapter first examines the relationship between management and national culture, then highlights some major debates on the concept of culture, and examines Hofstede's key value dimensions of national culture and other researchers' work on national cultural differences.

Chapter Five presents the research methodology. According to the existing literature and recent comparative studies that related to HRM, recruitment and selection, and work-related values of national culture, the research issues and hypotheses are discussed and developed, followed by the methods used for data collection, questionnaire design, validity and reliability tests, sampling techniques, and choices of statistical techniques.

Chapter Six presents the general findings resulting from the initial analysis of the questionnaires concerned with HRM and recruitment and selection, reports the empirical results through a statistical analysis, and draws some appropriate discussions which highlight the major findings of this chapter.

Chapter Seven presents response rate and reliability analysis of questionnaire survey, reports the empirical results in relation to work-related values of national culture, and draws some appropriate discussions which highlight the major findings of this chapter.

Chapter Eight draws some appropriate conclusions with respect to the implications of this research and in particular the findings reported in the preceding chapters for both the theory of HRM and HRM policies and practices in Taiwan. These findings and conclusions enable the development of a revised framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan. Finally, the limitations of the study and directions for future research are identified.

Chapter Nine draws conclusions from the study of work-related values of national culture, which covers the two sections. The first section discusses the implications of the survey findings for leadership style, motivation, job design, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices. The second section identifies the limitations of the study and proposes avenues for future research.

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Figure 1 Structure of the study

Chapter 1   The Context of Taiwan

1.1.   Background of Taiwan

The Republic of China (ROC), normally named Taiwan, is an island and situated in the western Pacific Ocean about 100 miles from the south-eastern coast of the Chinese mainland. Located about midway between Korea and Japan to the north and Hong Kong and the Philippines to the south, Taiwan is a natural gateway for travellers to and within Asia. Within an area of 14,000 square miles, Taiwan is slightly bigger than Belgium, but smaller than the Netherlands. Roughly similar in shape to a tobacco leaf, the island is 245 miles long and 89.5 miles wide at its broadest point. At the end of 1996, Taiwan's population exceeded 21 million, which makes the island one of the highest population densities in the world. Except for the approximately 350,000 aborigines, the people of Taiwan originate from the Chinese mainland, most from the coastal provinces of Fukien and Kwangtung.

The island is not rich in natural resources. There are small amounts of gold, copper, petroleum, natural gas, and coal, but none of the them is sufficient to meet domestic demands. Although three-fifths of Taiwan is covered by forests, timber resources are limited owing to strict conservation policies, poor accessibility, inferior quality, and under-stocking. As a consequence, Taiwan's economy is more dependent than most on imports. In fact, almost all of the raw materials needed for manufacturing and energy generation need to come from abroad, a reality that has helped spur the development of the island's export-led economy.

1.2. Current Economic Development

From out of the remnants of the rural economy that were left after World War II, Taiwan has gradually transformed and grown strong, and has now entered the stage of a technology-oriented industrialized society. On this island with its shortage of natural resources and its poor conditions for economic development, Taiwan has depended primarily on the diligent efforts, thrift, savings, and hard work of its people who have struggled together to keep incomes growing and living standards continuously rising (which is consistent with the traditional Chinese culture, see Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2). Over the last 40 years, the scale of Taiwan's economy has expanded (in terms of growth and output) and its level has been upgraded constantly; the industrial structure has been adjusted repeatedly with top priority given to technology; the foreign exchange reserves have continued rising to new heights and are today among the largest in the world.

The extent of the island's achievements is apparent in its economic and trade statistics. For example, in 1986, the nation's total export value was US$39 billion. In 1996, the figure had soared to US$116 billion. With rapid growth of exports, the nation's import capacity was strengthened too. The import value rose from US$24 billion in 1986 to US$101 billion in 1992. The total trade volume in 1996 was US$217.3 billion, ranking Taiwan the 14th trading power in the world. Furthermore, the GNP (Gross National Product) per capita rose from US$3,999 in 1986 to US$12,872 in 1996. The foreign exchange reserves also rose from US$46 billion in 1986 to US$88 billion in 1996. Although Taiwan's economic growth rate had dropped from 7.6 per cent in 1991 to 5.7 per cent in 1996 due to global recession, the industrial production index and agricultural production index still

increased to 22.5 per cent and 4.3 per cent respectively since 1991 (Manpower Indicators, Manpower Planning Department Council For Economic Planning and Development, May 1997).

The domestic distribution of GNP has undergone considerable changes and the economic structure has transformed from traditional agricultural sector to industrial and service sectors over the last four decades. Between 1951, 1972, and 1995, agriculture's share of GNP fell from 32.2 per cent to 12.2 per cent, and to just 3.5 per cent. The industry's share of GNP rose from 21.3 per cent in 1951 to 41.7 per cent in 1972, however, declined to 36.3 per cent in 1995. The service's share of GNP rose from 46.5 per cent in 1951, 48.1 per cent in 1972, and to 60.2 per cent in 1995. The structure of export industries has also undergone substantial changes. Exports were concentrated primarily on agricultural products and processed agricultural products in the past, accounting for 91.9 per cent of total outward shipments in 1952. These categories still accounted for more than 50 per cent of total exports in 1965, but by 1995 their ratio had dropped to just 3.8 per cent (Current Status of Economic Development, 1995).

Taiwan's economic success also heavily relied upon exports particularly in the auto parts & motorcycles, bicycles & parts, gifts & stationery, hardware & furniture, information products, jewellery & timepiece, machinery, medical equipment, sporting goods, and textiles and garments, etc.. However, the ensuing appreciation of the New Taiwan dollar after 1987 and increased wages and land prices gradually eroded the competitiveness of Taiwan's labour-intensive industries relative to those of a number of Southeast Asian economies, as well as Mainland China. Traditional labour-intensive industries (e.g., footwear, textiles and garments, giftware, hand tools, etc.) are now being phased out or transferred

offshore. Industrial growth is now concentrated in capital and technology-intensive industries such as petrochemicals, computers, electronic components, and consumer goods industries. Exports accounted for 43.5 per cent of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in 1995. The ratio of heavy chemical and technology-intensive industries in the total production value of all manufacturing industries has increased steadily, rising from 56.54 per cent to 73.26 per cent, a growth of 29.6 percentage points for the period of 1982 to 1995 (Current Status of Economic Development, 1995).

The development of the information industry (e.g., computers and telecommunications, etc.) has been especially striking. In 1996, Taiwan still retained its position as the world's third largest producer of information with total output of computer and information hardware reaching US$24.17 billion for an increase of 28.1 per cent over the previous year. Monitors continued to be the largest contributor to the industry's performance. Sound cards, CD-ROM drives, notebook PCs, and desktop scanners are also the fastest growing product lines. As a result of this success, Taiwan has become a leading supplier for the entire global information technology industry in areas ranging from manufacturing and R&D to key components. For example, Taiwan is currently the largest overseas procurement site for Compaq, the world's largest personal computer company. It purchased US$3 billion worth of computer products in 1996 and expect to spend some US$4 billion in 1997, primarily on such items as PCs and semiconductors (Doing Business with Taiwan, ROC, China External Trade Development Council, 1996).

Foreign investment, in a variety of forms and from different sources, has played an important role in Taiwan's economic development. Japanese firms

invested in Taiwan during its colonization which ended with WWII. During the 1950s, the chief source of capital inflow was concessional aid from the U.S.. In the 1960s, foreign investment, principally from the U.S. and Japan, played a role in the shift to labour-intensive export manufacturing. Foreign investment surged during the 1980s, reflecting new investor confidence following the ending of martial law in 1987, expectation of further appreciation of the New Taiwan dollar and the partial lifting of exchange controls. Overseas Chinese accounted for approximately 30 per cent of foreign direct investment in Taiwan in the 1960s and 1970s, but this dropped to an average of ten per cent during the 1980s. Japan is the leading non-Chinese investor in Taiwan, accounting for approximately 30 per cent of total stock of inward foreign direct investment up to 1990, compared with 28 per cent for the U.S. and nine percent for the EU states. Inward FDI flows have been heavily concentrated in the manufacturing (such as chemicals, electronics, and electrical appliances, etc.) and service sectors although the figure has declined from 85 per cent to 66 per cent. This has been offset by an increase in the share of Taiwan's outward investment that has been going to the tertiary sector (World Investment Directory, 1992, Volume I: Asia and the Pacific, 1992) (Note: according to the 1995 Investment Commission, Ministry of Economic Affairs, in the year of 1995, of the 389 private-sector foreign investment in Taiwan, 57 were overseas Chinese and 332 were foreign nationals (117 were Japanese, 66 were American, 43 were European, and 106 were others)).

1.3. Employment Conditions

In 1996, more than half of the employees in Taiwan were engaged in such service sectors as banking, insurance, retailing, consulting, fast foods, and legal

work, etc., representing 52.4 per cent of the total labour force; only 37.5 per cent and 10.1 per cent engaged in the industrial and agricultural sectors respectively. According to the 1997 monthly bulletin of statistics provided by the *Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics* (DGBAS) in April, 1997, the average monthly turnover rate in 1996 was a record low of 2.54 per cent, the most stable ever in recent years. The service sector turnover rate was 2.2 per cent in February, 1997, slightly lower than the 2.3 per cent in the industrial sector. Taiwan's unemployment rate is moderate by international standards and seems to be lower than average rate for industrialized countries (e.g., USA, and UK, Germany, etc.). Between 1988 to 1995, the levels of unemployment in Taiwan were kept under 2 per cent. However, in 1996, economic growth was dropped and unemployment rising to a seven-year high of 2.6 per cent at the year end, with 242,000 people unemployed. The total labour participation rate dropped from 60.4 per cent in 1986 to 58.4 per cent in 1996; the male participation rate also substantially decreased from 75.2 in 1986 to per cent to 71.1 per cent in 1996. However, female participation in the labour force was 45.3 per cent on average between 1986 and 1996. In terms of age group, the labour participation rate of youths between the ages of 15 and 24 and people between 55 and 64 and people aged 65 above have dropped by 2.1, 0.8, and 0.8 per cent respectively, as compared to 1995. However, the labour participation rate for people between 25 and 44 and for people between 45 and 52 have risen by 0.7 per cent and 0.2 per cent respectively. During economic slow-downs, workers may be more concerned to secure their current post and not risk a job switch.

In addition, the makeup of the labour force also changed in 1996. Since 1986, the percentage of female and male employees in the workforce with only

junior high and lower levels of education has decreased, while the percentage of female and male employees with at least a senior high school, junior college, or university/postgraduate school education has continued to rise, representing 23.3 per cent and 33.1 of the workforce respectively in 1996.

1.4. Labour Law and Regulations

Accompanying the development and progress of the economy and society, the welfare of workers has also continuously improved accordingly. The government of Taiwan has enacted labour legislation designed to provide for the welfare of workers and maintain good employee relations. This legislation primarily deals with areas such as working condition, working hours, wages, equal employment, collective bargaining, occupational safety, health matters, settlement of labour disputes, labour insurance, as well as welfare funds.

The Labour Standards Law (LSL), first enacted in 1984, primarily covers eight categories of workers: workers in the agriculture, forestry, and fishery sectors; workers engaged in mining and quarrying; construction workers; workers in the manufacturing sector; workers in the public utilities sector; workers engaged in transportation, storage, and communication services; workers in the mass communications field; and other occupations designated by the central government.

Under the LSL, work hours are normally set at eight hours per day and 48 hours a week. For overtime work of two hours or less, workers are paid a premium of at least one-third of the regular hourly wage and a premium of two-thirds of the regular hourly wage for all overtime exceeding two hours. Workers included under the LSL should receive at least one day's rest every seven days, and leave on

national holidays, Labour Day, and other holidays announced by the government. An employee in Taiwan may voluntarily retire at age 55 after 15 years of service or at any time after 25 years of service. Compulsory retirement cannot be effected unless the employee has reached 60 years of age or is unable to perform a job due to mental or physical disability (Council of Labour Affairs, Executive Yuan, 1995).

The Statute for Employees' Welfare Fund provides that any business with 50 or more workers is required to set up an Employees' Welfare Fund. Employers are also required to contribute an amount equalling from one per cent to five per cent of the company's paid-in capital, plus from 0.05 per cent to 0.15 per cent of monthly operating revenue and 20 per cent to 40 per cent of proceeds derived from the sale of waste materials. Employees themselves should contribute 0.05 per cent of their monthly salaries, with said payments being withheld from salaries or wages by the employer (Council of Labour Affairs, Executive Yuan, 1995).

Moreover, the comprehensive Law Governing Safety and Sanitation of Workers is also enacted to protect the interests of employees in Taiwan, for example, preventing occupational accidents, ensuring safety in the workplace, and protecting the health of workers. Almost all employees in Taiwan are also protected by a labour insurance programme that includes such areas as maternity, injury or sickness, medical-disability, old-age, and death benefits. Under the provisions of this labour-insurance programme, any establishment employing five or more workers should enter into labour insurance contracts with the Labour Insurance Bureau for each employee over age 15 and below age 60 (Council of Labour Affairs, Executive Yuan, 1995).

As the Labour Standards Law is relatively new, it may not be surprising that both management and labour have been critical of certain of its provisions. In order to respond to such criticisms and maximize the effectiveness of the law, the Council of Labour Affairs (CLA), established in 1987 to deal with labour issues, has proposed a number of changes that are intended to remove existing ambiguities and reconcile the differing opinions of labour and management. These changes, which have already been approved by the executive branch of the government and await enactment into law by the legislative branch, include modifications affecting the payment of retirement or severance pay defined in the existing Labour Standards Law to employees for services rendered in the years prior to the law's enactment, and new provisions covering pensions. Still other of the proposed revisions deal with the degree of flexibility accorded management in setting work hours, the apportionment of overtime work, and national-holiday work arrangements for workers in special lines. Although the impact of these and other revisions currently being deliberated may be difficult to predict, the general consensus among knowledgeable observers is that the changes will help make the Labour Standards Law more realistic and effective in the long run. The Council of Labour Affairs indicates that if these revisions are approved by the legislative branch, effects may also be made to extend the Labour Standards Law to cover those in such fields as commerce, finance, insurance, real estate, and social, business, and individual services.

1.5. Education and Training Systems

As is indicated in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.4, education has long played a highly important role in the Confucian tradition. The Taiwanese are famous as

placing considerable emphasis on education, and the educational system is uniform, highly regulated and competitive. Educational attainment plays a considerable role in determining a person's employment opportunities and long-term career. Today, children on the island receive nine years of compulsory education, running from primary (six years) through junior high school (three years). Following this period of compulsory training, students may enter either a three-year senior high school, or a three-year vocational school, or a five-year junior college depending upon their individual interests and success in highly competitive entrance examinations. After graduation from senior high school, students need to pass an entrance examination to secure admission to universities or colleges that make up Taiwan's higher educational system. Postgraduate schools on the island also award numerous advanced degrees in a wide range of disciplines. At the same time, many Taiwan university and college graduates pursue advanced degrees either in Taiwan or abroad.

Over the last ten years, individuals who graduated from the island's institutions of higher education have dramatically increased. For example, between 1986 and 1996, the number of students who received Ph.D., Masters, and First degrees and diploma from junior college rose from 161; 3,800; 38,625; and 54,703 to 1,053; 12,649; 70,702; and 105,113 respectively (Manpower Indicators, 1997). As a consequence, many employees in both multinational and major domestic firms are college graduates while mid- and top-level managers have had at least some experience abroad, are proficient in English and familiar with Western management techniques (e.g., HRM) (National Youth Commission, ROC, 1997).

Taiwan's extensive system of vocational-technical education is primarily responsible for the high quality of its blue-collar workforce. Over the years, the

government has maintained a consistent policy aimed at helping those who plan to enter vocational fields to develop all of their talents and maximize their potential. Most significant in this respect was a six-point plan instituted by the Ministry of Education in 1973. This plan was designed to meet the nation's needs for skilled industrial workers and included provisions for the establishment of a 40:60 ratio between senior high schools and vocational schools. The 1997 Manpower Indicators reveal that, between 1986 and 1996, the number of students graduated from vocational school has increased from 121,300 to 157,456, accounting for 25.5 per cent of the labour force in 1996.

In addition, the government has either established or is subsidizing eleven public vocational training centres capable of providing training to nearly 10,000 individuals per year. In 1996, of 24,567 individuals trained by public vocational training institutes, 6,460 were metal fabricators and machine shop workers, 6,212 were electrical and electronic workers, 3,637 were clerical and related workers, and 2,594 were service workers (Manpower Indicators, 1997). Institutions oriented toward general education are also doing everything possible to keep abreast of new developments in occupational and vocational training, career counselling and adult education while technical and vocational institutes are becoming much more responsive to the needs of industry and the accelerating pace of technological change. These and various other initiatives designed to improve the quality of workers are paying off for the ROC. Moreover, the emphasis on continued training has been at least partially responsible for the island's enviable gains in industrial capacity. Nevertheless, the percentage of people employed in the manufacturing sector is expected to decline and the percentage of people in the service sector is expected to increase in the future. For example, in 1996, while only 26.7 per cent

of the island's total working population is employed in the manufacturing sector, 52.4 per cent of the labour force is employed in the service sector and this figure may continue to rise.

Moreover, the growing number of Taiwanese nationals returning to the island after receiving advanced degrees overseas is enhancing the quality of the white-collar workforce. For example, between 1990 and 1994, people who returned from abroad and employed in industry and commerce increased from 855 to 1,317; and the number of people teaching in universities/colleges and secondary schools has also increased, rising from 691 and 14 in 1990 to 781 and 33 in 1994 respectively. These individuals are helping to keep Taiwan abreast of the latest developments abroad, as well as adding to the pool of scientific and managerial (e.g., HRM) talent available to academia and domestic and foreign firms on the island.

1.6. Human Resource Management in Taiwan

According to China External Trade Development Council (1997), in another relatively recent trend sizeable numbers of professionals with advanced degrees and extensive work experience abroad (e.g., USA) have also returned to take advantage of the employment and investment opportunities that have emerged as a result of Taiwan's burgeoning economic development. Many have established their own firms (e.g., Acer computer company) in places such as the Hsinchu Science-based Industrial Park, where they have been able to develop a wide variety of successful high-tech business lines. There is some evidence (Yeh, 1991; Kao, 1993; Hsu, 1993; Huang, 1997) that these younger generations of Taiwanese entrepreneurs, who have absorbed western values and ideas and management

practices and techniques, have incorporated some HRM issues into the management of the employment relationship to improve their businesses and their success in managing human resources has become the living example for other enterprises in Taiwan. Employees in these organizations (e.g., Acer, Sampo, Cal-Comp, Tay-shan, San-fu, San-Yan, and Ta-Tung, etc.) have been encouraged to own shares of company stock. There is strong emphasis on integration of professional management into a family-owned business, focus on employees' education, learning, and training and development, and reliance on teamworking, decentralized decision-making, and financial rewards, etc..

The wide application of HRM practices in Taiwan can also be seen in a number of recent studies conducted by researchers such as Chu (1990), He (1993), Chin (1993), Tsai (1995), and (Lin, 1997). According to their research among the employing organizations in Taiwan, a range of HRM policies and practices such as HR planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, pay and benefits, and health and safety were generally considered by their respondents (HR managers/specialists) as important; and most of their survey firms had pursued these practices to varying degrees. Their research results also indicate that there is a general desire among HR specialists that HRM policies are integrated with corporate strategies and that HRM issues should be involved in decision making at board level. In addition, there was wide recognition among chief executives or senior managers in their survey firms that employees are the unique resource that can create value from other resources and that their commitment, creativity, and skills can generate a sustained competitive advantage to ensure organizational success (in terms of survival in a competitive and dynamic business environment). On the whole, their survey firms' emphasis upon these HRM practices seem to be

consistent with the findings of HRM and recruitment and selection derived in this research (see Chapter 6) and accord with the implications of cultural findings for HRM policies and practices (see Chapter 9, Section 9.1).

1.7.   The Influence of Confucianism and Family-Based Culture

The concept of Confucianism has been deeply rooted in the Taiwanese society. It not only influences the values and attitudes of the general public but also has some significant effects on organizations. At the firm (micro) level, these effects are reflected in an organization's size, form and/structure, ownership pattern, leadership style, decision making, as well as personnel/HR practices (see Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2). Under the profound influences of Confucian ideology, the majority of the Taiwanese enterprises are family-owned businesses and most of them are small to medium in size (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2). The owners of family-owned companies and their managers tend to assume an authoritarian or paternalist type of leadership style; and the delegation of power and responsibility is relatively limited. Superior-subordinate relations seem to be characterized by distrust and limited communication (Whitley, 1990). In the areas of recruiting and hiring, there seems to be a preference for hiring core family members, relatives, and close friends (in-groups) for senior posts. Except for family members and those very close to the owner, non-family employees (e.g., middle or lower level managers and ordinary employees) tend to find it difficult to identify themselves with the organization because they feel as if they are outsiders; and their professional talents are often repressed with little opportunities for job advancement and promotion.

Since a business owner regards his business as the private property of the core family, the business plan tends to be treated as an affair internal to the family. Non-family employees are rarely given the opportunities to participate in the decision-making process. With the control of information, the subordinates may have to ask their superiors for instructions (Hwang, 1990; Chen, 1995). This may discourage the development of initiative among non-family employees and suppress them from displaying their creativity and talents. Partly as a result, it can be expected that the organization and its employees have a short-term perspective. The ordinary employees tend to join the company as a step in their career development ladder and leave the company when better prospects beckon elsewhere. The company hires and fires employees at will and recruit them in order to fill specified skill slots.

Furthermore, due to the lack of organization structure and written rules (e.g., employment policies), the authority and duty of every post in the smaller family firms are usually not clearly defined; and there is no clear criteria on employee performance. In order to reduce unpredictability or uncertainties, some employees may tend to spend a great deal of time socializing with their superiors and developing their connections in the organization (Note: good connections tend to be considered as important stepping stones to personal achievement (Chen, 1995)). Thus, it can be expected that personal relationship usually prevails over the task.

However, with the continuing pressure of industrial upgrading, many younger generations of Taiwanese entrepreneurs in family-owned companies have seen some of the traditional Chinese management as obstacles and in some way would hinder their adaptation to modernization. In recognition of this problem, a

growing number of Taiwanese entrepreneurs, who have been aware of and influenced by western or modern management theories, philosophies, and techniques, have adopted these management practices (e.g., developing more open communication channels, nurturing employee creativity, encouraging professionalization of the organization, focusing on decentralized decision-making, education and training, and financial rewards, etc.) to varying degrees to improve both their businesses and their employees' performance. The evidence of their adoption of those management practices has been illustrated in the earlier section and Chapter 4, Section 4.4.5.

1.8. Summary

This chapter primarily introduces the background of Taiwan, the recent economic development, employment conditions, labour law and regulations, education and training systems, human resource management in Taiwan, as well as the influence of Confucianism and family-based culture. A review of literature on human resource management, recruitment and selection, and work-related values of national culture will be discussed respectively in Chapters 2, 3, and 4.

Chapter 2   The Concept of Human Resource Management

2.0.   Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on human resource management (HRM) and is broadly divided into nine sections. This chapter firstly provides the reasons for the emergence of HRM in the United States and Britain, and then examines the definitions and philosophies and characteristics of HRM, highlights the debate concerning whether HRM is significantly different from personnel management, introduces the HRM activities and the role of HR managers/specialists, evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of the theoretical and analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM, discusses the inherent contradictions in HRM, from a synthesis of the literature, proposes an appropriate framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan, and finally draws some conclusions.

The primary objectives of this chapter are:

1 to undertake a review of the literature on HRM and develop an appropriate framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan.

2 to provide a base for identifying the issues and facilitating the development of appropriate hypotheses, which are discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2.

2.1.   Reasons for the Emergence of HRM

Human resource management is concerned with the 'people' dimension in management. There is growing recognition among top executives that organizations can survive and prosper in a fast changing, dynamic, and competitive environment only if they obtain, retain, and develop the quantity and quality of human resources they need (Decenzo and Robbins, 1996). Since every organization is made up of people

regardless of size, structure, ownership pattern, and the sector of industry, acquiring their services, developing their skills, motivating them to high levels of performance, and ensuring that they continue to maintain their commitment to the organization may be crucial to achieving overall organization objectives (desired HRM outcomes) (Lu, 1993) (see Section 2.2.1).

The concept of human resource management has been debated considerably in the literature and used frequently by western organizations. The roots of HRM have been summarized elsewhere (Storey, 1989; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990; Beaumount, 1991; Armstrong, 1992). It initially developed from work in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s and since the mid-1980s has been an ever more visible feature of the academic literature, of consultancy services and of organizational terminology, particularly in the USA and UK (Brewster and Larsen, 1992). There are a number of reasons for the emergence and popularity of HRM in the USA over the last decade, among the most important of which, as Beaumont (1993: 11-12) suggests, include the following:

1. the increasingly competitive, integrated characteristics of the product market environment;

2. the 'positive lessons' of the Japanese system and the high performance of individual companies which accord human resource management a relatively high priority;

3. the declining levels of workforce unionization, particularly in the US private sector;

4. the relative growth of the service, white collar sector of employment; and

5. the relatively limited power and status of the personnel management function in individual organizations due to its inability to demonstrate a distinctive, positive contribution, to individual organizational performance.

In summary, it is viewed as a change or development driven by fundamental environmental changes (particularly in product market conditions) to which the traditional concerns, orientations and 'power' of the personnel management function could not adequately respond.

The term 'Human Resource Management' began to emerge in Britain in the middle to late 1980s and came to be used increasingly by its advocates as both the description and the practice of employee management. This particular term challenged and frequently replaced the previously popular terms 'personnel management' and/or 'industrial relations' (Beaumont, 1993: 1). As Noon (1992: 17) indicates, "books are changing their titles from 'Personnel Management' to 'Human Resource Management' with very little change of content", and "some UK business schools appear to be using HRM as a generic term embracing the separate disciplines of industrial relations, organizational behaviour, and personnel management, which contrasts starkly with courses in HRM or the sort of programme propounded by Harvard" (ibid). Moreover, two journals of HRM were launched respectively in 1990, namely the *Human Resource Management Journal (HRMJ)* and the *International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)*. Sisson, the editor of *HRMJ* in 1990 applies the term HRM "in the most general of senses to refer to the policies, procedures and processes involved in the management of people in work organizations" (p. 1). Similarly, Poole (1990: 1-2), the current editor of *IJHRM*, who argues that beyond the central aspect of HRM being the link with business policy and strategic management, "the subject (HRM) is perhaps best viewed as involving a synthesis of elements from international

business, organizational behaviour, personnel management, and industrial relations". Both authors seem to be concerned to establish HRM as a field of study rather than a theory of management (Blyton and Turnbull, 1992).

The above changes in interpreting 'Human Resource Management' as a generic term were held to be the result of changes in organizational practice. Beaumont (1993: 1) comments that certain key changes in the environmental context of the 1980s, particularly in the product market area, triggered a number of changes in management and organizational practice that pointed in the human resource management direction. The individual changes most frequently cited in this regard included the increased priority attached by senior line managers to human resource management issues, the retitling of personnel management departments (e.g. a name change to human resource management), and the reduced priority attached to collective bargaining and joint consultative arrangements relative to more individual employee-oriented practices and arrangements designed to enhance motivation, commitment and organizational identification.

However, despite the emergence and widespread adoption of the term HRM, there remains considerable debate in academic literature regarding the nature of the underlying concept of HRM in both America and Europe - whether it constitutes a theory of management or could be best utilized as providing boundaries to a field study and whether it is realistic to talk in terms of an underlying philosophy. Is HRM significantly different from personnel management? Does it represent a coherent, integrated, and effective method of managing employees? Does it improve company performance and contribute to organizational effectiveness? Can it be effectively integrated with wider business strategy of an organization? is it inherently anti-union? Can it be applied equally well in different socio-cultural contexts (e.g., in East Asia)?

2.2. Definitions of HRM

Having provided the reasons for the emergence of HRM in the previous section, this section examines Guest's definitions of HRM, the notion of 'soft' and 'hard' versions of HRM, and also the territory of HRM. There seems to be no universally acceptable definitions of human resource management, as Brewster (1994) argues, the meaning of HRM appears to be far from clearly established in the literature: different authorities may imply or state different definitions and draw on different evidence. Likewise, Keenoy (1989) and Singh (1992, 1996) state that the notion of HRM may represent different things to different people and may be profoundly influenced by the particular traditions and circumstances of the countries in which it is practiced. Storey (1989, 1992, 1995) also notes that the term HRM tends to be shrouded in managerial hype and its underlying philosophies and characteristics may not be easily defined.

2.2.1. Guest Definitions of Human Resource Management

Many authors have sought to define the term (HRM) and explain its meaning and relevance. It seems to be not always possible to identify common strategies and elements in these definitions as is shown in Figure 2.1. Guest (1989) appreciates that the term could be used in different ways and illustrates this diversity by his identification of two distinct dimensions as Figure 2.1 exhibits.

1. The first is a **'soft-hard'** dimension, depending on whether the emphasis is primarily on the human resource with its softer connotations of McGregor's Theory Y (1960) and utilization of individual talents, or on management with its implications of strategy and quantification.

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2. The second is a **'loose-tight'** dimension, depending upon whether the definition of HRM is general or precise.

- At the most general and imprecise level ('loose' end), HRM is Personnel Management retitled. Like old wine in new bottles, this may serve the useful function of giving a somewhat jaded personnel department a new and more contemporary image. Unless it signals a new approach with some substantive change behind the rhetoric, a change of title on its own is likely to prove no more than a short-term palliative (Guest, 1989).

- At the most precise level of analysis ('tight' dimension), HRM is distinctive and significantly different from conventional personnel management, and thus should have a theory or model behind it. As Guest (1989) suggested, "to sustain this view, it is essential to characterize conventional approaches to personnel management and to show how HRM is distinctive. This in turn requires a specific theory/model of HRM which is tightly defined but which ideally embraces both the 'soft' and 'hard' components" (p.48). The distinction between personnel management (PM) and HRM and a theory/model of HRM proposed by Guest (1989) will be explained and discussed respectively in Sections 2.4 and 2.6.

- Between the precise theory and the imprecise relabelling, a third approach could be identified which highlighted strategic HRM. Strategic HRM is conceptual in approach and is concerned with how human resources are acquired, deployed and managed alongside other factors of production. The models of strategic HRM will be illustrated in Section 2.6.

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            ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
            │         A theory of HRM        │
            └───────────────┬───────────────┘
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SOFT────────────────────────┼─────────│ Strategic│──────── HARD
(Human resource)            │         │   HRM    │      (Management)
                            │         └──────────┘
            ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
            │ Re-titling of personnel department │
            └───────────────┬───────────────┘
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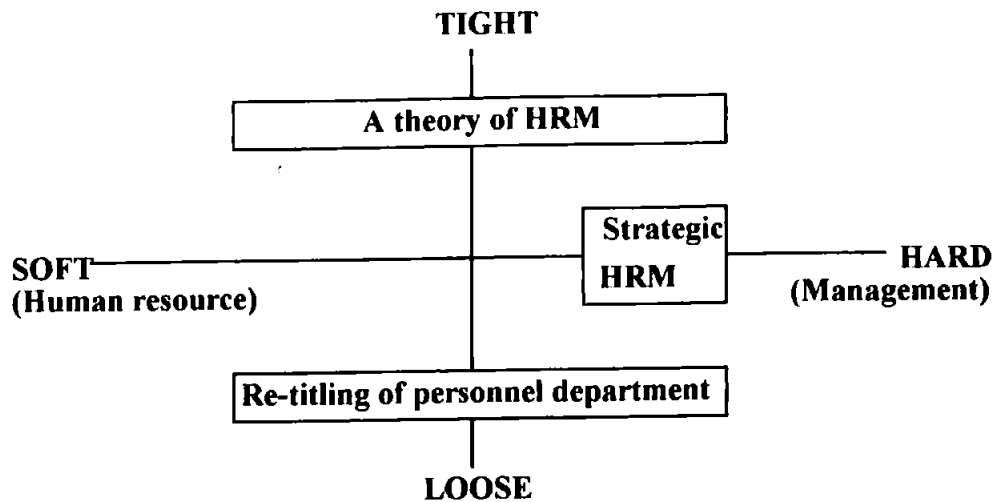
Figure 2.1 Definitions of human resource management
Source: Guest, 1989, p.48

2.2.2. 'Soft' and 'Hard' HRM

'Soft' and 'hard' versions of HRM were emphasized most clearly in the mid-1980s by two key American texts. The first was *Strategic Human Resource Management* edited by Fombrun, Tichy, and Devanna (1982, 1984). The second was *Human Resources Management: A General Manager's Perspective* edited by Beer et al. and colleagues (1985) at Harvard Business School. The former located itself much more centrally in the strategic management literature, the latter in the human relations tradition. The difference between the two approaches has been explored elsewhere (Guest, 1989; Legge, 1989, 1995; Hendry and Pettigrew 1990; Beaumont, 1991, 1993; Storey, 1992, 1995; Brewster and Bournois, 1991,1993, 1994; Goss, 1994). For example, Goss (1994) advocates the *'instrumental'* and *'humanistic'* approaches as two extreme propositions to delineate the 'hard' and 'soft' human resource management. Likewise, a distinction has been made by Storey (1992, 1995) between 'hard' and 'soft' versions of HRM.

- Hard HRM stresses the quantitative, calculative, and business-strategy aspects of managing the headcount resource in as rational a way as for any other economic factor.

- Soft HRM traces its roots to the human relations school and emphasizes communication, motivation, and leadership.

Similarly, Brewster (1994) underlines the idea that the 'soft' approach to HRM emphasizes the human side of human resource management, which highlighted that for all companies, employees are the unique resource that can create value from the other resources and the only resource whose creativity, commitment and skills can generate real competitive advantage. This most precious resource hence may require careful *selection*, extensive nurturing and development, proper rewards, and integration into the organization. This approach tends to concentrate on employees and stands clearly in the long tradition of human relations and developmental studies. In this approach, human resource management tends to be more related to corporate strategy: the presence or absence of certain skills may push the organization into or out of certain markets or products, for instance.

By contrast, the 'hard' approach concentrates on the resource side of human resource management, which stresses that employees are organizational resources and should be managed like any other resource: obtained as cheaply and used as sparingly as is consistent with other requirements such as those for quality and efficiency; and that they should be developed and exploited as fully and profitably as possible. This approach tends to have a much closer relationship to corporate strategy, with HRM often seen to follow such strategies (Brewster and Bournois, 1993).

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2.2.3. The Territory of HRM

Moreover, in addition to the Guest definitions of HRM, the 'soft' and 'hard' versions of HRM, a number of leading western academics also propose the following definitions to determine the territory of HRM. Beer et al. state that:

> Human Resource Management involves all management decisions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and employees - its human resources; and involves the development of all aspects of an organizational context so that they will encourage and even direct managerial behaviour with regard to people (Beer et al., 1984: 1, 4).

Poole, following on Beer et al. (1984) approach, also indicates that:

> Human resource management is viewed as strategic; it involves all managerial personnel (and especially general managers); it regards people as the most important single asset of the organization; it is proactive in its relationship with people; and it seeks to enhance company performance, employee 'needs' and societal well-being (Poole, 1990: 3).

Bratton also identifies human resource management as:

> The part of the management process that specializes in the management of people in work organizations. HRM emphasizes that employees are the primary resource for gaining sustainable competitive advantage, that human resources activities need to be integrated with the corporate strategy, and that human resource specialists help organizational controllers to meet both efficiency and equity objectives (Bratton, 1994: 5).

According to the definitions provided by the researchers above, the perspectives, emphasis, territory, and objectives of 'HRM' could be summarized as follows: (1) it involves all management decisions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and employees - its human resources; (2) it regards employees as the most important single asset of the organization and as the primary resource for gaining sustainable competitive advantage; (3) it emphasizes that human resources activities need to be fully integrated with the corporate strategy; and

(4) it seeks to enhance company performance, employee 'needs' and societal well-being.

2.3. Philosophies and Characteristics of HRM

The preceding section examined the definitions, 'soft' and 'hard' HRM, and the territory of HRM. This section outlines the philosophies and characteristics of HRM. It could be argued that what makes HRM distinctive is that it has a number of philosophies and characteristics underpinning the concept as suggested by the academics stated below.

2.3.1. Philosophies of HRM

The first statements of HRM philosophy were made by a number of leading American academics writing in the 1980s. For instance, Tichy, Fombrun, and Devanna (1982: 47) note that "the long-run competitiveness of American industry will require considerably more sophisticated approaches to the human resource input that deal with its strategic role in organizational performance...and the strategic human resource concepts and tools needed are fundamentally different from the stock in trade of the traditional personnel administrator". They stress that the psychological contract between management and employees should offer "challenging meaningful work in return for a loyal, committed and self-motivated employee" (p.50). They also highlight the importance to:

- devise an organization-wide selection and promotion system which supports the business strategy;

- create internal flow of people to match the business strategy;

- match key executives to the business strategy;

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- commit managers to weighing human resource issues with the same level of attention as they give to other functions such as finance, marketing, and production.

Furthermore, Beer and Spector (1985) represented a new set of assumptions in expressing the HRM philosophy:

- proactive system-wide interventions, with emphasis on 'fit', linking HRM with strategic planning and cultural change;

- people are social capital capable of development;

- coincidence of interest between stake holders can be developed;

- power equalization is sought for trust and collaboration;

- open channels of communication to build trust and commitment;

- goal orientation;

- participation and informed choice.

2.3.2. Characteristics of HRM

Evidence from the work of a number of British academics (Krulis-Randa, 1990; Sisson, 1990; Armstrong, 1992) suggests that human resource management generally involves the following characteristics.

- *An emphasis upon a top-management driven activity.* HRM is "an approach to managing people which is governed by top management's aims for competitive advantage, added value from the full utilization of resources and, ultimately, improved bottom-line performance" (Armstrong, 1992: 23).

- *A stress on strategic fit - the integration of business and personnel strategies.* Guest (1989: 49) underlines the need for strategic integration or fit that refers to the ability of the organization to integrate HRM issues into its strategic plans to ensure

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that the various aspects of HRM cohere, and for line managers to incorporate an HRM perspective into their decision making.

- *The adoption of a comprehensive and coherent approach to employment policies and practices.* Armstrong (1992: 24) stresses that "HRM aims to provide an internally coherent approach with mutually reinforcing initiatives which avoids the piecemeal implementation of unrelated personnel practices and minimizes the danger of treating personnel practices as isolated tasks". As Beer and Spector (1985) indicate, personnel practices/tasks get farmed out to specialists whose concerns tend to be limited to avoiding obvious problems and ensuring technical consistency and accuracy within their particular areas of practice.

- *The locus of responsibility for people-management is devolved to line managers; the role of personnel specialists is to support and facilitate line management in this task, not to control it.* Armstrong (1992: 23) notes that "the performance and delivery of HRM is a management responsibility, shared among line (operational) managers and those responsible for running service or staff (related) functions". As Legge (1989, 1995: 74-75) argues, "HRM is vested in line management as business managers responsible for coordinating and directing all resources in the business unit in pursuit of bottom-line results...a clear relationship is drawn between the achievement of these results and the line's appropriate and proactive use of the human resources in the business unit".

- *Importance is attached to strong organizational cultures and values.* According to Armstrong (1992), strong cultures and values are advocated in HRM because they can create commitment and mutuality. Beer and Spector (1985) indicate that the values held by top management need to be considered a key factor in determining whether or not HRM policies and practices can be unified; employees may not

continue to be involved in the affairs of the business if their contributions are not respected by their managers; similarly, employees cannot be expected to be actively committed to the organization if the organization does not show its commitment to them.

- *Employee relations are unitarist rather than pluralist, individual rather than collective.* HRM, as Guest (1989: 50) suggests, "is unitarist to the extent that they (management) assume no underlying and inevitable differences of interest between management and workers...and individualistic in that they emphasize the individual-organization linkage in preference to operating through group and representative systems".

2.4. Is HRM Significantly Different from Personnel Management?

The previous section outlined the philosophies and characteristics of HRM. This section highlights the debate concerning the distinction between personnel management and HRM. The question of whether HRM differs significantly from conventional personnel management is still subject to considerable debate in academic literature. Guest (1987: 505-509), for example, has developed an alternative theoretical framework (see Figure 2.2) to show how HRM is different from orthodox personnel management. According to Guest, HRM is different from traditional personnel management for the following reasons: (1) it integrates human resources into strategic management; (2) it seeks behavioural commitment to organizational goals, the perspective is unitary with a focus on the individual; and (3) it works better in organizations which have an organic structure, and the emphasis is on a full and positive utilization of human resources.

	PM compliance	HRM commitment
Psychological contract	Fair day's work for a fair day's pay	Reciprocal commitment
Locus of control	External	Internal
Employee relations	Pluralist Collective Low trust	Unitarist Individual High trust
Organising principles	Mechanistic Formal/defined roles Top-down Centralised	Organic Flexible roles Bottom-up Decentralised
Policy goals	Administrative efficiency Standard performance Cost minimisation	Adaptive work-force Improving performance Maximum utilisation

Figure 2.2 Stereotypes of personnel management and human resource
Management
Source: Guest, 1987, p.507

Furthermore, according to Blyton and Turnbull (1992), one of the differences between the ways in which personnel management and HRM are distinctively conceived is that while personnel management is something that managers 'do' to employees, HRM is applied to management and workforce alike. This difference is detailed by Legge (1989, 1995: 74-76) who compares personnel management and HRM both as normative models and in terms of actual practices. Although there seems to be no universally agreed 'single' model of either personnel management or HRM, Legge has reached a conclusion that at a normative level there appears to be relatively little which distinguishes the two. Only the following three significant differences, as she suggested, can be identified.

1. HRM appears to be a more central strategic management task than personnel management in that it is experienced by managers as the most valued resource to be management. Personnel management is aimed largely at non-managers, whereas

HRM is applied to managers as well as employees and it not only emphasized the importance of employee development, but focuses particularly on development of 'the management team';

2. Personnel management views line managers as implementing personnel policy for the employees under their control, whereas HRM is much more of an integrated line management activity, proactively using the human resources, co-ordinating and directing all other resources (not just human ones, but also money, machines, and information) in the business unit in pursuit of bottom-line results with much emphasis on quality of product or service;

3. HRM highlights senior management's corporate responsibility for managing organizational culture and giving a sense of direction and leadership within the organization, whereas personnel management tends to see this as an activity for a separate department/activity such as Organization Development (OD).

Torrington and Hall (1987, 1991, 1995) also indicate that there is a philosophical difference which makes them contrary. For instance, they endorse that while personnel management is supply-driven, HRM is demand driven:

> Personnel management is directed mainly at the employees of the organization, finding and training them, arranging their pay and contracts of employment, explaining what is expected of them, justifying what the management is doing and trying to modify any management action that could produce an unwelcome response from the employees. In contrast, HRM is directed mainly towards management needs for human resources (not only employees) to be provided and deployed. There is greater emphasis on planning, monitoring and control, rather than on problem-solving and mediation. It is totally identified with management interests and is relatively distant from the workforce as a whole (Torrington and Hall, 1995: 11).

Based upon the statements above, Torrington and Hall therefore indicate that personnel management is *workforce centred* and thus directs itself to employees, whereas HRM is *resource centred* and hence concerns itself with the overall human resource needs of an organization. The distinction between the two is that even though

personnel activity is a management function, it is not totally identified with management interests. Contrarily, HRM is a central management concern at a level above that of function because it is resource driven.

Moreover, Guest (1991) follows the line of Walton and Lawrence (1985) in suggesting that HRM is the new orthodoxy for personnel management in the regulation and management of employees. As a frame of reference for employees, HRM is designed to stimulate commitment, something which personnel managers cannot do successfully because they are primarily concerned with the implementation of decisions made elsewhere in the organization. In this respect, personnel activity within the wider HRM rubric, services line areas. The HRM rubric is designed to change the frame of reference of personnel practice in order to make it integral to business and the market.

However, there are still some British commentators and HR practitioners who seem to believe that HRM offers nothing new and is simply a re-labelling and re-packing of personnel management, promoted by personnel managers in search of enhanced status and power (Torrington, 1989). Scepticism that there is little substantive difference between conventional personnel management and HRM is further emphasized by the practice, particularly in the USA, of using human resource management as a generic term and one interchangeable with personnel management. Fowler, for example, argues that substantively there is little new in HRM:

> What's new (personnel managers will ask) about the concept that 'the business of personnel is the business'. What is new about the view that employees give of their best when they are treated as responsible adults? Haven't these been at the heart of good personnel practice for decades? To which the answer is, of course, yes (Fowler, 1987: 3).

Similarly, Armstrong comments that:

> It (HRM) could indeed be no more and no less than another name for personnel management, but. as usually perceived, at least it has the virtue of emphasising the need to treat people as a key resource, the management which is the direct concern of top management as part of the strategic planning processes of the enterprise. Although there is nothing new in the idea, insufficient attention has been paid to it in many organisations. The new bottle or label can help to overcome this deficiency (Armstrong, 1987: 32).

Lowry (1990) also points out that:

> Personnel work has always included strategic matters and the present emphasis on business issues merely represents another change in the environment to which the personnel manager adapts by strengthening the competencies needed for the new situation. Human resource management is just the continuing process of personnel management - it is not different (Citing from Armstrong, 1992: 34).

On the whole, although those statements above tend to be convincing arguments, it could be said that awareness amongst personnel managers of the need to be more strategically and business oriented might not have developed to its present state without the influence of the HRM concept. Perhaps the most significant differences which distinguish personnel management and HRM are that HRM appears to be a central, senior management-driven strategic activity and based upon a management and business-oriented philosophy, and that it tends to be developed, owned, and delivered by management as a whole to promote the interests of the organization which they serve (Armstrong, 1992: 34, 38).

2.5.   HRM Activities and the Role of HR Managers/Specialists

Having highlighted the debate on the distinction between personnel management and HRM in the preceding section, this section introduces HRM activities and the role of HR managers/specialists. It has been said that there is growing

recognition amongst top executives that organizations can survive and prosper in a competitive environment only if they obtain, retain, and develop the quantity and quality of human resources they need (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996). The fundamental activities of human resource management are, therefore, to design and implement HR policies and practices more effectively so that employee performance can be improved and the organization's overall effectiveness can be enhanced. Bratton (1994) suggests that HRM activities/functions generally covers the five functional areas (see Figure 2.3).

Staffing:	*the obtaining of people with appropriate skills, abilities, knowledge and experience to fill jobs in the organization. Pertinent HRM activities are human resource planning, job analysis, recruitment and selection.*
Rewards:	*the design and administration of reward systems. The HRM tasks include job evaluation, appraisal, and benefits.*
Employee development:	*analyzing training requirements to ensure that employees possess the knowledge and skills to perform satisfactorily in their jobs or to advance in the organization. Performance appraisal can identify employee key skills and 'competencies'.*
Employee maintenance:	*the administration and monitoring or workplace safety, health, and welfare policies to retain a competent workforce and comply with statutory standards and regulations.*
Employee/industrial relations:	*the negotiations between management and union over decisions affecting employment. Under this heading may be a range of employee involvement or participation schemes.*

Figure 2.3 Human resource management activities
Source: Bratton, 1994, p.8

These HRM activities may vary from one workplace to another and may be influenced by such factors as ownership pattern, the structure and size of the organization, the presence or not of trade unions, as well as senior management's philosophy and strategy, etc.. Moreover, HRM activities need to be closely interrelated. For example, a company may reorganize production procedures, work methods and practices by introducing self-managed teams, this may necessitate different recruitment and selection priorities than a firm which uses conventional assembly-line production hiring unskilled workers. Furthermore, if management is concerned with employee welfare, a safe and healthy work environment also needs to be considered. Bratton stresses that:

> These sets of human resource management activities are designed to match individuals to organizational tasks, to motivate the workforce, and to deal with conflicts and tensions at work. Therefore, human resource management activities aim to achieve two sets of objectives: improve employee performance and enhance organizational effectiveness (Bratton, 1994: 10).

According to Schuler (1992), HRM activities can be utilized on a long-term basis as well as the more typical medium- and short-term bases. In utilizing human resource management activities in these three distinct time horizons, Human Resource Departments are generally operating at three organizational levels: operational, managerial, and strategic.

- At the *operational level* (short-term), human resource departments make staffing and recruitment plans, set up day-to-day monitoring systems, administer wage and salary programmes, administer benefits packages, set up annual or less frequent appraisal systems, set up day-to-day control systems, provide for specific job skill training, provide on-the-job training, fit individuals to specific jobs, and plan career moves.

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- At the *managerial level* (medium-term), human resource departments develop recruitment marketing plans and new recruiting market, set up five-year compensation plans for individuals, set up cafeteria benefits packages, foster self-development, identify career paths, and provide career development services.

- At the *strategic level* (long-term), human resource departments start (1) to seek ways in which organizations can gain competitive advantage - that is, beat their competitors by using human resource activities more effectively than their competitors, and (2) to link human resource activities to the needs of the business. It is at the strategic level that human resource management is likely to make a significant contribution during the 1990s and into the year 2000 and beyond (Schuler, 1992).

Mondy et al. (1993, 1996) indicate that a human resource manager is an individual who normally acts in an advisory or staff capacity, working with other line managers to help them deal with human resource matters. The role of HR specialists is illustrated by Kathryn McKee, a senior vice-president, human resources for First Interstate Bank, Ltd., who states that "I am now a strategic partner with line management and participate in business decisions which bring human resources perspectives to the general management of the company" (*Personnel Administration*, November, 1986, p.102). Moreover, Mondy et al. (1993, 1996) suggest that the role of human resource manager is primarily responsible for co-ordinating the management of human resources to help the organization achieve its goals. For instance, Jane Kay, a formerly vice-president of employee relations for Detroit Edison Company, indicates that "the human resource manager acts more in an advisory capacity, but should be a catalyst in proposing human relations policies to be implemented by line managers" (*Personnel Administration*, November, 1986, p.102). A senior vice-president for

American General Life Insurance Company also points out that "the human resource manager's role is to develop policies and programmes and to function as a catalyst and energizer of the relationship between line management and employees" (*Personnel Administration*, November, 1986, p.102).

2.6. Evaluation of the Theoretical and/or Analytical Models of HRM and Strategic HRM

The previous section introduced the HRM activities and the role of HRM managers/specialists. In this section, various theoretical or analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM are examined and compared in terms of their strengths and weaknesses.

2.6.1. The Harvard Model

The Harvard map depicted in Figure 2.4 consists of the five basic components: (1) stakeholder interests; (2) situational factors; (3) HRM policy choices; (4) HR outcomes; and (5) long-term consequences. This model focuses primarily on the HRM policy choices and suggests that management's decisions and actions in HR management are likely to be influenced by two major considerations. The first is the *stakeholder interests*: these various stakeholders' needs are the responsibility of management to meet and management's role is to balance those different needs. The second is the *situational factors* (all those factors that exist in both internal and external business environments, like management philosophy, task technology, business strategy and conditions, law and societal values, and the like), which may also impinge upon the HRM policy choices. These factors vary greatly between organizations and in an attempt to formulate an effective HRM policy, one may need to

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take them into account. Each of the situational factors may impact on the success or failure of HRM as a means of achieving organizational effectiveness.
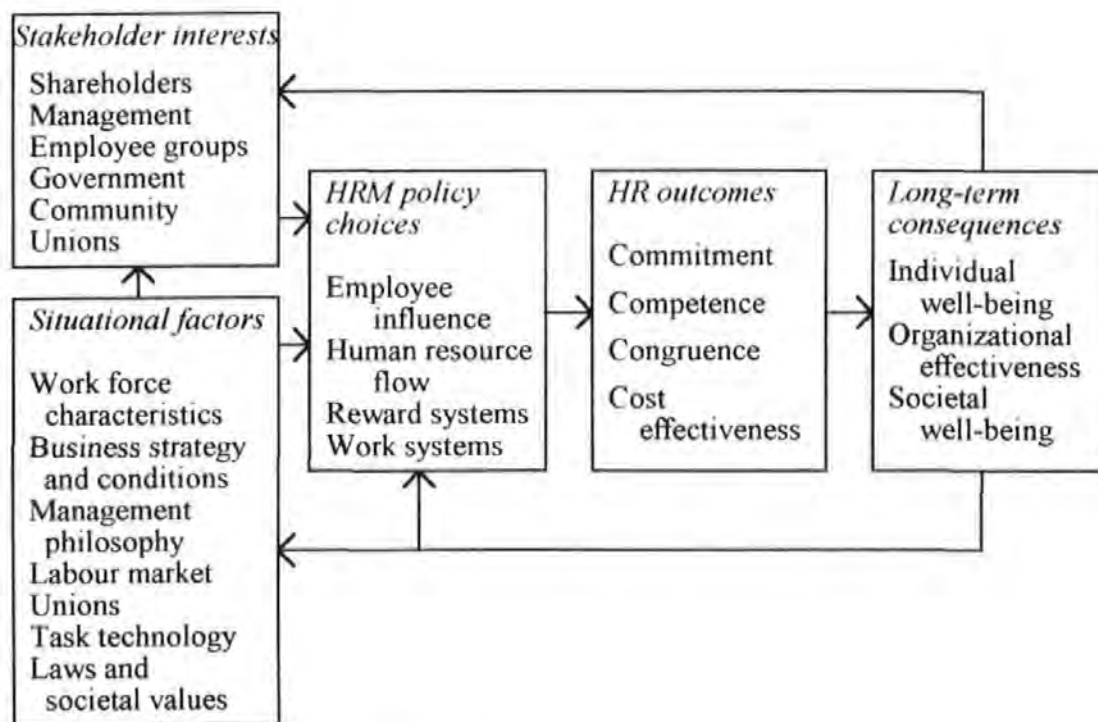
Figure 2.4 Map of the HRM territory
Source: Beer et al., 1984, p.17

In addition, this model delineates a set of policy choices that summarize the concept of HRM with regard to such aspects as *employee influence* (quality circles, job enrichment, etc.), *human resource flow* (from recruitment through to retirement), *reward systems* (in terms of both intrinsic and extrinsic forms), and *work systems* (to generate high commitment). These policy choices seeks to create a set of HR outcomes (commitment, competence, congruence and cost-effectiveness - the four Cs), which in turn may affect the long term consequences of individual well-being, organizational effectiveness, and societal well-being. The four Cs show that they may act as restraints on the formation of HRM policies and may also be affected by them. For instance, the

lack of congruence could be costly to management in terms of time, money, and generated stress and so forth. However, to complete the entire process, the long-term outputs need to feed back to influence the situational factors, stakeholder interests, and HRM policy choices as well. Thus, the feedback loop reflects a two-way relationship (see Figure 2.4).

According to Boxall (1992), the key features of the Harvard model are: (1) it provides a useful analytical basis for further study of HRM in different cultural contexts; (2) it takes situational factors, stakeholder interests, HRM policy choices, and prescriptive notions such as commitment, competence, congruence, etc. into account; and (3) it creates the basis for a comparative critique of human resource management in practice. The weakness of this model is that it does not seem to take factors such as organizational culture, size and structure, leadership, national culture, economy, and sector of industry into consideration.

2.6.2. Guest's Normative Model of HRM

Guest's (1989) 'bare bones' theory of human resource management illustrated in Figure 2.5 contains four main elements: (1) a set of *HRM policies*; (2) a set of *HR outcomes* or *HRM policy goals*; (3) a number of *organizational outcomes*; and (4) the '*cement*' that binds the system. According to Noon (1992) and Clark (1993), this normative model of human resource management seems to be heavily derived from the Harvard framework and developed by similar terminology to link HRM policies with HR outcomes and organizational outcomes, but which, as Guest (1989) suggests, need to be '*cemented*' by supportive *leadership*, a strong *culture*, and a conscious *strategy*. This element of strategy seems to stem from a US version of the strategic HRM presented by Devanna et al. (1982), which is more concerned with the role human

resources play in strategic management of the business. Referring to both versions, Guest (1989) thus synthesizes a UK version of a normative model of HRM and arrives at the proposition, "if an organization utilizes the policy areas listed in pursuit of the four HRM policy goals in a supportive organizational context, then positive outcomes should ensue" (p.50).

The HRM policies (e.g., recruitment, development, and reward systems, etc.) in Guest's normative model centre on a coherent use of conventional personnel activities which are assumed to influence HR outcomes. The HR outcomes encompassing strategic integration, commitment, flexibility, and quality.

- *Strategic integration* is concerned with ensuring that HRM is fully integrated into strategic planning.

- Like Beer et al. (1984), Guest (1989) regards *commitment* as an important outcome, concerned with the goals of binding employees to the organization and obtaining behavioural commitment to high performance.

- *Flexibility* is concerned with the organizational structure, which should be adaptive and receptive to innovation and changing market, and with what Atkinson and Meager (1984) term 'functional or numerical flexibility'.

- *Quality* is concerned with ensuring the high quality of goods and services, high quality of staff to provide these in the kind of flexible organization, and high-quality management of employees.

Guest stresses that these HRM policy goals (HR outcomes) are a package and each is important to ensure favourable organizational outcomes. Moreover, he argues that "only when a coherent strategy, directed towards these four policy goals, fully integrated into business strategy and fully sponsored by line management at all levels is applied will the high productivity and related outcomes sought by industry be

achieved" (Guest, 1989: 49-50). More recently, Guest and Peccei (1994: 220) postulate four models of effective human resource management, each assumes a particular focus of integration would be the most important in leading to effective HRM. These focuses are: organizational integration, policy integration, function integration, and process integration.

HRM policies	Human resource outcomes	Organizational outcomes
Organization/ job design		**High** Job performance
Management of change	Strategic integration	**High** Problem-solving Change
Recruitment, selection/ socialization	Commitment	Innovation
Appraisal, training development	Flexibility adaptability	**High** Cost-effectiveness
Reward systems		
Communication	Quality	**Low** Turnover Absence Grievances
	Leadership/culture/strategy	

Figure 2.5 A theory of HRM
Source: Guest, 1989, p.49

On the whole, Guest's normative model is a valuable analytical framework for studying HRM. The strength of this model is that it takes the implicit Harvard model and expresses it as a clearer, more carefully constructed set of theoretical propositions

which can be empirically tested. The weaknesses of the model are: (1) it may simply be an 'ideal-type' towards which western organizations can move, thus positing 'somewhat unrealistic conditions for the practice of human resource management' which should subsequently be relaxed; (2) it presents the HRM model as inconsistent with collective approaches to managing the employment relationship. HRM could be consistent with either individual or collective approaches depending on certain circumstances and strategic choices (Keenoy, 1990; Boxall, 1992; Bratton, 1994; Legge, 1989, 1995); and (3) it seems to ignore the external environments of national culture, labour market, economy, and technology, etc. and internal factors such as organizational structure, size, ownership pattern, and sector of industry. These internal and external factors are likely to influence the HRM policies a company pursues and the subsequent HRM and organizational outcomes.

2.6.3. A European Model of HRM

In the context of HRM specifically, European authors have argued that "we are in culturally different contexts" (Weiss, 1988: 206) and, "rather than copy solutions which result from other cultural traditions, we should consider the state of mind that presided in the search for responses adapted to the culture" (Albert 1989: 75). The inapplicability of American models of HRM in Europe has been noted in Germany. Gaugler (1988: 24-30) concludes that because of different legal, institutional and economic contexts there is no uniform model of personnel management: "an international comparison of HR practices clearly indicates that the basic functions of HR management are given different weights in different countries and that they are carried out differently". The European evidence also suggests that management sees the unions as social partners with a positive role to play in human resource

management: and the manifest success of many European firms which adopt that approach shows the, explicit or implicit, anti-unionism of many American views to be culture bound (Brewster, 1994). Moreover, Brewster and Bournois (1991) contend that if HRM is to become a theory that stands the test of international application, it needs to adopt the wider perspective of the model proposed by Kochan et al. (1986) and a more comprehensive view of the actors in the system. Due to those reasons discussed above, Brewster and Bournois (1992) thus proposed a **European model of HRM**, which is illustrated in Figure 2.6.

The model stresses that HR strategies should be firmly placed within the business strategy, and that the business strategy, HR strategy, and the cost-effectiveness of HRM (HRM practice) need to be located within an external environment of national culture, power systems, legislation, education, and employee representation, etc.. The organization and its human resource strategies and practices in turn interact with and are part of that environment. The model also places HR strategies in close interaction with the relevant corporate strategy and external environment in a way that is indicated in much of the literature but is indicated simply and clearly.

The key feature of this model is that it places HRM within the national context, therefore allowing fuller understanding of situations which may be different from that existing in the United States. According to Brewster and Hegewisch (1994), the strengths of this approach include: (1) a better fit of the model to the European scene and experience; (2) from the normative side, where commentators and consultants have criticized employing organizations and their personnel specialists for not adopting the American model, this model allows a change and enables consultants to be more modest and employers to be less defensive; (3) from the analytical side, where

academics have found little evidence of HRM in practice and significant shortcomings in the concept as it has come across to Europe from the USA, the model enables analysts to move beyond discussions of whether HRM should be accepted or rejected to a more positive debate about the forms and styles of change in people management; and (4) by allowing for a greater input into HRM from the environment in which the organization is located, this approach also enables the analysts to link HRM more clearly with international contextual variations.
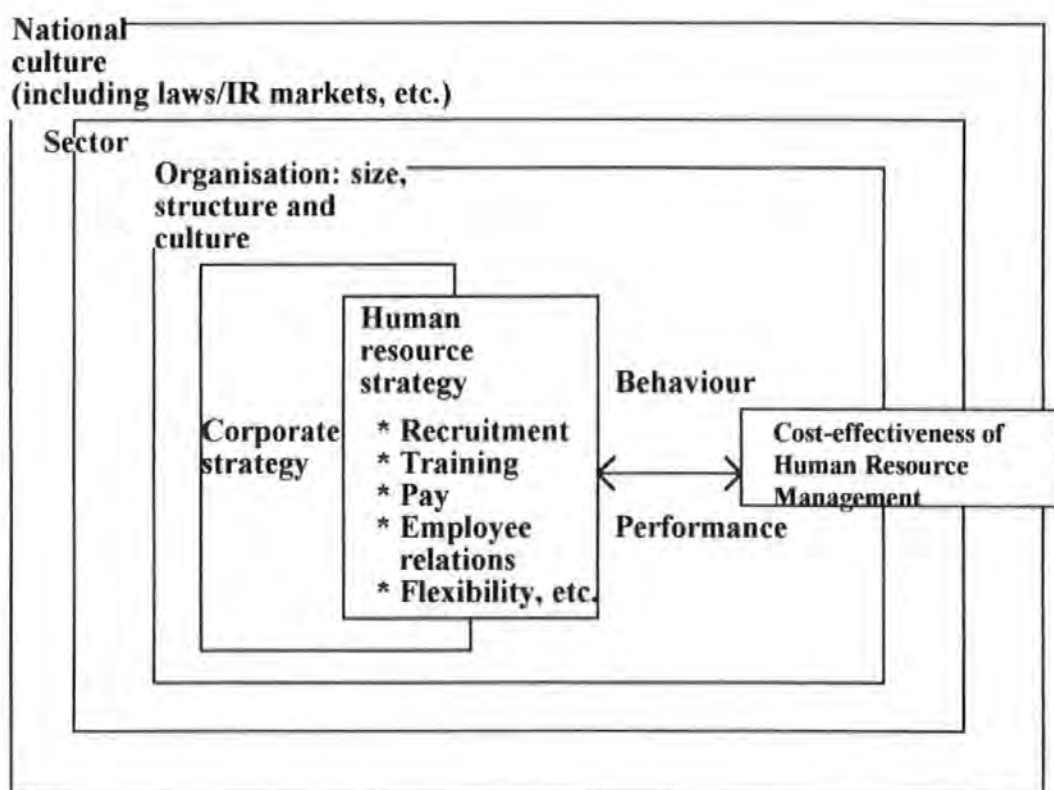
Figure 2.6 A model for investigating human resource strategies: the European environment
Source: Brewster and Bournois, 1991, p.12

Despite the strengths, this model has limitations as well. It seems that the model is not prescriptive beyond suggesting the importance of cost-effectiveness of HRM. Other potentially desirable HRM outcomes such as strategic integration, quality,

employee commitment, etc. seem to be neglected. In addition to organizational culture, size, and structure, factors like leadership and ownership pattern are also likely to influence the organization's corporate and HR strategies.

2.6.4. The Matching Model of HRM

In addition, much of the research work in the strategic HRM area has revolved around the nature of the links between business and human resource strategy. Linking business and human resource strategies was said to be originally stemmed from the matching model of HRM proposed by Fombrun et al. (1982). The model exhibited in Figure 2.7 introduced the concept of strategic HRM by which HRM policies should be closely linked to the formulation and implementation of strategic corporate and/or business objectives (Devanna et al., 1982). This model underlines the necessity of 'tight fit' between HR strategy and business strategy. As Devanna et al. (1982: 47) indicate, "...human resource management has been largely missing from the general strategic management process...the critical management task is to align the formal structure and the HRM systems so that they drive the strategic objectives of the organization".

However, Boxall (1992: 68-70) comments that the matching model of strategic HRM is seen to be a relatively simplistic one with very few assumptions and the reasons for this can be outlined as follows.

1. The problem associated with this model's assumptions stems from its implicit concept of strategy and strategy-making. It is based upon an overly-rationalistic conception of how strategy is formed (Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990). It fails to perceive the potential for a reciprocal relationship between HR strategy and business strategy (Butler, 1988; Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 1988).

Moreover, it assumes formulation rather than formation (Mintzberg, 1978). This thus leads to a conceptualization in which HRM is cast purely in a reactive, implementationalist role.
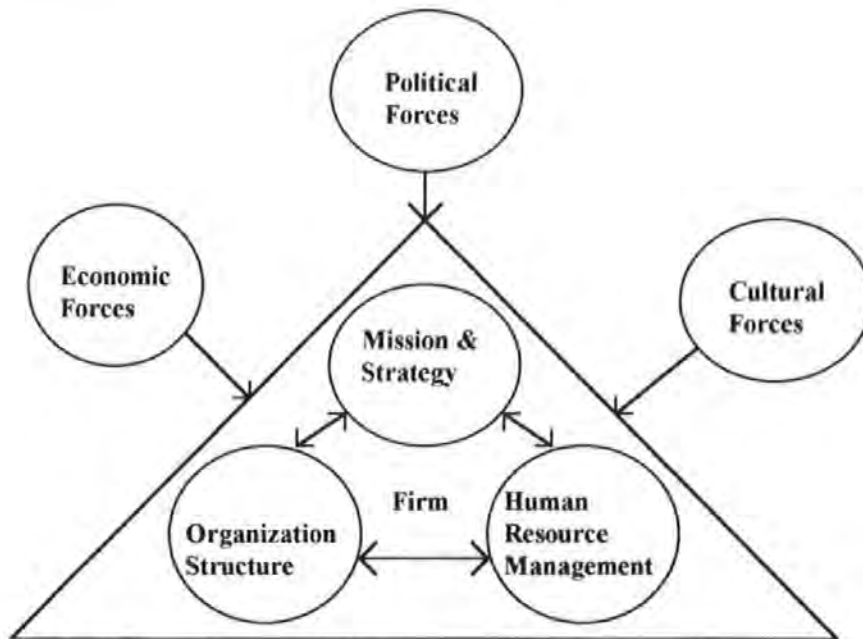
Figure 2.7 The matching model of HRM: strategic management and environmental pressures
Source: Tichy, Fombrun, and Devanna, 1982, p.48

2. Another problem is associated with the model's typical choice of the important content in HRM. The highly influential text by Fombrun et al. (1984) focused exclusively on the 'four generic functions' of selection, appraisal, rewards, and development. The difficulty with this simple framework is its omission of what many would regard as two absolutely fundamental (interrelated) policy domains; first, the basic organization of work and the associated style(s) of supervision and, second, the firm's attitude to such labour relations concerns as union recognition and collective bargaining (Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990).

3. There is criticism of the extent to which the model relies on the metaphor of 'fit'. Excessive fit, it is argued, can make an organization inflexible, incapable of adapting quickly to what has become a very dynamic environment (Evans, 1986). As Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988: 459-460) indicate, "the whole issue of fit deserves reassessment. Research has shown that achieving fit is not always desirable...a focus on maximizing fit can be counterproductive if organization change is needed or if the firm has adopted conflicting competitive goals to correspond to a complex competitive environment".

2.6.5. The Model of Strategic Change and Human Resource Management

The model of strategic change and human resource management proposed by Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) adopts the more inclusive Harvard framework for describing the range of HRM activity. The model in Figure 2.8 attempts a theoretically integrative framework encompassing all styles and modes of HRM and takes into account of the outer context - economic, technical, and socio-political influences in society on the organizational strategy.

The *Economic* aspect covers such factors as ownership and control, organization size and structure, an organization's growth path (or stage in the life cycle), and the structure of the industry and its markets. These factors may need to be closely interacted with one another. The growth path and industry structure define the competitive conditions an organization faces and its profitability. Strategy of an organization may also be affected by size and structure. The *Technical* refers to the technology in use and available, and the configuration of tasks in the way technology is adopted. The impact of changing technology on skill requirements and the way these

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are met, on work organization and practices, and how such changes are managed in employee/industrial relations terms, has become a central interest of management.

Outer context

Socio-economic
Technical
Political-legal
Competitive

Inner context

Culture
Structure
Politics/Leadership
Task-technology
Business outputs

Business strategy content

Objectives
Product-market
Strategy & tactics

HRM context

Role
Definition
Organization
HR outputs

HRM content

HR flows
Work systems
Reward systems
Employee relations
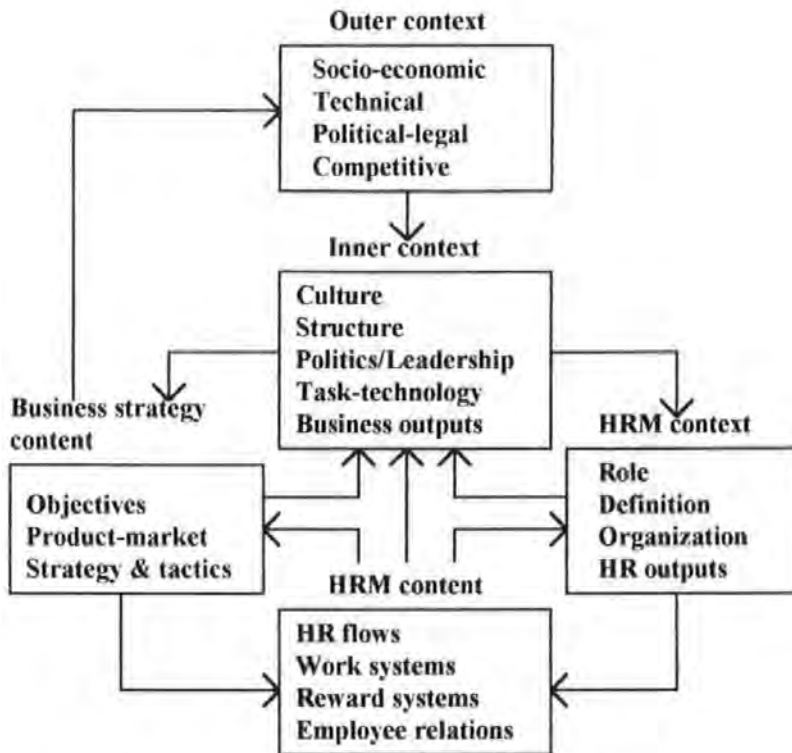
Figure 2.8 Strategic change and human resource management
Source: Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990, p.26

Since Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) regard HRM as a perspective on employment systems, characterised by their closer alignment with business strategy, this model thus attempts to explore "more fully the implications for employee relations of a variety of approaches to strategic management" (Boxall, 1992: 73). Goss (1994) also indicates that Hendry and Pettigrew draw explicitly on *a process model of strategic decision-making* which emphasizes the emergent, political and frequently non-rational nature of this process. For example:

The impact of (contextual) factors on the HR system of the firm - on recruitment and selection, on appraisal, on career planning, on the training and development of people, on pay, on employee relations, on work organization - is mediated at times by the personnel/HR function or at times by line managers. The precise role of the personnel function in this is influenced by its record of successes and failures, its orientation, its vision and capacity to enact a 'strategic' HRM, and its organization (Lundberg, 1985; Tyson and Fell, 1986; Sisson and Scullion, 1985). Similarly, business strategy evolves in response to success and failure, and is the work of people acting in rational-analytical, political, and emotional ways through organizational structures. In so far as HRM is responsive to business strategy, it is perforce 'emergent'. The criteria of coherence and appropriateness (fit) are therefore only ever provisionally attained (Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990: 31).

Based upon this account stated above, this model therefore tends to "lead to a less prescriptive and more people-centred approach and a more realistically pluralist view of employment relations" (Goss, 1994: 13). However, the major limitation of this model is that it seems to ignore national culture and labour market in the outer context.

It should be noted that, apart from these five models of HRM examined above, other models such as *the human resource management cycle* (Devanna et al., 1984), *a framework for analyzing HRM issues* (Singh, 1992, 1996), the *5-P model of strategic human resource management* (Schuler, 1992), and *twenty-seven points of difference* (Storey, 1992) may also serve as useful conceptual frameworks for the study and understanding of the concept of HRM and strategic HRM.

2.6.6. Criticisms of These Models

It appears that these theoretical or analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM discussed above are either American or European in origin and many of them seem to reflect the particular cultural characteristics of their country of origin. Although these models, on the one hand, may possibly be considered as a particular approach to the management of the employment relationship with a set of HRM

policies (e.g., recruitment, training, and rewards, etc.) designed to pursue the desired HRM and organizational outcomes (e.g., high employee commitment and job performance, etc.), on the one hand, it seems likely that the underlying assumptions, the distinctive characteristics, and the desired HRM outcomes of these models are culture-bound. This raises questions as to whether these American and European models of HRM and strategic HRM can be applied equally well in different socio-cultural contexts (e.g., in South East Asian countries).

Further, there seems to be little empirical evidence provided by the researchers (the ones cited above), who devised these models of HRM and strategic HRM, to demonstrate: (1) how the situational factors, e.g., national culture, economy, and technology may influence an organization's HRM policies and practices; (2) how HRM policies and practices (e.g., selection, training, and pay, etc.) can be used effectively to increase the performance, commitment, and job satisfaction of employees (desired HRM outcomes); and (3) whether there are any contradictions or inconsistencies between and within the components of each model. For example, Keenoy (1990) argues that the goals of integration, quality, flexibility, and commitment presented in Guest's soft model of HRM (see Figure 2.5) may well not be mutually compatible and, in practice, may be difficult to achieve. Therefore, the validity, applicability, and practicability of these models may be questioned. In addition, these models appear to be unidirectional ("←" or "↓"). In practice, the use of a dual-way "↔" feedback loop may be more appropriate because it represents a continuously interactive flow of communications, planning, adjustments, and/or evaluations.

2.7. Contradictions in HRM: A Critical Analysis

The previous section reviewed the strengths and weaknesses of the conceptual models of HRM and strategic HRM. This section attempts to identify the inherent contradictions and inconsistencies within HRM.

2.7.1. The Problem of Integration

As noted earlier, one of the HRM features that differs from conventional personnel management is that the former places the emphasis on the importance of strategic integration, which means the desirability to integrate HRM policies to the strategic business needs (Devanna et al., 1982; Guest, 1989). Nevertheless, HRM still inevitably appears to be problematic at the level of integration. Legge (1989, 1995) indicates that, at the surface level, the value of integration inevitably embodies a logical contradiction and thus given the dual usage of the notion of integration: the external integration or fit of HRM with the organization's broader business strategy and the internal consistency of the HRM outcomes (e.g., strategic integration, employee commitment, flexibility, and quality). According to Armstrong (1992), the integration of HRM and business strategy, especially in a diversified organization, may be difficult because the different levels at which business strategy is formulated and the different styles adopted by organizations may make it difficult to develop a coherent view of what sort of HRM policies may fit the overall business strategies and what type of HR contributions are required during the process of strategy formulation.

Miller (1987) also indicates that to achieve competitive advantage, each business unit in a diversified organization may adjust its HRM policy to its own product or service market conditions, irrespective of the HRM polices being pursued

elsewhere in the organization. If this is the case, there may be coherence within a unit, but not across the whole organization, and it may also be difficult to focus HRM policies on corporate needs. Moreover, such an organization, presumably, sought integration only at the financial level and allowed its business units a high level of autonomy, as a consequence, no organization-wide strong culture under these circumstances would be likely to develop. Legge (1989, 1995) argues that a problem would also arise if there developed a perceived requirement to integrate two or more sub-units in a manner that required integration at operating level and, hence, of personnel. Then not only would the difficulty of merging distinct sub-cultures be likely, but perceptions of potential inequalities and inconsistencies between previously autonomous units' HRM policies might undermine the trust and commitment that was supposed to develop from perceptions of congruence.

The 'soft-hard' distinction also raises the question of integration - the integration of the two variants of HRM. As is discussed in Section 2.2, Guest (1989) suggests that the theory/model of HRM, ideally, should embrace both the 'soft' and 'hard' components. However, Storey (1989, 1992) points out that there is very little evidence available about the extent to which organizations have achieved this, and therefore he suggests that possibly one way in which this can be resolved is by pursuing 'soft' HRM for 'core' employees and the 'hard' variant for periphery employees. Particularly, when firms facing competitive product and skill markets may on the one hand apply 'soft' models of HRM to core workers, developing those employees through multi-skilling (functional flexibility) while at the same time responding to competitive pressures and market fluctuations through policies of numerical flexibility and contingent employment among those groups less central to the production process and/or more easily replaceable from the external labour market

(Blyton and Turnbull, 1992). Such an approach, however, may conceivably undermine the commitment of the latter (peripheral employees). As Legge (1989, 1995) argues, if 'soft' version of HRM policies were adopted for managerial staff and the 'hard' versions for direct employees, this would result in a lack of integration or internal consistency which might further undermine the commitment of core employees. This exercise has been as the result in the pursuit of competitive advantage through Tayloristic work organization, treating labour as a variable input, and exploiting the secondary labour market rather than through enhancing the skills and quality of the workforce.

Hyman (1987) further points out that if HRM, in theory, demands the integration of employment policies with business strategy, and hence, in some circumstances, treating labour as a variable input, consistent adherence to the 'soft' versions of HRM model may then come under pressure when employers require workers to be both dependable and disposable. This contradiction is evident when companies simultaneously confronted by recession and growing market maturity. For example, organizations like IBM and Hewlett-Packard have been caught between commitment to 'no redundancy' in the light of their public adherence to the 'soft' versions of HRM model and the need for different skills and fewer people. Another example is given by Sparrow and Pettigrew (1988) who indicates that while the adoption of retraining strategies was consistent with soft versions of HRM, the need for achieving a lower headcount overall was delineated by the strategy of compulsory unpaid leave days and the offer of early retirement incentives, which seems to illustrate 'tough love' in action.

2.7.2. The Problem of Internal Inconsistencies

In addition, it should be noted that although HRM policies can be developed to pursue the desired HRM policy goals, such policy goals as Legge (1989, 1995) suggests tend to suffer from three inherent contradictions or inconsistencies in actual practices: individualism and teamwork (co-operation); commitment to a job and flexibility; and the development of a strong culture and adaptability.

- *Individualism and teamwork (co-operation)*: according to Legge (1989, 1995), HRM highlights the importance of congruence through the organization and thus policies are adopted to develop teamwork, quality circles, functional flexibility, and cooperation. At the same time, there is a great emphasis upon the individual contribution to the work process, potential for development, and identity within the organization. The contradiction is apparent when an organization, for example, introduces systems of individualized reward (e.g., performance-related pay and merit pay, etc.) to increase individual motivation, performance, and commitment; this may, however, undermine cooperation between employees within the organization because they are likely to compete with each other and therefore threaten congruence.

- *Commitment to a job and flexibility*: although many HRM models stress high performance, quality, and commitment, there may be circumstances when these are incompatible. For instance, quality performance may rely on building up expertise over a period of time, but the company's requirement for functional flexibility (for congruence and cost reasons) may reduce competence levels. On the one hand, employees may be more widely skilled, on the other hand, their competence in these skills may be poor because they are likely to have less opportunities to develop

specialized knowledge of the work process over time (Legge, 1989, 1995). Noon (1992) also argues that employees may dislike the dissonance created between commitment to the task (encouraged by the individually-based performance management mechanisms) and commitment to the company (encouraged through the rhetoric of culture and the rewards of promotion and employment security), particularly as the notion of commitment is undermined by factors outside the control of the committed employees. For example, IBM, one of the well-known 'HRM companies', delineats the vulnerability of the workforce to such external factors: the firm was famous for its employment security but had been recently placed in the position of reducing its US workforce by 4.5 per cent (10,000 jobs) due to deteriorating performance in the slowing US economy (*Financial Times*, 6 December 1989, citing from Noon (1992)). Likewise, Hewlett-Packard had been placed in a similar position because of market changes, and therefore attempted to restructure and rationalize its workforce as a cost-cutting exercise (*Financial Times*, 22 March 1991, citing from Noon (1992)).

- *The development of a strong culture and adaptability*: while the Guest model underlines a strong culture to encourage shared values, create meaning, and elicit commitment, equally there should be an emphasis placed upon flexibility as well as adaptability. Brunsson (1982) indicates that a strong organizational culture may constrain change because the ideology (culture) that enacted in HRM may hinder an organization's adaptation to changing circumstances (e.g., market, economic, political, and social, etc.). Legge (1989, 1995) also emphasizes that the development of a strong culture congruent with and supportive of a particular business strategy may act as a block to employees adopting different behaviours in response to changing market demand. According to the example provided by

Mercer (1987), IBM's culture, 'IBM is service', contained particular assumptions about the nature of product and service (e.g., mainframe, customized systems, and salesmen as management consultants to customer-as-end-use, seeking quality of product and service) which might be inappropriate when strategy dictated an entry into the personal computers market (e.g., standardized product, cost competition, and dealer as customer). Hence, the success of the IBM service ethic in its traditional markets inhibited an adaptive response from employees to a new market. Moreover, Legge (1989, 1995) stresses that the relationship between 'strong' cultures, employee commitment, and adaptability may also involve a series of paradoxes. For instance, while strong cultures allow for a rapid response to familiar conditions, they may also obstruct immediate flexibility in response to the unfamiliar due to the commitment generated from a strong culture.

2.8. A Framework for Analyzing HRM Issues in Taiwan

The current context of Taiwan introduced in Chapter 1 and the various American and/or European models of HRM and strategic HRM examined in Section 2.6 have provided a base for the development of an appropriate framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan, which is shown in Figure 2.9. This framework incorporates a range of HRM policies/activities such as HR planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, pay and benefits, health and safety, teamworking, and employee-shares ownership. These policies/activities were those perceived as important and which had been implemented to varying degrees by some employing organizations in Taiwan, according to the partial research findings of a group of Taiwanese researchers (e.g., Chu, 1990; Yeh, 1991; Kao, 1993; Hsu, 1993; He, 1993; Chin, 1993; Tsai, 1995; Lin, 1997; Huang, 1997) (see Chapter 1, Section 1.6).

External Environment	Organization	Internal Environment
Economy (high growth)	**Corporate Strategy**	Sector of Industry
Labour Market (low unemployment and high quality labour supply)	↕	Organization Form/ Structure (family, level of decision-making)
Foreign Direct Investment	**HRM Policies/Activities**	Organizational Culture
Education and Training Systems (vocational and/or occupational oriented)	HR Planning	*Work-Related Values of Employees
	*Recruitment and Selection (in-group practices)	Leadership Style (authoritarian-paternalist)
*National Culture (Confucianism and family-based culture)	Training and Development	*Company Size (small, medium, and large)
Western Management Theories, Practices, and Techniques (e.g., HRM, motivation theory)	Pay and Benefits	*Ownership Pattern (family-owned businesses)
	Health and Safety	
	Teamworking	
Technology	Employee Influence (share ownership)	
Law and Regulations (labour standards law and equal opportunity legislation, etc.)		

Figure 2.9 A framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan
Note: *indicates the focused areas of this research

External Environment
National Culture

↔

Internal Environment
Company Size
Ownership Pattern
Work-Related Values of Employees

ORGANIZATION
Integration of Corporate Strategy and HRM

Devolvement of Responsibility for HRM
Activities to Line Management

Recruitment and Selection Policies and Practices
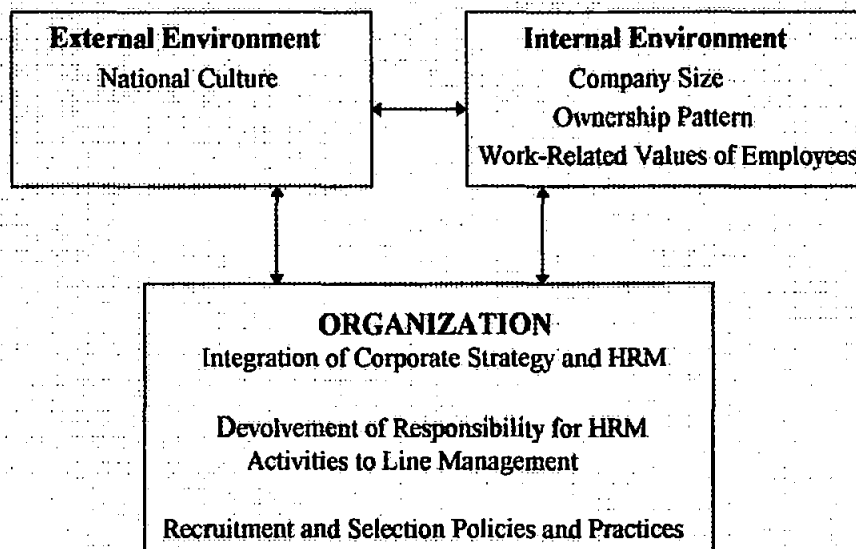
Figure 2.10 The simplified framework of HRM for this research

As with other management functions (e.g., finance, marketing, and operation), an organization's business strategy and HRM policies and practices do not exist in a vacuum, they may be highly affected by a wide range of environmental factors and influences. Therefore, this framework has taken into account the current external and internal environmental contexts of organizations in Taiwan and has closely linked an organization's business strategy and HRM policies/activities to its outer and inner environments. Examples of these external contexts and influences at a macro level include the recent Taiwan's economic achievement, the government's emphasis on technology-based industries and service sectors, labour market conditions (low turnover and unemployment), foreign direct investment from e.g., the USA and Japan, vocational/occupational-oriented education and training systems, high quality labour supply, law and regulations (e.g., labour standards law and equal opportunity legislation). Examples of the micro level internal factors include work-related values of Taiwanese people which workers bring with them to the organization, the influences of Confucianism, as well as the traditional family culture (e.g., small- and medium-sized family businesses, hierarchy in structure, paternalist type of leadership style, and centralized decision-making, etc.) (see Chapter 1, Sections 1.1 to 1.6).

Compared with the normative models as examined in Section 2.6, it appears that the Guest model does not take the external factors into consideration, that the Harvard model has overlooked internal factors like leadership, organizational culture, structure, size, ownership pattern, and sector of industry, that the Hendry and Pettigrew' model does not include national culture and the labour market in the outer context, and that Brewster and Bournois' model is not prescriptive beyond suggesting the importance of cost-effectiveness of HRM. Unlike any of these American and European models of HRM, the framework in Figure 2.9 encompasses the work-related

values of Taiwanese non-managerial employees as part of the internal environment, employees' attitudes towards leadership style, security, challenge, recognition, and earnings, as well as their attitudes towards traditional Chinese/Confucian work values such as harmony, industry, and perseverance, etc. (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3). Although the Harvard model also includes employees as stakeholders, it does not seem to take their work values and attitudes into consideration. In addition, Figure 2.9 also provides a dual-way feedback loop to each and between the components. "↔" represents a continuously interactive flow of communications, planning, adjustments, and/or evaluations. This dual-way feedback loop seems to be neglected in the matching model, Harvard model, Guest model, the European model, as well as Hendry and Pettigrew' model (see Sections 2.6.1 to 2.6.5).

In this research, the focus is primarily placed upon some of the elements of the framework. For example, national culture as part of the external environment is examined as are company size, ownership pattern, and employee work-related values as part of the internal environment. At the level of the organization, three main elements of HRM are also examined: the strategic aspect of HRM, the devolvement of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management, and recruitment and selection policies and practices. These focused areas of the research (see "*" in Figure 2.9) are highlighted in 'the simplified framework of HRM' (see Figure 2.10). This simplified framework has been used as the base for the research undertaken, reported, and analyzed in the remaining chapters of this thesis.

2.9. Summary and Conclusions

The primary objective of the foregoing review of the literature is to facilitate the development of an appropriate framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan.

Several of the theoretical or analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM discussed in this chapter are useful in this respect. Even though these models may serve as a useful conceptual background for the study of HRM, it seems highly possible that the underlying assumptions, the distinctive characteristics, and the desired HRM outcomes of these American and/or European models may be culture-bound and thus may not be appropriate when applied to Taiwan.

According to the current context of Taiwan introduced in Chapter 1 and the various American and/or European models of HRM and strategic HRM examined in this chapter, a framework for analyzing HRM issues in Taiwan was developed. The simplified framework of HRM proposed in this study has been used as the base for the research conducted in the remaining chapters of this thesis. In this framework, the strategic aspect of HRM (the integration of HRM and corporate strategy) and the devolvement of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management are examined in Chapters 2 and 6. National culture is examined as part of the external environment (see Chapters 4 and 5) and company size, ownership pattern, and employee work-related values are examined as part of the internal environment (see Chapters 5 and 7). First of all, recruitment and selection policies and practices as a major area of HRM activity are explored in detail in next chapter.

Chapter 3   Recruitment and Selection Policies and Practices

3.0.   Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the concept of HRM and developed an appropriate conceptual framework. This chapter presents an overview of recruitment and selection policies and practices, which is one of the main areas of HRM activity identified in the model that proposed in Chapter 2. There are eleven sections in this chapter. The first section begins with the importance of recruitment and selection to an organization and then examines definitions, responsibilities, and purposes of recruitment, discusses the external environment of recruitment and the recruitment process, identifies methods used in internal and external recruitment, examines the nature of selection, selection responsibilities, the selection process, introduces a range of selection techniques/instruments, and ends with a summary and some conclusions of this chapter.

The primary objectives of this chapter are:

1. to review previous research and the academic literature on recruitment and selection policies and practices;

2. to provide a base for identifying issues and facilitating the development of appropriate hypotheses, which are discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2; and

3. to facilitate the development of appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques in Taiwan, which are illustrated in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.

3.1.   The Importance of Recruitment and Selection to an Organization

In spite of considerable debates concerning the nature of HRM and influences upon it, there is some measure of general agreement that the content of

HRM includes *recruitment* and *selection policies* and *practices* (see for example HRM activities exhibited in Chapter 2, Figure 2.2). According to Beer et al. (1984), recruitment and selection not only seek to attract, obtain, and retain the quantity and quality of human resources the organization needs to achieve the strategic goals, but may also have significant impacts upon the composition of the workforce, the ultimate fit of employees with the organization' needs and culture, and upon long-range employment stability. The effective use of recruitment and selection policies and practices may also improve the commitment and performance of employees and reduce their absenteeism and turnover rates, etc. (desired HRM outcomes in the Guest model) (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6).

It has been argued that recruitment and selection are activities that are particularly prone to be affected by the changes impacting on a company and in particular economic cycles of boom and recession which can encourage changing requirements and approaches (Wright and Storey, 1994). Since the late 1980s, a number of American and British academics and commentators (e.g., Curnow, 1989; Schuler 1992; Mondy et al., 1996; Wright and Storey, 1994, 1997) have begun to pay greater attention to the importance of recruitment and selection practices. In part this is due to the pressures, such as continuing skills shortages in certain sectors of the economy and the prospect of a significant decline in the number of young people (the so-called 'demographic time bomb') available for work, which have consequently forced organizations to reconsider and develop their recruitment practices more effectively as part of a strategic approach to HRM.

Beaumont (1993: 56) also identifies two themes in the HRM literature which 'appear to have enhanced the potential importance of the selection decision in individual organizations in the current operating environment'. First, the desire

for a multi-skilled and flexible workforce and an increased emphasis on teamworking has meant that selection decisions tend to be more concerned with behaviour and attitudes than with matching individuals to immediate job requirements. Second, the link between corporate strategy and HRM has led to the notion of strategic selection, e.g., a system that links selection to the overall organizational strategy, and that aims to match the flow of personnel to emerging business strategies.

According to Wright and Storey (1997), the importance of recruitment and selection in an HRM environment is supported by empirical evidence. A study of HRM in 15 organizations (Storey, 1992: 100) found that a number of the case companies had introduced initiatives promising more systematic selection and some were trying to test for appropriate attitudinal and behavioural characteristics. Even the companies that had not introduced new initiatives claimed to be addressing selection with a new seriousness.

3.2.   Definitions, Responsibilities, and Purposes of Recruitment

Having provided the reasons for the growing importance of recruitment and selection in the preceding section, this section examines the definitions, responsibilities, and purposes of recruitment.

3.2.1. Definitions

Mondy et al. define recruitment as:

> the process of attracting individuals on a timely basis, in sufficient numbers and with appropriate qualifications, and encouraging them to apply for jobs with an organization (Mondy et al., 1996: 150).

Another definition is provided by Schuler who indicates that:

> recruitment involves the searching for and obtaining (of) qualified job candidates in such numbers that the organization can select the most appropriate person to fill its job needs. In addition to filling job needs, the recruitment activity should be concerned with satisfying the needs of the job candidates. Consequently, recruitment not only attracts individuals to the organization but also increases the chance of retaining the individuals once they are hired (Schuler, 1992: 147).

3.2.2. Responsibilities

The distribution of recruiting responsibilities may vary with the size and structure of the organization, ownership pattern, and different national and legislative systems. For example, in the USA, recruitment is likely to be the responsibility of individual/line managers in small companies. But in most large and medium-sized organizations, the recruitment process is usually co-ordinated through the Personnel/Human Resource department, which maintains and analyzes human resource plans as part of a perpetual recruiting effort, while line managers in different departments often help in recruiting efforts by determining the skills and qualifications that individuals need to fill vacancies in their areas. Mathis and Jackson (1988) illustrate a typical distribution of recruiting responsibilities between the P/HR department and managers as is shown in Figure 3.1.

P/HR UNIT	MANAGERS
• Forecasts recruiting needs • Prepares copy for recruiting ads and campaigns • Plans and conducts recruiting efforts • Audits and evaluates recruiting activities	• Determine qualifications and anticipate needs • Assist in recruiting effort • Provide management review of recruiting efforts

Figure 3.1. Recruiting Responsibilities
Source: Mathis and Jackson, 1988, p.188

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However, in some European countries such as France, Ireland, United Kingdom, and the Netherlands, both line managers and the HR department are responsible for the recruitment process, but line mangers rarely hold the sole responsibility for recruitment activities. In Scandinavian countries, line managers are very much involved in the management of recruitment and their responsibilities have increased in recent years. In this latter case, both line management and the HR department are responsible for the recruitment process with the HR department being supportive of line management (Hollinshead and Leat, 1995). Such sharing of responsibility is consistent with the participative, co-operative cultural characteristics that seem to be common in Scandinavian countries (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3).

3.2.3. Purposes

Mondy et al. (1996) and Wright and Storey (1994) emphasize that recruitment should be regarded as a key function of every organization because the recruitment process enables the organization not only to attract and retain the interest of suitable applicants, but also to project a positive image of the organization to those who come in contact with it. Schuler (1992) suggests that the main purposes of recruitment should be to:

- determine the organization's present and future recruitment needs in conjunction with human resource planning and job analysis;
- increase the pool of qualified job applicants at minimum cost to the organization;
- help increase the success rate of the (subsequent) selection process by reducing the number of obviously under-qualified or over-qualified job applicants;

- help reduce the probability that job applicants, once recruited and selected, will leave the organization after only a short period of time by providing applicants with sufficient information about the organization and target position to allow them to self-select themselves out of the process before being engaged;

- meet the organization's responsibilities, legal and social obligations regarding the composition of the workforce;

- increase organizational and individual effectiveness in the short term and the long term;

- evaluate the effectiveness of various techniques and locations of recruiting all types of applicants (Schuler, 1992: 148).

3.3. External Environment of Recruitment

The previous section examined the definitions, responsibilities, and purposes of recruitment. This section briefly discusses some of the important external factors that are likely to affect an organization's recruitment process.

As with the determination of HR policies and practices, the recruitment process does not take place in a vacuum; factors external to the organization may significantly influence the firm's recruitment efforts. For example, in Taiwan, when the economy is growing rapidly and unemployment levels are very low, recruitment efforts may have to be increased. When the economy is stagnant and unemployment levels are high, the number of unsolicited applicants is usually greater, and hence the company can obtain a large applicant pool which provides the firm with a better opportunity for attracting qualified applicants.

Moreover, organizations should recruit in areas where they have the greatest probability of achieving success. Although the local labour market may

generally be the best place to initiate recruitment efforts, at times, regional or national recruitment may be necessary for certain positions. For example, in the UK and USA, the relevant labour market for recruiting blue-collar or clerical employees is usually the local labour market; the labour market for technical employees is a regional market and for managerial, executive, and professional employees is more likely to be a national or regional labour market. In some parts of Europe, there are strong regional or geographic labour markets and this is reflected in: (1) regional differences in recruitment behaviour in terms of mobility or sexual equality; (2) strong divisions on the grounds of religious, ethnic or cultural traditions; and (3) a strong economic focus on particular regions within countries (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994). For example, there is little or no geographic mobility for non-executive employees in Spain (Vicente, 1993) and trades unions are fiercely opposed to an opening up of the labour market and moves from one part of the country to another. However, in Sweden, the government has intervened to encourage mobility as an alternative to unemployment (Andersen, La Cour, Svendsen, Kiel, Kamp and Larsen, 1993).

Recruitment, selection, and termination approaches may vary from country to country; and approaches and practices common or accepted in one country may not be in another. In some countries, the processes of recruitment and selection and termination are regulated by the law. There may well be a link between national culture, legislative environment, and regulation, for example, in the USA, the doctrine of employ at will and in Europe, the tradition of regulation of employers' prerogative to hire and fire at will. Within the European Union, there are legislative restrictions upon sex discrimination in the recruitment and selection

processes - arguably reflecting a 'feminine' culture consistent with the social democratic tradition of North Europe and Scandinavia.

3.4. The Recruitment Process

The previous section discussed some of the important external factors that may affect an organization's recruitment process. This section outlines the recruitment process and a number of activities included in this process.

By referring to Mathis and Jackson (1988), Mondy et al. (1996), and Cherrington (1995), a model of the idealized recruitment process, which basically includes the following activities, is proposed (see Figure 3.2). It should be noted that the sequence of the recruitment activities may vary from company to company and from one country to another; and some of the activities may even be omitted depending on the employment policies, size, and structure of the organization, ownership pattern, and the sector of industry, etc..

Human Resource Planning: the P/HR managers (or called 'recruiters') identify job openings through human resource planning or requests by other managers in different departments of the company. The human resource plan can be especially helpful because it demonstrates to the recruiters both present and future labour requirements. As Werther and Davis (1996) indicate, 'human resource planning', advanced knowledge of job openings, allows the recruiters to be proactive. After identifying openings, the recruiters learn what each job requires by reviewing the job analysis information, particularly the job descriptions and job specifications. According to Cherrington (1995), job analysis is the study of jobs within a company and it typically consists of analyzing the activities that an

employee performs, the tools, equipment, and work aids that the employee uses, and the working condition under which the activities are performed. There are three components of job analysis that form the essential part of a job description: (1) the purpose of a job; (2) the major duties and responsibilities contained in a job; and (3) the conditions under which the job is performed. Wright and Storey (1997) provide a good example of a job description for the position of a personnel assistant at a hypothetical university (see Figure 3.3). On the basis of the job description, job specifications are written. A job specification identifies the minimum acceptable qualifications required for an employee to perform the job adequately. The information contained in a job specification generally falls into one of three categories: (1) general qualification requirements such as experience and training; (2) educational requirements, including high school, university, or vocational education, and (3) knowledge, skills, and ability. Moreover, at times, even when companies have no vacancies, they may still continue to recruit. This is because the recruitment practice allows them to maintain recruitment contacts and to identify exceptional candidates for future employment (Cherrington, 1995; Mondy et al., 1996).

Recruitment Strategy: after a company has identified how many people it needs to recruit, a specific strategy may help an organization to identify how the employees will be recruited, where they will come from, and when they should be recruited. Numerous methods are available for helping the recruiters decide how to find job applicants. For instance, private employment agencies, newspaper advertising are some of the most popular methods for attracting recruits. These and other methods will be elaborated on in Sections 3.5 and 3.6.

EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

Human Resource Planning
Job Openings
Job Analysis
　Job Descriptions
　Job Specifications

Recruitment Strategy
How, Where, and When
Attracting Recruits
Realistic Job Previews
Entry Positions

Recruitment Methods

Internal Methods
promotion-from-within
transfers
job rotations

External Methods
employee referrals
colleges/universities
private employment agencies
public employment agencies
recruitment consultants
executive search consultants
direct applications
advertisements in the media

Recruited Individuals

Figure 3.2 The recruitment process

SOARBRIDGE UNIVERSITY

Job description

Job title: Personnel assistant

Location: City campus

Responsible to: Personnel officer (staffing)

Responsible for: 2 clerical officers

Purpose of post

To assist the Personnel officer (staffing) with the recruitment and selection programme.

Key duties

1. To assume special responsibility for the recruitment and selection of all non-academic staff including:

    1.1 writing of job descriptions and person specifications;

    1.2 writing and placing of appropriate advertisements and monitoring their effectiveness;

    1.3 making arrangements for selection interviews;

    1.4 representing the Personnel Department on selection interview panels;

    1.5 taking up references and despatching offer letters.

2. To be responsible for the collation and maintenance of staffing records and monitoring applications by race, sex, and disability. This work will also involve working on the Department's computer.

3. To prepare and issue contracts of employment, open a personal file for each staff member and inform Payroll of all necessary details.

4. To arrange initial induction training for all non-academic staff.

5. To supervise two clerical officers in the staffing section.

6. Special projects and other duties as required.

Figure 3.3 Example of a job description
Source: Wright and Storey, 1997, p.214

- Where to recruit: in deciding where to recruit, Cherrington (1995) suggests that two factors should be taken into account. First, a company should identify the prime labour markets from which potential applicants can be obtained. Secondly, an organization should analyze its own workforce and identify the sources of its best employees. For example, a company may discover that most of its outstanding employees tend to come from one particular source, such as a particular university, a vocational school, or a private employment agency.

- Attracting recruits: whatever the image projected, companies pursuing HRM policies should aim to create and maintain an internal labour market. For instance, an effective promotion-from-within policy (the internal source of recruitment) enables companies not only to provide present employees with greater opportunities for career advancement and greater motivation for good performance, but also to improve their job satisfaction and commitment towards the organizational goals and consequently reduce turnover rates and absenteeism (desired HRM outcomes) (see Section 3.5). Furthermore, the enhanced focus upon the internal market may also increase the attraction of the company among workers in the external markets and form part of the image projected. Images projected and values and information provided on recruitment advertisements (e.g., salary level and career prospects, etc.) may also interact with workers in the external labour markets, including both employed and unemployed. This interaction may then determine the degree of attraction to a company on the part of potential recruits.

- Realistic Job Previews (RJPs): job seekers sometimes have little information about the company to which they apply for posts. Realistic Job Previews, as suggested by Herriot (1989: 48), may take the form of case studies of employees

and their work, the chance to 'shadow' someone at work, job sampling and videos, and may better allow applicants to decide whether a particular job is suited to their needs. The aim of RJPs is to enable the expectations of applicants to become more realistic (Gold, 1994). Premack and Wanous (1985: 706) argue that although RJPs may lower initial expectations about work and a company, causing some applicants to de-select themselves, RJPs can still be seen as a useful recruiting strategy to achieve the desired HRM and organizational outcomes, such as increasing employees' commitment, job satisfaction, and performance as well as reducing turnover rates among applicants who continue into employment (see the Guest model in Chapter 2, Section 2.6).

- Entry position: another recruitment strategy decision is where the entry level positions are within a company hierarchy. According to Cherrington (1995: 197), most companies typically have two major entry-level positions. One entry-level position is at the very bottom of a company. For instance, a new employee may be hired to fill an operative or production level job with the possibility of eventual promotion to the job of first-line supervisor. The second entry-level position is in a lower level of management, such as in first- or second-level supervisor, or in a staff department. Individuals hired into these positions should be considered to have potential for advancement into upper levels of management. The career paths for each entry level position also need to be considered during the recruitment process.

Recruitment sources/methods (Internal and External): once the human resource planning and recruitment strategies have been developed, the next step in the recruitment process is to determine whether a particular job opening should be filled by someone already employed within the company or by recruiting someone

from outside, such as colleges, universities, or private employment agencies (see Sections 3.5 and 3.6). Normally, both internal and external recruitment sources/methods are used to varying degrees by organizations.

3.5. Methods Used in Internal Recruitment

The previous section outlined the recruitment process and a number of activities involved in this process. This section discusses the advantages and disadvantages of internal recruitment and a number of internal recruiting methods/sources.

3.5.1. Advantages and Disadvantages of Internal Recruitment

According to Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994), using internal personnel sources effectively may lead to the following benefits: (1) it allows management to observe and assess the abilities of employees accurately given the accrued knowledge gathered over the employment relationship; (2) it improves the morale, commitment, and job security of employees through promotion-from-within, transfers, or job rotations (desired HRM outcomes) (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6); (3) it is an inexpensive way of resourcing labour as compared to external recruitment; and (4) it provides more opportunities to control salary levels (because there is less need to accommodate external salaries).

There are still some disadvantages associated with internal recruitment. As Mathis and Jackson (1992) argue, the drawbacks are higher levels of 'political' behaviour associated with advancement and the danger of contentment as a single mindset surrounds the organization, which may lead to the development of workforces ill-suited to current technological or market demands because old ways

of doing things may become perpetuated (unless there is a very active management development policy). Moreover, units within the company may raid each other for the best personnel and it is easier for a firm to become stuck with the wrong person in the job, which again may lead to the growth of informal 'glass ceilings' or 'glass walls' whereby employees (women, for instance) tend to find that movement through the internal labour market is often restricted to certain levels in the hierarchy or certain functions in the firm (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994).

A company's preferences for using internal or external sources of recruitment are varied within different national systems. There is evidence that the reliance upon internal recruitment across Europe is high. For example, 66 per cent of Spanish employers prefer to recruit their professional and clerical staff from among their current employees (Filella and Soler, 1993) and a similar proportion of Swiss firms fill their professional and technical vacancies from their own apprentices (Hilb, 1992; Hilb and Wittmann, 1993). However, in Britain, there seems to be an active external labour market with lower levels of organizational tenure, high mobility, and low internal investment (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994).

3.5.2. Sources/Methods of Internal Recruitment

Promotion From Within: this is the policy of filling job openings above entry-level positions with current employees (Mondy et al., 1996). A major advantage of a promotion-from-within policy is its positive effect upon employee motivation. When employees see their colleagues being promoted, they may then become more aware of their own opportunities. Availability provided by this practice thus may not only motivate employees to perform better and increase their satisfaction with the company, but also improve their morale and commitment

toward the company (which again are associated with the 'soft' models of HRM). Furthermore, the wealth of information that is generally available about present employees may minimize the possibility that a poor placement decision will be made. Employees who are promoted to higher level positions may also be knowledgeable about the company, and hence little time is lost in orienting these employees to their new positions (Cherrington, 1995). On the whole, internal promotion is less costly to the company in terms of time and money.

However, promotions from within have some drawbacks as well. The employee's performance on one job may not be a good predictor of performance on another because different skills may be required on the new job. For example, the successful employee may not make a good supervisor because in most supervisory jobs an ability to carry out the work through others requires skill with people that may not have been a factor in previous jobs. Other disadvantages of a promotion-from-within policy may include infighting, inbreeding, and lack of varied perspectives and interests (Mathis and Jackson, 1988; Schuler, 1992).

Employee Transfers: another way to recruit internally is by transferring current employee from one location to another as a means of filling a vacant position. According to Schuler (1992) and Carrell et al. (1995), the advantage of this approach is that the employer is well aware of the employee's abilities and work record, therefore, once being relocated, the newly transferred employee may quickly become productive on the new job with a minimum of training and orientation. In America, once affirmative action and equal employment requirements are met, the basis used to select the internal candidates for transfer can then be decided. The choice is often seniority versus merit. Unions seem to prefer seniority while some companies prefer transfer based upon ability. The main

disadvantage of this approach is that employees may have difficulties in adapting to the new working conditions and atmosphere and getting on with different types of people.

Job Rotation: this method is usually temporary in nature and has been used effectively by some of the American and Japanese organizations. The main purpose of this approach is to expose management trainees to various aspects of organizational life (Schuler, 1992). For example, in Japan, it has been the tradition that regular employees (the so-called 'salarymen') are mobile within an organization and they are not considered as specialists, are trained within the company and as part of their reward for this loyalty and flexibility are paid and promoted according to their seniority or length of service. Hence, this mobility or job rotation within the Japanese organization is of considerable assistance to those regular employees because it facilitates the development of networks that are consistent with the dominant Confucian philosophy in Japan and are also immense use to achieve functional flexibility (Hollinshead and Leat, 1995).

However, job rotations have some drawbacks as well. One the one hand, employees might be more widely skilled, one the other hand, their competence in these skills might be poor because they are likely to have less opportunities to develop specialized knowledge of the work process over time (Legge, 1989, 1995) (see Chapter 2, Section 2.7.2).

3.6. External Methods for Obtaining Job Applicants

The advantages and disadvantages of internal recruitment and the internal recruiting sources/methods have been discussed respectively in the preceding section. This section, likewise, also examines the advantages and disadvantages of

external recruitment and provides a range of external recruiting methods that can be used to help the organizations attract a group of suitable applicants and encourage them to apply for jobs.

3.6.1. Advantages and Disadvantages of External Recruitment

Internal recruitment may not always produce enough qualified applicants, especially if the company is growing rapidly or is undergoing rapid technological change; recruiting externally then may become necessary. According to Mathis and Jackson (1992), the advantages that motivate organizations to recruit externally include: (1) bring 'new blood' into the organization, perhaps as part of a broad culture change programme; (2) provide insights into competitor organizations; (3) provide an inexpensive way of acquiring skilled employees, particularly when there is an immediate demand for scarce skills; (4) resource temporary or short term need for employees in order to achieve more flexibility to expand or contract the overall workforce; and (5) assist in meeting equal opportunity legislation requirements. On the other hand, Mathis and Jackson (1992) argue that depending too much on external recruitment may also lead to the possibility of recruiting employees who do not 'fit', the potential creation of morale problems for internal candidates, and the lengthy adjustment and socialization times. Furthermore, costs of external recruitment may be quite high once indirect factors such as management time and resources are calculated.

3.6.2. Methods of External Recruitment

Graduate Recruitment: there are substantial differences in the methods of graduate recruitment in the UK, continental Europe, and the US. For example, ICL

provides a typical example of this approach taken by the larger British companies; it recruits 300 graduates a year from a pool of 5,000 applicants (Sadler and Milmer, 1993). Having cut back on graduate recruitment in the 1979-82 recession, it suffered for six years from a negative image and inherited resourcing problems (Sparrow, 1992). The flow of graduates into a company is now based upon human resource planning rather than what can be afforded year by year. Sponsorship has become an important way of attracting graduates, with around half the intake receiving some form of sponsorship from ICL. Ninety per cent of the sponsored graduates receive and accept job offers. A 'school connect' programme links senior managers into local schools, and particular colleges and universities are targeted for recruits (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994). Ireland has a similar approach to Britain, with many colleges and universities offering 'sandwich' courses involving a period of placement (Gunnigle, 1993). Furthermore, attracting graduates is becoming an increasingly important issue across Europe. For example, in France, since a 'milk round' recruitment does not exist, employers instead depend upon direct applications from graduates and networks of links between senior managers and specific educational institutions (Incomes Data Service, 1993).

Targeting Schools and Colleges: many European companies recruit direct from schools, colleges or universities. For example, 22 per cent of Belgian employers recruit directly from schools and 17 per cent of prospective employees hear of vacancies this way (Buelens, de Clerq, de Graeve, and Vanderheyden, 1993). Similarly, 21 per cent of Danish employers specifically target school-leavers for recruitment (Andersen, La Cour, Svendsen, Kiel, Kamp and Larsen, 1993) whilst in Spain, 75 per cent of organizations target school leavers as a source of external recruitment (Vicente, 1993).

Government Agencies: in Britain, central government has played an important role in the employment field. Due to growing problems and pressures produced by economic, social and technological factors, central government has taken on ever-increasing responsibilities for co-ordinating and supervising the employment and development of the nation's manpower resources. This work is supported by a mass of statistical data, produced by the Department of Employment (DOE) about the kinds of factors on which information is required for human resource planning, and by the comprehensive current legislation covering employment. Under the aegis of the DOE, there is now a network of Job Centres and regional offices of the Professional and Executive Register (PER) which act as agents for potential employers and employees. Job centres are concerned mainly with manual, clerical and junior administrative, and shop staff; the PER deals with the managerial and professional/specialist fields. For young people under 18 years of age and school-leavers, there is a special Careers Service which maintains a regular liaison between employers and local schools (Tyson and York, 1989).

Private Employment Agencies: there are business organizations that specialize in helping employers find applicants to fill job vacancies. In Britain, local employment agencies are licensed by local authorities in many large towns, where they usually offer specialized services for secretarial, clerical, nursing, catering, and shop staff, etc.. (Tyson and York, 1989; Cuming, 1994; Graham and Bennett, 1995). The employer informs the agency of the vacancy, and the agency submits any suitable applicants on its register. When a candidate is engaged, the employer pays a fee to the agency, part of which is usually refunded if the employee leaves within a specified time. From Torrington and Hall's (1995) point

of view, employment agencies have the advantage of reducing the administrative chores of the recruitment process for the employers, but on the other hand, may produce staff who are likely to stay only a short time.

Recruitment Consultants: these usually undertake the complete recruitment process and the initial stages of selection for managerial and professional vacancies in fields such as medicine, law, accountancy, and engineering, etc.. The recruitment consultant analyzes the job, prepares job and personnel specifications, advertises, sends out application forms and interviews selected candidates, sometimes testing them as well. The employer is then presented with a short list of candidates, the career and qualifications of each being described, so that the employer may make the final choice. The advantage of this approach is that recruitment consultants have the opportunity to use their expertise in an area where employers may not always be active. The drawbacks are the high costs and internal applicants may feel, or be, excluded (Graham and Bennett, 1995; Torrington and Hall, 1995).

Executive Search Consultants (Head-hunters): if a company decides to go outside to fill an upper level management position, it may ask an executive search consultant to find potential candidates. Thus, executive search consultants, as defined by Mondy et al., (1996: 165), are "organizations that seek the most qualified executive available for a specific position and are generally retained by the companies needing specific types of individuals". Graham and Bennett (1995) comment that the advantages of this approach are: (1) head-hunters usually possess expert knowledge of the salary levels and fringe benefits necessary to attract good calibre candidates. They also analyze the vacancy and offer an opinion about the type of person required, conduct initial screening, and administer psychometric

tests, etc. This may save the client many administrative costs and advertising expenses; (2) possibly, top managers already in employment may not bother to read job advertisements, newspapers and other conventional media and thus connot be reached by these means; (3) top managers or executives who are prepared to consider a move sometimes may make this known to leading head-hunters, even though they would not openly apply to competing companies; and (4) recruiting firms may be assured that candidates presented to them would almost certainly be well-equipped for the vacant position.

Nevertheless, this approach has drawbacks as well: (1) head-hunting may be highly disruptive to successful businesses, which stand to lose expensively-trained senior mangers; (2) head-hunters' fees are far higher than for private employment agencies (up to 50 per cent of the recruited individual's initial salary in some instances); and (3) head-hunters are not subject to the same long-term accountability as personnel managers employed within the business and they may also lack detailed knowledge of the client organization's culture and operations (Graham and Bennett, 1995).

In some European countries such as Germany, Norway, and Italy, private employment agencies are forbidden to do recruiting work for organizations. However, given the increasing deregulation of national placement services, the use of private employment agencies of various forms has taken off in other parts of Europe than just Britain, such as Ireland, Denmark, and France, etc.. Switzerland is notable for the lack of labour market regulation and around 61 per cent of employers use recruitment consultants for managerial staff. In Italy, in order to respond to labour market shortages, there has been a growth in recruitment consultants and executive search firms, which are able to advise organizations on

suitable managerial talent (Hilb and Wittmann, 1993; Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994; Hollinshead and Leat, 1995).

Employee Referrals: one of the good sources for individuals who may perform effectively on the job is a recommendation from a current employee. The employee often gives the applicant more realistic information about the job and this information thus may reduce unrealistic expectations and increase job survival. However, although employee referrals are a relatively inexpensive recruiting source and usually produce quick responses, there are still some potentially negative features of this practice. For example, employee referrals may lead to inbreeding and nepotism; that is, hiring an applicant who is related to the employee of the company. The hiring of relatives is particularly prevalent in family-owned organizations. Such actions do not necessarily align with the objective of hiring the most-qualified applicants. Furthermore, hiring friends and relatives is also likely to create cliques, causing some individuals already employed by the organization to feel excluded from informal group associations. Since friends and relatives tend to be of the same race and sex as present employees, relying much on employee referrals for finding new employees may then create an imbalance in equal employment opportunity (Cherrington, 1995; DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996; Carrell et al., 1995).

Direct Applications (Walk-ins or Write-ins): due to a company's favourable location or reputation, it may be able to obtain a large applicant pool from individuals who voluntarily submit applications for employment. Some organizations have a constant flow of applications for employment, and these voluntary work-ins and write-ins are usually considered by companies as an inexpensive source of recruits. Direct applications also provide some companies

with all the candidates they need for clerical or entry-level jobs (Cherrington, 1995).

Advertisements in the Media: the use of advertisements is a popular method of external recruitment in most European countries (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994). National or local newspapers and magazines are common methods used by organizations in Britain. For example, A survey of over 1,000 HRM professionals carried out in Britain by the Institute of Personnel Management and MSL recruitment consultants found that 87 per cent of companies use advertisements in regional newspapers, 80 per cent advertise in specialist press, and 78 per cent in the national press (Curnow, 1989). In Denmark, around one in three executives is recruited through advertisements; and direct advertising in the press remains the main form of recruitment. Specialist magazines and trades union publications are also used to attract graduates in Denmark (Andersen, La Cour, Svendsen, Kiel, Kamp and Larsen, 1993). Moreover, radio is becoming an increasingly popular method of hearing about vacancies. For example, twenty-five per cent of Belgian job-hunters hear of vacancies this way and 17 per cent of larger British organizations use radio to attract staff (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994).

3.7. The Nature of Selection

Having reviewed the existing literature on recruitment, this section onwards will examine the nature of selection and begin with the definitions, basic principles, and objectives of selection.

3.7.1. Definitions and Basic Principles

Recruitment seeks to create a pool of suitable applicants. Once that pool has been assembled, the selection activity begins. Selection, as is defined by Mondy et al. is:

> the process of choosing from a group of applicants the individual best suited for a particular position (Mondy et al., 1996: 180).

If the success of a company ultimately depends upon its employees who possess the right skills, work-related values and attitudes, and motivation to achieve organizational objectives, then the task of selection is one of the most important of the decisions that HR managers/specialists need to make. Inappropriate selection decisions may lead to undesired HRM outcomes (e.g., the decline of performance and productivity and the increase of absenteeism and employee turnover rates, etc.), and may be very costly to an organization (e.g., the cost of training the employees and the subsequent costs of further recruiting and selection screening, etc.), especially if people are employed who cannot effectively carry out required tasks and cannot collaborate well with their colleagues. Hence, when making a hiring decision, Cherrington (1995) suggests that HR specialists should first consider the following two basic principles of selection.

- The first principle is that, in making the selection decision, it can be assumed that past behaviour is the best predictor of how an individual will perform in the future.

- The second principle of employee selection is that the organization should collect as much reliable and valid data as is economically feasible and then use it to select the best applicants. Reliable data is information that is repeatable and

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consistent. Valid data is information that indicates how well employees will perform their jobs. As jobs become increasingly difficult to staff with competent employees, and as the costs of making a poor hiring decision increase, the collection of reliable and valid information thus becomes very important. For example, since the selection of good managers is important to a firm, in some organizations, prospective managers may spend several days in assessment centre activities, from which reliable and valid information can then be obtained (Cherrington, 1995).

3.7.2. Objectives

According to Anderson (1992, 1996), the primary objectives of selection are:

- to help organizations make decisions about individuals whose characteristics (including work related values and attitudes) most closely match the requirements of vacancies to be filled. In reality, selection is a two-way decision-making process in which candidates are involved in decision-making, in that if offered a job, a candidate, for instance, has the right to decide whether to accept or reject the job offer, or to try to negotiate more favourable terms and conditions. It is in the interest not only of the candidates, but also of the organization, that candidates should be in a position to make sound rational decisions;

- to ensure that candidates receive adequate information about both the job and the organization to enable them to decide if they really want the job;

- to ensure that candidates feel they have been courteously and fairly treated during the selection process. The importance of this third objective lies in the

fact that an organization can never predict when it will be in contact again with unsuccessful candidates, who may present themselves at some future date as candidates for a different vacancy for which they are better suited. They may take up employment with a supplier or with a client organization. These possibilities help to demonstrate how important it is to create a positive image of both the organization and the fairness of its selection process (Anderson, 1992, 1996).

3.8. Selection Responsibilities

In some countries, except in small organizations, the personnel/HR department usually assumes the responsibility for employee selection, including conducting the initial screening interview, administrating appropriate selection tests and employment interviews, referring top candidates to line managers for interview and evaluating the selection process. Line managers also play an important role in the selection process, such as participating in the selection process as appropriate, interviewing final candidates, and assisting in final selection decisions.

3.9. The Selection Process

Having briefly introduced the selection responsibilities in the preceding section, this section outlines the selection process and a number of activities involved in this process.

The selection process is a series of specific steps used to decide which candidates should be hired. The process starts with an evaluation of application forms and ends with the selection decision and/or a job offer. Each step in the

selection process seeks to expand the organization's knowledge about the candidates' background, abilities, and motivation, and it increases the information from which HR managers/specialists can make their predictions and final choice. Although the sequence of steps may vary from organization to organization and from one job opening to another, the selection process could determine the candidates who are likely to be successful and eliminate those likely to fail (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996; Werther and Davis, 1996).

However, by referring to Cherrington (1995); Carrell et al. (1995); Mondy et al. (1996); a framework of the idealized selection process, which depicts a flow of activities, is devised as follows (see Figure 3.4).

1. *Evaluation of Application Forms*: the first step in the selection process is to have the prospective employees complete an application form, which standardizes information about all of the applicants to be considered. The information contained in a completed application form for employment is then compared to the job description to evaluate whether a potential match exists between the company's requirements and the applicant's qualifications (see Section 3.10).

2. *Initial Screening Interview* is the second stage to eliminate individuals from the applicant pool who obviously do not meet the position's requirements. The most frequently cited reasons for rejecting applicants at this stage are because they may lack the required knowledge, skills, education, academic training, or work experience to perform the job. In the USA, these are legitimate disqualifications if they are related to job performance (Cherrington, 1995; Mondy et al., 1996).

3. *Selection Tests* are often used to measure individual characteristics and to assist in evaluating an applicant's qualifications and potential for success. Many different tests have been developed to measure various dimensions of human behaviour such as personality and psychometric tests, etc. (see Section 3.10 for further details).

4. *Employment Interview(s)* is utilized by virtually every company to hire prospective employees at all job levels. Those individuals who are still viable applicants after the examination of application forms, initial screening interview, and required tests have been completed are then given an employment interview. The applicant may be interviewed by personnel/HR department interviewers, line managers, executives within the organization, or some combination of these. The employment interview is designed to probe into areas that cannot be addressed by the application forms or tests; these areas usually consist of assessing one's motivation, ability to work under pressure, and ability to 'fit in' with the company (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996) (see Section 3.10).

5. *Reference Checks*: applicants may sometimes misrepresent themselves upon their applications or during interviews, reference checks thus have become a common practice in personnel and have been seen as both an energy-saving procedure and a cost-efficient means of screening out undesirable applicants (Carrell et al., 1995). As Mondy et al. (1996) state, reference checks provide additional insight into the information furnished by the applicant and allow verification of its accuracy (see Section 3.10).

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┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Evaluation of Application │─────────────▶│ Rejection │
│ Forms               │                    └──────────┘
└─────────────────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Initial Screening Interview │───────────▶│ Rejection │
└─────────────────────┘                    └──────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Selection Tests     │───────────────────▶│ Rejection │
└─────────────────────┘                    └──────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Employment Interview │──────────────────▶│ Rejection │
└─────────────────────┘                    └──────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Reference Checks    │───────────────────▶│ Rejection │
└─────────────────────┘                    └──────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
│ Medical Examinations │──────────────────▶│ Rejection │
└─────────────────────┘                    └──────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐
│ Selection Decisions │
│ and Feedback        │
└─────────────────────┘
          │
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐
│ Job Offer           │
└─────────────────────┘
```
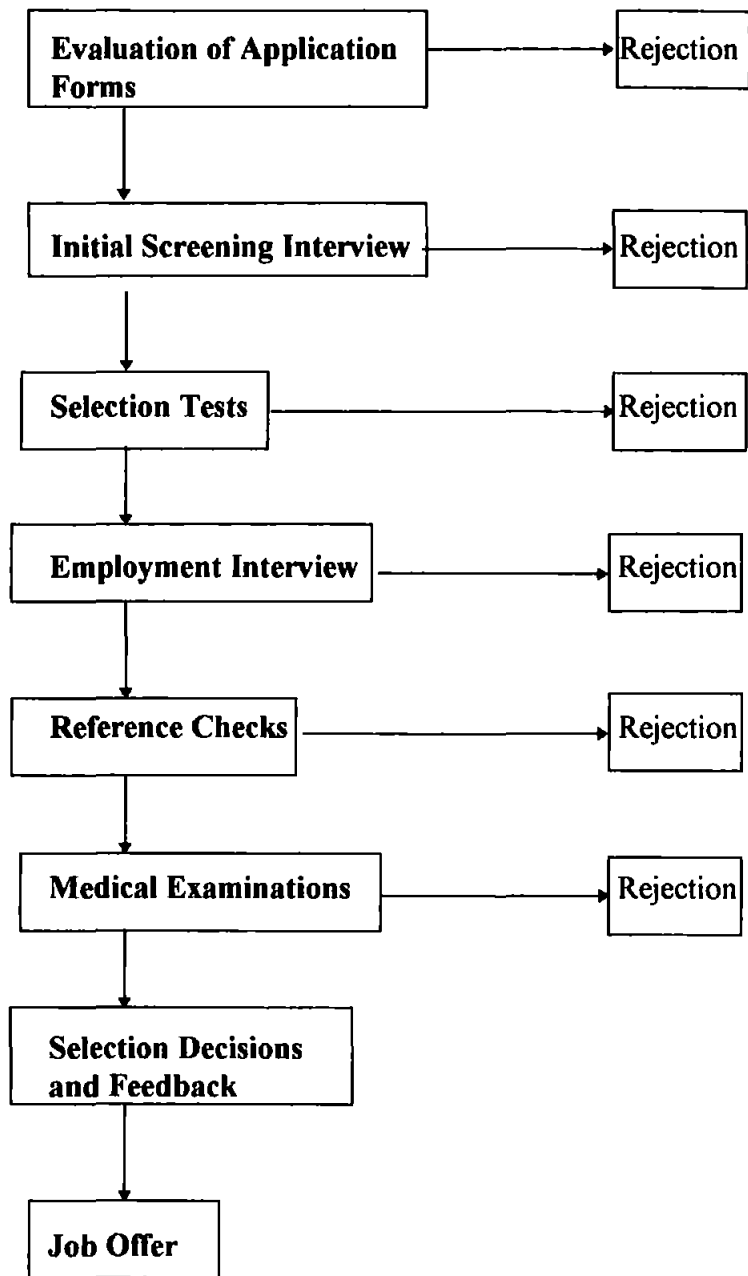
Figure 3.4 The selection process

6. *Medical Examinations*: preferably, every applicant should have a medical examination before the offer of a job is confirmed. A medical examination shows whether he or she is physically suitable for the job and what risk there is likely to be of sickness, absence, or injury; and even some doctors still maintain that a very thorough medical examination may be necessary to fulfil these

requirements. Graham and Bennett (1995) also indicate that there are some circumstances in which medical examinations should be given: (1) when the candidate applies for a particularly arduous job, or when he or she works alone (e.g., a security officer); (2) when the job demands high standard of hygiene (e.g., catering and food manufacture); (3) to any employee whose health may be in danger because of the nature of the work; and (4) to candidates who are known to be disabled (e.g., registered disabled persons).

7. *Selection Decisions and Feedback*: after obtaining and evaluating information about the finalists, HR specialists should make the actual hiring decision. Usually, the applicants with the best overall qualifications may not be hired. Rather, the candidates whose qualifications (including their work values and attitudes) most closely conform to the requirements of the open positions should be selected. In the USA, the actual hiring decision is usually made by the line manager in the department that had the position open. Since the candidate may eventually work for this manager in that department, it may be necessary to ensure a good 'fit' (including work values and attitudes) between the boss and the employee (Mondy et al., 1996; DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996). Furthermore, once the selection decision has been made, it may be important to provide feedback to both the successful and the unsuccessful candidates in order to maintain good public relations and promote a positive image of the company. Langtry (1994) emphasizes that feedback should be immediate, illustrative and specific, and should also interpret the negative traits in a positive way and invest the time necessary to facilitate a relaxed discussion. However, since feedback may still be a much neglected part of the selection process, it should be given as much time and consideration as other stages of selection.

8. *Job Offer*: the job offer in the UK is usually made by the personnel/HR department. Graham and Bennett (1995) indicate that the initial offer of a job needs special care, particularly as regards the following points:

- the wage or salary offered may not only be appropriate to the job and attractive to the candidate but consistent with the earnings of present employees;

- the job should be named and any special conditions stated. For example, 'for the first six months you would be under training at our Birmingham branch';

- the candidate needs to know the essential conditions of employment, i.e., hours, holidays, bonuses, and fringe benefits;

- The next stage should be clearly defined; if the candidate asks for time for consideration, it should be agreed when he or she would get in touch. If the candidate accepts the oral offer, that manager should say what would happen next, and when.

3.10. Selection Techniques/Instruments

The previous section outlined the selection process and a number of activities involved in this process. This section introduces a range of useful selection techniques/instruments which can be used to help the organization select from a group of suitable applicants the individuals best suited for the particular positions.

Some of the selection techniques outlined below may rely on establishing past behaviour and some may sample present or predict future behaviour. Any selection techniques the company utilized to select the right employees for the jobs are critical to the company's success. The misuse of any kinds of method may be costly to the organization and may consequently be demoralizing to the employee

(who finds himself or herself in the wrong job) and de-motivating to the rest of the workforce (undesired HRM outcomes). Moreover, factors such as employment policies, size, and structure of an organization, ownership pattern, and the sector of industry, etc. may result in marked differences in the use of selection techinques.

Application Forms: an application form is a formal record of an individual's application for employment; it provides relevant information about the applicant's background and is often used in the job interviews and in reference checks to determine the applicant's suitability for employment (Carrell et al., 1995). Application forms are commonly used in France and Britain, with Shackleton and Newell (1991) finding usage rates of 98 per cent and 93 per cent respectively. However, although the application form is not only the basis of selection, it is a fundamental document in an employee's personnel record and has legal importance in the contract of employment (Mathis and Jackson, 1988; Graham and Bennett, 1995).

Resumes: one of the most common methods applicants use to provide background information is the resume. Resumes, also called curriculum vitae (c.v. or v/c) by some, vary in style and length. Unlike an application form prepared by an employer, resumes contain only information applicants want to present. Some employers require that all who submit resumes should complete an application form as well so similar information will be available on all applicants. Individuals who mail in resumes are sent blank application forms to be completed and returned. In Denmark, curricula vitae are so prevalent that application forms are rarely used. In Spain, selection at the managerial level is usually based upon the provision of a curriculum vitae and a photograph.

Biodata: it is often remarked that what a person will do in the future is best predicted by what they have done in the past. Biodata hence represents a systematic way of using information about past events to predict future job performance. Biodata is essentially a collection of items that might be found on a biographical questionnaire or application form (such as age, educational attainment, job history, etc.) that enable the applicant to describe him or herself in demographic, experiential or attitudinal terms. Biodata differs from traditional items on an application form in that the applicant's answers are combined to produce a score equivalent to that established by a test; and this score is used for selection purposes. Moreover, a distinction can also be made between 'hard' items, which typically represents historical and verifiable information, and 'soft' items, which may be more abstract in nature and include multiple choice questions on value judgements, aspirations, motivations, and expectations (Drakeley, 1989).

However, Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994) comment that biodata is most cost effective when used for pre-selection, particularly for companies that routinely need to recruit from a large labour pool, and that it is a relatively recent selection method in the European context and its use has developed most rapidly in Britain. Shackleton and Newell (1991) found that 19 per cent of British organizations used the technique compared to 4 per cent of (mainly very large) French organizations.

References: the main purpose of using references as a selection device is to obtain information from a third party, with a view to providing a factual check on the candidate's qualifications and experience, and/or receiving an assessment of the candidate's suitability for the job in question (Anderson, 1992, 1996). Despite the fact that a clear and comprehensive description of a candidate's abilities and behaviour by his or her previous employer would be of enormous value in

selection, the use of written references in the UK still raises a number of problems: (1) an offer may be made 'subject to satisfactory references', but as most references are received after the candidate has started working they can only be used to warn managers of possible faults in the candidate which in serious cases may eventually lead to warnings followed by dismissal; (2) employers giving references are often very cautious; many references only state the job title, the dates of employment, and the reason for leaving; and (3) in order to present a positive image, applicants are not likely to ask someone to write a letter unless they are certain that the person will make a favourable evaluation. Therefore, most references letters seem to be biased in a positive manner (Graham and Bennett, 1995; Cherrington, 1995; Mondy et al., 1996). Due to the bias associated with written references, many reference checkers use the telephone. Anderson (1992, 1996) indicate that oral references obtained by telephone may encourage referees to be more straightforward and open in expressing views. A verbal exchange also gives the selector the opportunity to question and probe views expressed by the referees, to see how well supported they are.

However, Britain has a strong tradition of selectors using references as a selection method, irrespective of the organization size or level of management intake. In their comparative study Shackleton and Newell (1991) found that 74 per cent of British selectors use references compared to just 11 per cent of French selectors (mainly from small to medium-sized organizations with small intakes). In Ireland, formal reference checking is the most popular selection device (Gunnigle, 1993) and in other European countries, such as Belgium, it is customary to take up references by telephone.

Selection Tests: these provide objective and standardized measures of human characteristics such as aptitudes, interests, abilities, and personalities, which may not normally be discovered by other selection means. Test results measure how much of a given characteristic individuals possess relative to other individuals. If the characteristics being measured are important to successful job performance, tests may then represent a valuable selection device (Martin and Slora, 1991).

Tests are variously classified according to what they purport to test (intelligence, aptitude, skill, trade knowledge, personality) or by the way they are carried out or administered (performance tests, paper-and-pencil tests, questionnaires, group tests, and individual tests). A study by the Psychology Laboratory of the University of Bordeaux (*op. cit.* Bournois, 1993) estimated that 62 per cent of French organizations used personality tests in their selection process, 55 per cent used aptitude or intelligence tests and 21.5 per cent used projection tests such as Rorschach. Bournois (1993) suggests that these seem to be rather high estimates and probably reflect the practice of the largest French organizations only.

Moreover, for the purposes of personnel selection, psychometric tests are generally divided into two categories: cognitive tests (assessing attributes such as general intelligence, spatial ability, and numerical ability) and personality tests (assessing individual traits against a model of underlying personality factors). In Britain, the psychological testing agency Saville and Holdsworth found in a survey of 361 large organizations that 71 per cent used personality questionnaires and 68 per cent used cognitive tests at some point during management recruitment (McCulloch, 1993).

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Employment Interview(s): it is a formal, in-depth conversation conducted to evaluate the candidate's suitability for employment. According to Cherrington (1995), the main purposes of the interview are to achieve the following points.

- Obtain information about the applicant: since the information obtained with other selection tools may be incomplete or unclear, an interview provides an opportunity for factual information to be clarified and interpreted.

- Sell the company: the employment interview provides a good opportunity for the interviewers to sell the company to the applicant. Interviewers should not 'oversell' the company, instead they should provide a realistic picture of the organization's advantages and disadvantages and provide a positive explanation of why they have chosen to work for the company.

- Provide information about the company: general information about the job, company policies, its products, and its services should be communicated to the applicant during the interview.

- Establish friendship: if nothing else, the interview should be a friendly, interpersonal exchange. After the interview, both parties should leave with the feeling that they are personal friends.

Interviews can be conducted in several ways. In a typical one-to-one interview, the candidate only meets one-on-one with an interviewer. The sequential (or successive) interview takes the one-to-one a step further and is a series of interviews, usually utilizing the strengths and knowledge base of each interviewer, so that each interviewer asks questions in relation to his or her subject area of each candidate, as the candidates move from room to room (Langtry, 1994). In the panel interview, the candidate is seen by two or more interviewers simultaneously and it has been known to embrace as many as 15 interviewers.

Furthermore, interviews may be classified as highly structured at one extreme and as having virtually no structure at the other. In practice, interviews usually fall between these extremes. In the unstructured (nondirective) interview, the interviewer asks probing, open-ended questions. Some interviewers believe that this type of interview is comprehensive, and has greater effectiveness in obtaining significant information by encouraging the applicant to do much of the talking (Mondy et al., 1996).

The structured (directive or patterned) interview normally consists of a series of predetermined job-related questions that are consistently asked of each applicant for a particular job in order to minimize the chance for irrelevant information to be gathered and for prejudice and bias to influence the choice. The interviewer usually has advanced knowledge of the best answers based upon the analysis of responses from superior performers on the job, hence, the structured interview may be effective in predicting subsequent job performance. In addition, the situational interview is a specific type of structured interview that pose a series of hypothetical job situations to determine what actions and solutions the applicants actually would perform on the job. Interview questions are basically derived from systematic job analysis that identifies essential characteristics and skills. The applicants' responses are then evaluated against benchmark answers that identify poor, average, or excellent employees (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994; Gold, 1994; Cherrington, 1995).

Shackleton and Newell (1991) found that interviews were commonly used in both Britain (93 per cent) and France (94 per cent). However, only 60 per cent of British organizations used more than one interview. In France, 93 per cent of organizations used more than one interview, and the preferred form was a series of

one-to-one interviews. The French preference for using more than one interview was linked by Shackleton and Newell (1991) to Hofstede's (1980) analysis of national culture. In most formalized French organizations, the managers' higher Power Distance scores are reflected in a desire to seek approval from seniors before accepting candidates. In Greece too, the final decision for appointment often resides with the Managing Director after a strict initial screening and selection process (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994).

Assessment Centres: these techniques have been described by Lewis (1985) as multiple-method group selection. An assessment centre is a special programme of tests, work simulation situations, exercises, and interviews which are designed to measure and assess a wide range of different abilities, skills, behavioural characteristics, and potential required for effective performance on the job (Langtry, 1994). This method is used particularly for identifying management potential and for hiring or promotion into management positions. Usually, a group of candidates is brought together at a fairly isolated spot (for example, a country hotel) where they go through the exercises (e.g., leaderless group discussions, in-tray exercises, role-playing, business games, and ten-minute speeches, etc.) over a period of one to three days. The candidates are evaluated on each activity by a group of trained assessors (managers of a company) who observe their performance. After they have been observed in many different activities, the assessors then discuss their observations and try to achieve a consensus decision concerning the evaluation of each candidate. The results should be fed back to candidates as soon as possible after the centre has finished. The aim of providing feedback is to concentrate on development needs rather than emphasize weaknesses. Although unsuccessful candidates so assessed will naturally be

disappointed, they should not feel that they are complete failures and should be encouraged to believe that they still have opportunities for development at that managerial level (Graham and Bennett, 1995; Cherrington, 1995; Armstrong, 1996).

According to Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994), the use of assessment centres (mainly by multinational organizations) is reportedly increasing in countries such as Denmark (Incomes Data Service, 1990a) where they are being used for a wider range of jobs. The uptake of assessment centres for selection purposes has also been most marked in Britain. From 1984-89, the proportion of British organizations using assessment centres grew from 7 to 25 per cent. By 1989, 59 per cent of the top British organizations had reported that they used this technique for selection of employees (Shackleton and Newell, 1991).

3.11. Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has examined the nature of recruitment and selection and its importance to an organization. The variety of recruitment methods and selection techniques, the main focus of this chapter, has been introduced and discussed in detail. It should be noted that these recruitment methods and selection instruments commonly accepted and used in the American and/or European organizations may not necessarily be adopted extensively by the Taiwanese firms because of the different external and internal environmental contexts. Hence, an investigation will be carried out in Chapter 5 to see (1) how frequently these western-oriented recruitment and selection practices are employed by the domestic Taiwanese companies, (2) which methods and techniques are, or are not, culturally sensitive/specific, and (3) whether they would vary with company size and

ownership pattern. The findings of the study will be reported in Chapter 6 and will also be used to develop the appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques in Taiwan, based on company size and ownership pattern. In next chapter, national culture as the element of the external environment will be elaborated.

Chapter 4　　Work-Related Values of National Culture

4.0.　Introduction

The preceding chapter examined the recruitment and selection policies and practices for organizations that are pursuing an HRM approach to the management of people. This chapter discusses work-related values of national culture and particularly centres on Hofstede's key cultural dimensions as a theoretical framework to facilitate our understanding of national cultural differences. Generally, there are six sections in this chapter. The first section presents the relationship between management and national culture, and then highlights some major debates on the concept of culture, examines Hofstede's first four value dimensions of national culture, explores the fifth dimension - Confucian Dynamism, discusses other researchers' work on national cultural studies, and finally draws some conclusions.

The aims of this chapter are:

1. to examine work-related values of national culture and consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan;

2. to establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices; and

3. to provide a base for identifying issues and facilitating the development of appropriate hypotheses, which are addressed in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3.2;

4.1.　The Relationship Between Management and National Culture

According to Hofstede (1995) and Olie (1995), the influence of national culture on management has not always been acknowledged. In the 1950s and

1960s, the dominant belief, at least in Europe and the USA, was that management was something universal. There were principles of sound management which existed regardless of the national environment. This is known as the convergence hypothesis. The fundamental idea was that the logic of industrialism had a homogenizing effect upon business organization, irrespective of the country they were located in. Scientific progress and the consequent creation of more and more highly developed forms of technology and production processes would eventually drive all industrial societies towards the same end. As societies became more and more alike, a universal type of business organization would evolve. However, the belief in convergence of management practices waned during the 1970s.

Hofstede (1993) and Olie (1995) also argue that there are no such things as universal management theories or management practices. Although diversity in management practices has been widely recognized, the validity of many management theories (e.g., HRM) is likely to stop at management borders. Messages of sound management promoted by such books as Peters and Waterman's (1982) *In Search of Excellence*, and Deal and Kennedy's (1982) *Corporate Cultures* may work well in the American context, but not in other cultures. This seems to explain why management techniques like management by objectives (MBOs), matrix organization, humanization of work programmes, or performance-based reward structures may not be as successful in some countries as they are in the United States. Likewise, HRM policies and practices (e.g., selection, performance appraisal, and rewards) in one society may not always be transferred and applied in another. As Hendry (1991: 60) points out, "...more than any other set of management practices, HRM may have a signficant effect on culturally-specific ways of doing things (e.g., individual/collective decision-

making, the power of trade unions or lack of it, etc.) and is reinforced by national institutions and values systems", therefore it is important for us to get considerable historical and cultural insight into local conditions to understand the process, philosophies, and problems of national models of HRM (Hofstede, 1993).

4.2. The Concept of Culture: Some Major Debates

The previous section described the relationship between management and national culture. This section highlights some major debates on the concept of culture (including the definitions, the terms 'nation' and 'culture', national culture and organizational culture) and outlines a number of commonly accepted characteristics of culture.

4.2.1. The Concept of Culture

4.2.1.1. Definitions

Culture is an extremely broad concept. Anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, and others (phenomenology) tend to bring with them their own specific paradigms and research methodologies. This, however, may cause confusion and create difficulties in reaching consensus with regard to the definitions of culture and their subsequent measurement and operationalization (Schneider, 1988). Despite the lack of general agreement, numerous definitions of culture were offered and could be found in the literature. Tylor (1871: 1) defined culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs, and any capabilities and habits acquired by a man as a member of society". Linton (1945: 32) described culture as "the configuration of learned behaviour and the results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and

transmitted by members of a particular society". Similarly, Barnouw (1963: 4) indicated that "a culture is a way of life of a group of people, the configuration of all of the more or less stereotyped patterns of learned behaviour, which are handed down from one generation to the next through the means of language and imitation".

Having examined 164 different definitions of culture, Kroeber and kluckhohn provided a comprehensive one:

> Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action (Kroeber and kluckhohn, 1952: 181).

Mary Douglas (1970, 1978b, 1982a), as a cultural anthropologist, approaches culture primarily from the standpoint of every day life. She sees culture as a world of ordinary symbols, rituals, objects, and activities, all of which dramatize the construction of social life. Unlike other cultural anthropologists, Douglas appears to be less concerned with abstractions about values and world views. Instead, she focuses on the more observable artifacts of culture in daily life - its goods, its views of what is clean and dirty, the ways in which people treat their bodies, along with the linguistic structure of everything from speech to meals, constitute the ritual lubrication which permeates daily existence. Douglas' view of culture seems to represent the more superficial levels of a culture as Hofstede identified in his 'onion diagram' such as symbols, heroes, and rituals (see Section 4.2.4, Figure 4.1).

Triandis (1983: 139) in describing culture suggested that "...it operates at such a deep level that people are not aware of its influences. It results in

unexamined patterns of thought that seem so natural that most theorists of social behaviour fail to take them account...". Tayeb defined culture as:

> historically evolved values, attitudes, and meanings which are learnt and shared by the members of a given community, and which influence their material and non-material way of life. Members of the community learn these shared characteristics through different stages of the socialization processes of their lives in institutions such as family, religion, formal education, and the society as whole (Tayeb, 1992: 120).

In Hofstede's (1991: 5) more recent work, culture is defined as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Based on the definitions above, two broad aspects of culture could be distinguished. First, in an anthropological and sociological context, culture is a set of values, attitudes, meanings, and behaviour which are learned, shared, and collectively held by the people who belong to a given society and passed down from older members of the society to the younger members (which represent the deepest level of a culture in Hofstede's 'onion diagram', see Figure 4.1). Second, outside the academic world and in day-to-day life, culture is usually concerned with the symbols, rituals, religions, and arts and artistic activities such as literature, theatre, opera, painting, and music, etc. (which represent the more superficial levels of a culture in Hofstede's 'onion diagram', also see Figure 4.1). The first aspect of culture appears to fit Triandis' (1972, 1983) notions of subjective culture (e.g., rules, norms, roles, beliefs, values, etc.) whereas the second aspect fits his notions of objective culture (e.g., artifacts, roads, factories, etc.).

4.2.1.2. Controversial Issues Regarding Culture

According to Chapman (1997), researchers in cross-cultural management studies, adopting the positivist approach, seem to be preoccupied and/or overly

concerned with defining the concept of culture and thus have often plundered the anthropological literature in search of definition (Note: the work of Kroeber and Kluckhohn is the typical example that appears so frequently in the bibliographies). Chapman (1997), as a social-anthropologist and from his own observation, indicates that while traditional British and/or European anthropologists (e.g., Mary Douglas) certainly talk of culture, there is very little effort put into defining it (unlike those of positivist researchers) because to them any attempt at definition of culture would be tied to the particular cultural context from which it came and would need to be understood in that context. In contrast, cross-cultural positivist researchers, who are heavily influenced by the North American thought and practice, tend to see the concept of culture as something universal and therefore *definable* in the generic term.

Moreover, like many aspects of organizational theories and management studies (e.g., HRM), the topic 'culture' also appears to be a westernized concept, produced and prevalent in the USA and/or Europe, and thus may be culture bound. As Chapman (1992a) emphasizes, the English term 'culture', whatever we take it to mean in the Anglophone English environment, does not necessarily find unproblematic equivalents in other languages and cultures. Hofstede's original IBM study on the four value dimensions of national culture is the example that has been criticized to be reflective of western values and have less relevance to other non-western cultures (Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1984). In recognition of the western bias problem, Hofstede and Bond (1988) thus created a fifth value dimension, Confucian Dynamism, which reflects the priorities of Eastern minds and is also applicable to countries with a Confucian heritage (see Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2).

Chapman (1992a) further argues that this insight applies not only to the term culture, but to the entirety of language, including all those words and concepts (e.g., politics, economics, social structure, law, etc.) which a cross-cultural analyst might choose to regard as analytical. The different structure of words and concepts between two different cultures is a measure of different realities as lived and understood in the fullest sense by different people. The overlapping and/or blurring of boundaries between institutions such as politics, religion, and economics in Iran, and the political and economic role of kinship structure in African states are examples of how fundamentally different these concepts are across cultures (Chapman, 1992a, citing from Tayeb, 1994).

4.2.2. 'Nation' and 'Culture'

Tayeb (1988, 1994) points out that although culture is a set of historically evolved, learned, and shared values, attitudes, and meanings, somehow it seems too narrow a concept and therefore is often replaced by 'national character'. In addition to cultural influences, organizations may also be affected by other national institutions. The term 'nation' refers not merely to culture but also to other social, economic, political, and legal institutions, which may have some important effects upon management practices (e.g., HRM) of organizations located in particular countries.

In most single-culture and cross-cultural studies, the terms 'nation' and 'culture' have usually been used as if they were synonymous with national boundaries separating one cultural group from another (Adler et al., 1986). Tayeb (1994) also made a similar point. She indicates that most cross-cultural researchers tend to equate 'nation' with 'culture' and use this approach to study culture and

management by comparing samples of matched respondents (e.g., managers) from different countries.

However, most researchers, when conducting single-culture and/or cross-cultural studies, tend to ignore cultural heterogeneity. As a matter of fact, some nations are usually far from homogeneous. For example, the UK (or Great Britain) consists of four major distinct cultural peoples, namely, the English, the Welsh, the Scottish, and the Irish (from Northern Ireland). There are also many immigrant minorities who, along with major groups, staff, run, and own the so-called British organizations. This raises the question that how one is to know, for instance, that the British organization, which is compared with e.g., an Indian company, is not in fact staffed largely by immigrants from the sub-continent. The above practical example provided by Tayeb suggests that the validity of any generalization based on a cross-national research or a comparison between the British culture (or any other heterogeneous culture) and that of other countries should be properly examined (Tayeb, 1994). Adler et al. (1986) also point out that the majority of the studies should be labelled single-national and/or cross-national rather than single-cultural and/or cross-cultural if one takes the cultural heterogeneity of a nation into consideration.

4.2.3. National Culture and Organizational Culture

Some managers tend to assume that employees from different countries working for the same company are more similar than different and believe that national differences are salient only in working with foreign clients, but not in working with colleagues with different nationalities from the same company. However, the two studies illustrated below suggest that the opposite is true.

Managers and employees of both the domestic and international firms usually bring their ethnicity to the workplace.

After studying managers (from the USA and nine Western European countries) who were working for Organizations in their own countries (e.g., German managers working for German companies, American managers working for American companies, etc.), Laurent (1983) replicated his research in one multinational organization with subsidiaries in each of the ten original countries. His research was based on the presumption that managers working for the same multinational firm would be more similar than their domestic colleagues working for different domestic companies. Instead, Laurent found that there were significantly greater differences between managers from the ten countries working within the same multinational firm than there were between managers working for organizations in their own countries. When working for a multinational company, French seem to become more French, Italians seem to become more Italians, etc.. Laurent further replicated his research in two additional multinational organizations with subsidiaries in each of the ten original countries. Similar to the results from the first multinational, organizational culture did not appear to erase or diminish national differences in the second and third multinational corporations. Organizational culture seems to only remain and strengthen national differences. Hence, Laurent drew the conclusion that national cultural differences were more prominent among employees from different countries working within the same multinational organization than among employees working for companies in their home countries.

Similarly, Hofstede (1980, 1991) also found national cultural differences within a single multinational corporation. His research findings demonstrate that

there were statistically significant differences in value orientations between employees of IBM subsidiaries in 50 countries (see Section 4.3). Both Laurent and Hofstede's cross-national studies tend to show that national culture (from the perspectives of employees' work-related values and attitudes) would not be easily diminished by organizational culture. There might be some explanations or reasons for this:

1. the pressure to comply with the organizational culture of a foreign-owned company might bring out employees' resistance, causing them to adhere more firmly to their own national identifies;

2. our ethnic culture might be so deeply rooted in us by the time we reach adulthood that it could not be erased by any external force (Adler, 1997).

Hofstede (1991) also made a similar point. He points out that values (the deepest level of a culture) are usually acquired in one's early youth, mainly in the family and in the neighbourhood, and later at school. By the age of 10, most children have their basic value system firmly in place and thus, changes may be quite difficult to make after that age (see Section 4.2.4).

On the whole, the discussion on national and organizational cultures leads us to conclude that multinational companies, at the superficial level, may be able to change the individual behavioural norms and values through efforts at socializing employees and through the various organizational policies and practices, but may stand less chance of influencing the fundamental assumptions their employees have about life and work because these are deeply rooted in the broad cultural settings of nations.

Some contemporary cross-national studies have attempted to examine the extent to which the values, attitudes, and patterns of behaviour that managers and

employees hold in a company are rooted in their national cultural background (e.g., Laurent's research and Hofstede's IBM study). However, it appears that these studies are not quite successful in separating the influences of organizational culture from that of national culture on employees' work-related values and attitudes, which, from Tayeb's (1996) point of view, would still pose a considerable challenge to the researchers of comparative organizations.

4.2.4. Characteristics of Culture

Despite various definitions of culture as noted in Section 4.2.1, there are several characteristics of culture which appear to be generally accepted and held: (1) culture is not inherited, but it is acquired by learning and experience; (2) culture is not a characteristic of individuals, but of a collection of individuals who share common values, beliefs, ideas, etc.; (3) culture is transgenerational, passed down from one generation to the next; (4) culture is an adaptive process, it may change over time and in response to multiple stimulus; and (5) culture has different levels. Hofstede (1991, 1993) distinguishes four different layers of culture from superficial to deeper and less tangible elements, comprising symbols, heroes, rituals, and values (see Figure 4.1).

1. The first level consists of *symbols*, which are words, objects, and gestures that carry a particular meaning for the members of a society. At the level of organizational culture, symbols usually include modes of address (formal or informal), signs, dress codes, and status symbols, all recognized by organizational insiders only.

2. *Heroes* constitute the second level of culture. These refer to persons, alive or dead, real or imaginary, who embody characteristics that are highly prized in a

society and who may serve as role models. At the level of organizations, *selection processes* are often based upon hero models of 'the ideal employee' or 'the ideal manager' (Hofstede, 1993).

3. The third level of culture consists of *rituals*, which refer to the social rules and norms that need to be followed in a certain environment. In organizations, rituals usually include formal activities defended on apparently rational grounds: meetings, the writing of memos, and planning systems, plus the informal ways in which formal activities are performed: who can afford to be late for what meeting, who speaks to whom, and so on (Hofstede, 1993).

4. *Values* represent the deepest level of a culture; they are basic beliefs, assumption, and feelings that people have regarding what is good, normal, rational, and valuable, and so forth. Values may have a considerable influence upon conceptions of identity and the role of individual rights and duties as opposed to collective ones. For example, in North America and in most West European countries, children are raised in the belief that they need to be self-sufficient as adults. Children are taught to make their own decisions and are encouraged to clarify their own needs and opinions and solve their own problems. The houses in which these children grow up often reflect this individualism. However, this stands in marked contrast to most other societies in Mid and East Asia, where children are taught that they belong to social groups, like the extended family, which will look after them and to which they owe their loyalty. People hence learn to identify closely with the goals and interests of these social groups (citing from Olie, 1995).
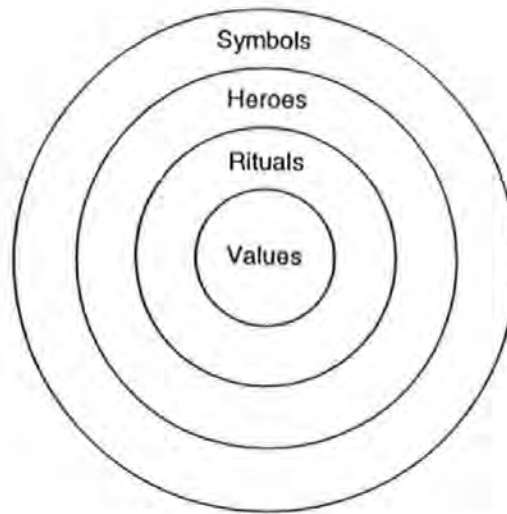
Figure 4.1 The 'onion diagram': manifestations of culture at different levels of
depth
Source: Hofstede, 1991, p.9

4.3. Hofstede's First Four Dimensions of National Culture

Having introduced the definitions and characteristics of culture in the
preceding section, this section aims to:

- examine Hofstede's first four value based dimensions of national culture;

- identify some of the implications of these value orientations for 'ideals' of
  organization structure and management approach (e.g., HRM, recruitment and
  selection policies and practices);

- discuss the four types of implicit models of organization according to different
  combinations of Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance; and

- describe briefly Hofstede's research framework and its criticisms.

According to a number of the western commentators (Hutton, 1988; Mead,
1994; Torrington, 1994; Olie, 1995; and Hodgetts and Luthans, 1997), the most
comprehensive study on national cultural differences to date has been conducted
by the Dutch researcher Geert Hofstede (1980, 1983, 1991) who analyzed survey
data from 116,000 employees of IBM subsidiaries in 50 countries and three multi-

country regions during the 1970s. In spite of the obviously homogenizing effects of IBM's corporate culture, Hofstede found statistically significant differences in value orientations between organizational members of different national origins and thus concluded that national culture could be broadly categorized and distinguished by utilizing the four key value-based dimensions as stated below. The scores of the 50 countries and three regions in Hofstede's sample on these four dimensions are illustrated in Figure 4.2. These value orientations have implications for 'ideals' of organization structure and management approaches (e.g., HRM, recruitment and selection policies and practices).

4.3.1. Power Distance (PD)

Power Distance as defined by Hofstede (1991: 28) is "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally". Hofstede's findings (see Figure 4.2) show that Latin countries (both Latin European, like France and Spain, and Latin American) and Asian countries (such as Malaysia, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan) are typified by high Power Distance values. The ideal types of organizations in large Power Distance countries tend to have tall hierarchies or organization structures; centralized decision-making; autocratic, or paternalist leadership style; special privileges and status symbols for senior staff (Hofstede 1991: 35-36).

In Contrast, Hofstede found that countries like USA, Great Britain, Australia, and non-Latin part of European countries (such as Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark) had moderate to low Power Distance values. The ideal types of organizations in small Power Distance countries tend to have

flattish hierarchies or organization structures; bureaucracy minimized; decentralized decision-making or tasks delegated; a belief that power should be used legitimately; consultative or democratic leadership style; and a degree of autonomy for subordinates (Hofstede, 1991: 27-28, 35-36).

The Power Distance dimension has implications for leadership style. One way of classifying leadership behaviour is by the degree of participation subordinates have in decision-making. According to Hofstede (1991: 35-36), in a culture with large Power Distance (e.g., Philippines, Malaysia), superiors and subordinates tend to consider each other as existentially unequal; the hierarchical system is felt to be based on this existential inequality. Subordinates are expected to be told what to do. In other words, they tend to expect and/or prefer their superior to make decisions, solve problems, and assign tasks. There may be a lot of supervisory personnel, structured into tall hierarchies of people reporting to each other. The ideal boss, in the subordinates' eyes, may be an autocrat or 'good father'. In this case, autocratic or paternalist type of leadership style could be expected.

Hofstede also points out that, under conditions of small Power Distance (e.g., USA, Great Britain, Canada), superiors and subordinates consider each other as existentially equal, and that the hierarchical system is just an inequality of roles, established for convenience. Subordinates expect to be consulted before a decision is made, but they accept that the boss is the one who finally decides. In the subordinates' eyes, the ideal boss may be a resourceful (and therefore respected) democrat. In this case, consultative or democratic leadership would be the appropriate style.

Country	Power Distance		Individualism		Masculinity		Uncertainty Avoidance		Long-Term Orientation	
	Index (PDI)	Rank	Index (IDV)	Rank	Index (MAS)	Rank	Index (UAI)	Rank	Index (CFD)	Rank
Argentina	49	35–36	46	22–23	56	20–21	86	10–15		
Australia	36	41	90	2	61	16	51	37	31	14–15
Austria	11	53	55	18	79	2	70	24–25		
Belgium	65	20	75	8	54	22	94	5–6		
Brazil	69	14	38	26–27	49	27	76	21–22	65	6
Canada	39	39	80	4–5	52	24	48	41–42	23	20
Chile	63	24–25	23	33	28	46	86	10–15		
Colombia	67	17	13	49	64	11–12	80	20		
Costa Rica	35	42–44	15	46	21	48–49	86	10–15		
Denmark	18	51	74	9	16	50	23	51		
Equador	78	8–9	8	52	63	13–14	67	28		
Finland	33	46	63	17	26	47	59	31–32		
France	68	15–16	71	10–11	43	35–36	86	10–15		
Germany (FR)	35	42–44	67	15	66	9–10	65	29	31	14–15
Great Britn	35	42–44	89	3	66	9–10	35	47–48	25	18–19
Greece	60	27–28	35	30	57	18–19	112	1		
Guatemala	95	2–3	6	53	37	43	101	3		
Hong Kong	68	15–16	25	37	57	18–19	29	49–50	96	2
Indonesia	78	8–9	14	47–48	46	30–31	48	41–42		
India	77	10–11	48	21	56	20–21	40	45	61	7
Iran	58	29–30	41	24	43	35–36	59	31–32		
Ireland	28	49	70	12	68	7–8	35	47–48		
Israel	13	52	54	19	47	29	81	19		
Italy	50	34	76	7	70	4–5	75	23		
Jamaica	45	37	39	25	68	7–8	13	52		
Japan	54	33	46	22–23	95	1	92	7	80	4
Korea (S)	60	27–28	18	43	39	41	85	16–17	75	5
Malaysia	104	1	26	36	50	25–26	36	46		
Mexico	81	5–6	30	32	69	6	82	18		
Netherlands	38	40	80	4–5	14	51	53	35	44	10
Norway	31	47–48	69	13	8	52	50	38		
New Zealand	22	50	79	6	58	17	49	39–40	30	16
Pakistan	55	32	14	47–48	50	25–26	70	24–25	0	23
Panama	95	2–3	11	51	44	34	86	10–15		
Peru	64	21–23	16	45	42	37–38	87	9		
Philippines	94	4	32	31	64	11–12	44	44	19	21
Portugal	63	24–25	27	33–35	31	45	104	2		
South Africa		49	35–36	65	16	63	13–14	49	39–40	
Salvador	66	18–19	19	42	40	40	94	5–6		
Singapore	74	13	20	39–41	48	28	8	53	48	9
Spain	57	31	51	20	42	37–38	86	10–15		
Sweden	31	47–48	71	10–11	5	52	29	49–50	33	12
Switzerland	34	45	68	14	70	4–5	58	33		
Taiwan	58	29–30	17	44	45	32–33	69	26	87	3
Thailand	64	21–23	20	39–41	34	44	64	30	56	8
Turkey	66	18–19	37	28	45	31–33	85	16–17		
Uruguay	61	26	36	29	38	42	100	4		
U.S.A.	40	38	91	1	62	15	46	43	29	17
Venezuela	81	5–6	12	50	73	3	76	21–22		
Yugoslavia	76	12	27	33–35	21	48–49	88	8		
Regions:										
Arab Ctrs	80	7	38	26–27	53	23	68	27		
East Africa	64	21–23	27	33–35	41	39	52	36	25	18–19
West Africa	77	10–11	20	39–41	46	30–31	54	34	16	22
Not in IBM study:										
Bangladesh									40	11
China									118	1
Poland									32	13

Ranks: 1 = highest, 53 = lowest (for L.T. Orientation, 23 = lowest)

Figure 4.2 Scores of 50 countries and 3 regions on 5 dimensions of national culture
Source: Hofstede, 1993, pp. 148-149

4.3.2. Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)

Uncertainty Avoidance is defined by Hofstede (1991: 113) as "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations". This feeling is, among other things, expressed through nervous stress and in a need for predictability: a need for written and unwritten rules. Characteristics of low Uncertainty Avoidance societies, which include Denmark, Great Britain, USA, and Canada, are: the ideal types of organizations tend to have less structuring of activities, fewer written rules; informality; limited influence of experts; managers are likely to be more risk-taking, have more tolerance of differing views, reliance on their own initiative and ingenuity over, for example, promotion and hiring decisions and have more control of one's emotions (Hofstede, 1991: 111-12).

South Korea, Taiwan, and Germany, in contrast to Great Britain and Denmark, tend to have high scores on Uncertainty Avoidance, as reflected in the importance given in business to expert advice, qualifications, thoroughness, order, and detailed rules. All Southern European countries (e.g., Greece, France, Spain, and Italy) and Japan also rank high on uncertainty avoidance, indicating a desire for minimizing ambiguity and anxiety and to control the future. Moreover, characteristics of high Uncertainty Avoidance societies include stress upon laws and rules to cover all eventualities, safety, and security measures, desire for long careers in the same business, and focus on formal procedures (Hofstede, 1991: 116).

The implications of Uncertainty Avoidance for a company's recruitment and selection practices can be seen in a number of ways. HR managers/specialists

with strong Uncertainty Avoidance values are likely to be more anxious to ensure that recruitment and selection practices are followed, and that the company's employment (or HRM) policies are fully integrated with corporate strategy so that the organisational objectives can be achieved. Furthermore, organisations are likely to put the focus upon the internal labour market (e.g., to reduce uncertainty and risks) by using internal recruitment methods more effectively. For example, promotion-from-within can be used to improve the commitment and job security of employees (desired HRM outcomes). Transfers and job rotations can also be used to increase functional flexibility and to provide current employees with opportunities to experience different aspects of organizational life.

4.3.3. Individualism versus Collectivism

Hofstede (1991: 51) defines Individualism as "societies where the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family". Collectivism, as its opposite, refers to "societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty". The fundamental issue addressed by this dimension is the degree of interdependence a society maintains among individuals. It relates to people's self-concept: 'I' or 'we'(in-group).

According to Hofstede's findings (see Figure 4.2), key values in Collectivist cultures (e.g. countries like Japan, Singapore, and Taiwan) include achieving harmony and consensus in society and at work, face-saving in work and social situations, and group decision-making. Inducing 'shame' is also a means of group control over individuals who may violate group norms. Moreover, the personal

relationship usually prevails over the task; people are motivated by involvement in achieving group goals rather than by seeking self-advancement or self-actualization.

In contrast, in the Individualistic society where emphasis may be placed upon self-actualization or individual achievement, identity, and decision-making. Managers prefer to keep a distance from subordinates both professionally and personally. As is shown in Figure 4.2, all of Western Europe is Individualistic except Portugal and Greece, with Great Britain being ranked as the third highest individualist country world-wide after the USA and Australia.

However, the degree of Individualism or Collectivism of a society is also likely to affect a company's recruitment and selection policies and practices. For example, in a Collectivist society, employee referrals (the hiring of relatives and friends) are a common in-group recruitment practice used in family-owned organizations. Hiring persons from a family one already knows may reduce risks; relatives may also be concerned about the reputation of the family and help to correct misbehaviour of a family member (Hofstede, 1991: 64). Nevertheless, in the Individualistic society, a number of western researchers believe that there may be some potentially negative feature of this in-group approach. Family relationships at work are often considered undesirable because the hiring of family members and relatives (in-groups), for example, may lead to inbreeding, nepotism, and to a conflict of interests, and is likely to create cliques, causing some individuals (out-groups) already employed by the company to feel excluded from informal group associations (in-groups). Placing reliance upon employee referrals for finding new employees may also create an imbalance in equal employment

opportunity (Hofstede, 1991; Cherrington, 1995; Carrell et al., 1995; DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996).

Organizations in Japan tend to be highly authoritarian and demand conformity with company rules and compliance with group and cultural norms. They also tend to put more emphasis on group work that may encourage harmony within the workforce, on consensus between management and employees, and on a high degree of employee co-operation. This appears to be consistent with the high Power Distance and Collectivism Index scores as Hofstede indicates. Careful selection of new entrants and intensive socialization of recruits into the existing value system are also of great importance. Recruits are usually expected to spend their entire careers with a single firm, hence, they may be expected to acquire experience of various aspects of the business through job rotations and steady progression through the management hierarchy (or seniority-based promotion systems). Since there is only limited opportunity for promotion, most transfers are lateral and this thus develops generalist rather than specialist management skills and well-rounded management personalities (Hofstede, 1991; Graham and Bennett, 1995; Hollinshead and Leat, 1995).

As Figure 4.2 exhibits, the USA, Australia, and Great Britain have high scores on Individualism compared with Japan and Taiwan, this could explain the preference for dominance of ideology of liberal Individualism in the USA and Great Britain, and the associated HRM practices of performance appraisal, individual payment by results, and individualized career paths, which emphasize the importance of self-actualization, individual initiative and responsibility. Traditionally, the employer-employee relationship is usually conceived as a business transaction, a calculative relationship between buyers and sellers on a

'labour market'. Poor performance on the part of the employee or a better pay offer from another employer are legitimate and socially accepted reasons for terminating a work relationship (Hofstede, 1991; Hollinshead and Leat, 1995). This hard approach appears to be inconsistent with the Harvard model, Guest model, and Brewster and Bournois's model emphasizing the objectives of employee motivation and commitment and job satisfaction, etc. (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6).

4.3.4. Masculinity versus Femininity

Masculinity is defined by Hofstede (1991: 82-83) as "societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (e.g., men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life)", while Femininity is the term used to describe "societies in which social gender roles overlap (e.g., both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life)". Hofstede found that countries with high Masculinity included Japan, Italy, Great Britain, and Germany. Countries with low Masculinity (or high Femininity) included Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden. Eastern countries such as Singapore, Taiwan, and South Korea had moderate to high scores on Femininity (see Figure 4.2).

In Masculine countries, Hofstede argues that stereotypically male values such as challenge, competitiveness, individual recognition and advancement, materialism, profit, strength, and action-focused activities tend to be appreciated. However, in Feminine countries, more appreciation is given to stereotypically female values such as co-operation, warm relationships, and caring and nurturing, while less differentiation exists between male and female roles.

The influences of the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension on an organization's recruitment and selection practices may include: a preference for recruiting men or women for certain professions or job positions and opportunities for employment and promotion for men or women. In Masculine cultures like Japan, recruitment of women by Japanese companies is much more casual than for men. The selection procedure is also more informal for women. Junior high schools and high schools (external recruitment sources) provide the majority of applicants to fill the many retail and service positions available to women. Those women who work in manufacturing tend to be viewed as short-term, and often part-time, employees. Women are commonly required to resign on pregnancy or childbirth and their length of service with the company tends to be much shorter, thus their opportunities for promotion are severely limited. Even the few women who do not marry and who move up to responsible positions are often encouraged to leave the company long before the normal retirement age. Also, few of the commitments and benefits accorded males are extended to females. Although, in Japan, equal opportunities legislation was enacted in 1986, it only asks employers to 'make efforts' to treat men and women equally, it is not surprising that its effect seems to be unexceptional (Hollinshead and Leat, 1995). In contrast, Denmark along with other Scandinavian and North European countries have high Feminine scores (Hofstede, 1991), the Equal Opportunities Act in these countries attempts to place more restrictions upon employers to provide equal treatment of men and women in recruitment for jobs, transfer, or promotion.

In short, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance tend to affect our thinking about ideal types of organization (e.g., who has the power to decide what?; how the organization should be structured?; how rules and procedures

should be regulated?; is risk encouraged?; are experts and expertise valued and respected?; are different views tolerated?) while Individualism-Collectivism and Masculinity-Femininity seem to affect our thinking about people in organizations rather than about organizations themselves (Hofstede, 1991: 140). This implies that Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance are indicative of organization structure and management processes whereas Individualism and Masculinity are indicative of personal values and attributes. Moreover, Hofstede (1991) has examined the influence of each of these dimensions for the family and at the school and workplace and suggested that these value orientations can be measured according to occupation, education level, gender, and gender roles, etc..

4.3.5. Implicit Models of Organization

In addition, Hofstede (1991) points out that different combinations of Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance may lead to different implicit models of how an organization should be structured, and thus suggests that four types of organization could be distinguished as Figure 4.3 illustrates: the pyramid of people, the well-oiled machine, the village market, and the family.

Hofstede indicates that countries (e.g., Japan, Taiwan, France, and Italy) emphasizing large Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance were likely to produce forms of organization that relied heavily upon hierarchy and clear orders from superiors; centralized decision-making and control from the top: *a pyramid of people*. This particular model of organization may have some implications for recruitment and selection practices, such as promotion and hiring decisions. In some formalized French organizations, for example, the HR managers' higher Power Distance scores are usually reflected in a desire to seek

approval from seniors before accepting candidates. In Greece too, the final decision for appointment often resides with the Managing Director after a strict initial screening and selection process (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994: 343).
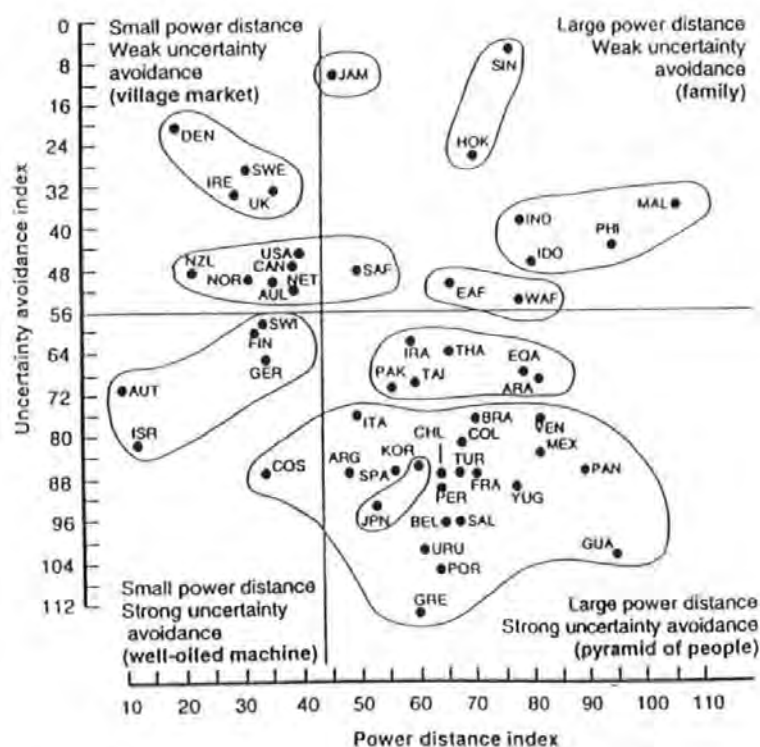
Figure 4.3 Implicit models of organization
Source: Hofstede, 1991, p.141

In countries like Germany, Switzerland, and Australia where there is small Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance, there might be an implicit form of organization that depended on rules, procedures, and clear structure: *a well-oiled machine*. The third implicit model of organization, *a village market*, found in countries (e.g., USA, Great Britain, Denmark, Norway, and Netherlands) with small Power Distance and weak Uncertainty Avoidance, is characterized by the lack of a decisive hierarchy and flexible rules. Olie (1995: 142) comments that in this type of the implicitly structured organization, neither work processes nor relationships between people are rigidly prescribed, and that problems in this

organizational form are not solved primarily by the exercise of authority or by formal rules, but through negotiation. The fourth model, *the family*, is a combination of large Power Distance and weak Uncertainty Avoidance. This organizational model seems to be the ideal organizational approach in a number of Asian countries such as Hong Kong (a part of China now), Singapore, and Malaysia: strong personal authority combined with few formal rules; problems are resolved by constantly referring to the boss who is like a father to an extended family, so there is concentration of authority without structuring of activities.

4.3.6. Hofstede's Framework and Some Criticisms

Before presenting the general criticisms of Hofstede's framework, it may be advisable to briefly describe how Hofstede's initial project was conducted.

4.3.6.1. Hofstede's Framework

Hofstede's initial project on national cultural differences was focused on employees in subsidiaries of the IBM corporation in 67 countries. His data was collected through the standardized paper-and-pencil attitude and value survey questionnaires. The same questionnaires were used twice, around 1968 and around 1972. The entire data bank contains the answers on over 116,000 questionnaires, each with about 150 questions. Twenty different language versions were used. The initial analysis of the IBM data was performed on the 40 largest subsidiaries of IBM (Note: 27 countries were omitted from the analysis because the samples from these countries were smaller than about 50 respondents). At a later stage, supplementary data became available for another ten countries and three multi-

country regions (East Africa, West Africa, and Arab-speaking countries), thereby raising the total number of countries to fifty (Hofstede, 1983: 48-49).

For the original set of 40 countries, the relationships among the country scores on the 32 questions were studied. This represents an ecological, not an individual, analysis. The number of cases used is 40 (countries), not 116,000 (individuals). The data enables him to attribute to each of the forty countries represented in the data bank of IBM an index value (between 0 and about 100) on each of the four dimensions. The four dimensions were identified through a combination of multivariate factor analysis and theoretical reasoning. They were labelled Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism versus Collectivism, and Masculinity versus Femininity. A factor analysis of the country scores for 32 questions and 40 countries showed that three factors explained 49 per cent of the total variance: on factor combined high Power Distance and low Individualism, one corresponded to Uncertainty Avoidance, and one, to Masculinity. The two dimensions of Power Distance and Individualism, although negatively correlated ($r = 0.67$ across 40 countries), have been maintained as separate dimensions for conceptual/theoretical reasons (Hofstede, 1983: 49-50). Each of the four value dimensions were calculated according to the weighted formulas designed by Hofstede (1980, 1983), which will be shown in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1 (Note: for further details regarding how the index scores of these countries on each of the four dimensions were calculated, please refer to *National Cultures in Four Dimensions: A Research-Based Theory of Cultural Differences Among Nations*", written by Hofstede, 1983).

Hofstede (1983: 46) suggests that the four value based dimensions of national culture can be used as a framework for developing hypotheses in cross-

cultural organization studies. He also indicates that these value orientations may not be suitable for discriminating among individuals and not for discriminating according to other sub-cultural distinctions like gender, generation, social class, or organization, etc.. In other words, his study could be replicated only on the following conditions: (1) at least two matched samples of respondents from different countries, regions, or ethnic groups; and (2) preferably at least one of these should be covered in the IBM studies so as to supply an anchoring point (Hofstede, 1991: 254- 256).

It should be noted that it is not the aim of this study to replicate Hofstede's work by comparing work-related values of matched respondents from different national cultural contexts or different ethnic groups. Rather, this study seeks to examine Hofstede's value based dimensions of national culture, consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan (whether they would change over time), and establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices (see Section 4.0). Further, since Taiwan was included in Hofstede's data analysis, it might be appropriate for this research to apply his key cultural dimensions as a methodological framework.

4.3.6.2. Criticisms of Hofstede's Framework

Although Hofstede's work can be seen as the most significant, elaborate and extensive cross-cultural study of work-related values (Bhagat and McQuaid, 1982; Triandis, 1982; Sorge, 1983), his work appears to be vulnerable on the following grounds.

1. One major bias exists in Hofstede's sample design. The values of IBM employees (white collar people) may not be typical of the values of all the
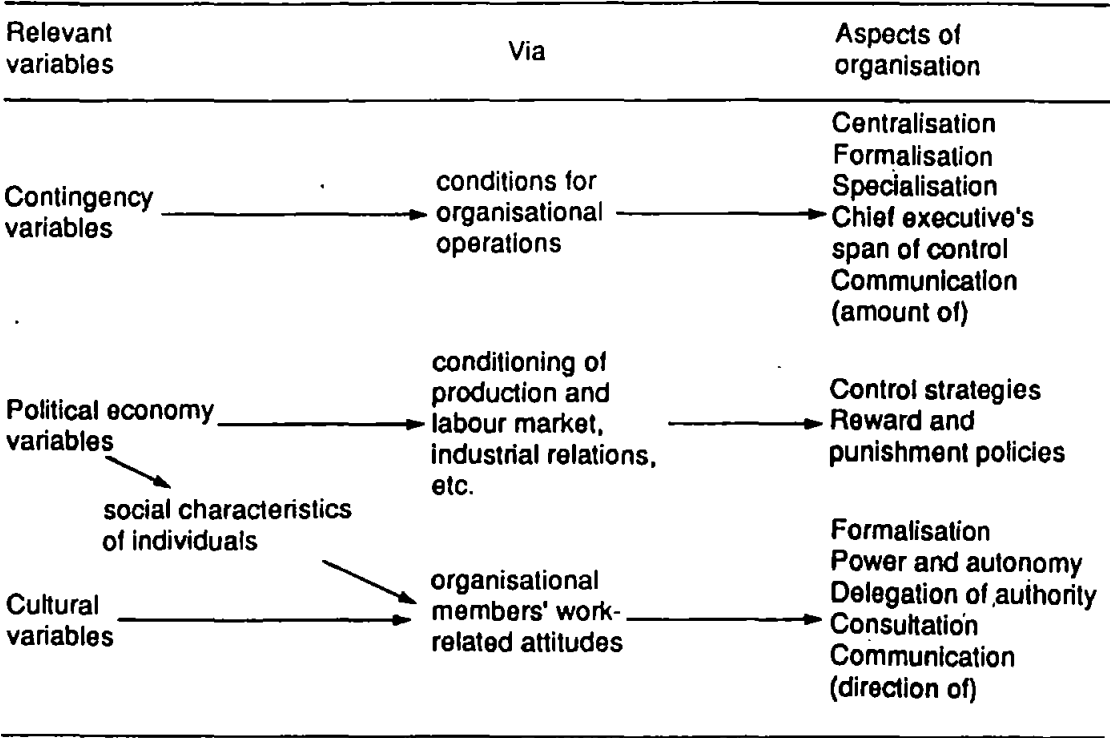
members of the societies in his sample countries; and certain social classes (e.g., working class people or unskilled manual workers, etc.) seem to be excluded. Also, the American-owned IBM corporation may not be taken as representative of the computer industry in his respective countries (Robinson, 1983; Tayeb, 1988, 1994; Smith, 1996; Mead, 1998). Although such criticisms regarding Hofstede's sample design may be true, Laurent's cross-national study supports Hofstede's findings that national cultural differences may be most pronounced within a multinational organization (see Section 4.2.3).

2. There appears to be some measurement problems as well. Hofstede's methodology presents the problems of replicability: the four value dimensions were obtained by a factor analysis of 32 questionnaire items with only 40 subjects of data points (40 sample countries). Such an analysis may be statistically flawed. Moreover, the use of different weights in computing the four index scores also seem to be arbitrary and without statistical evidence. The assigned weights indicate the relative importance of the items and any changes of the weights would have a significant impact on the scale score (Dorfman et al., 1987; Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Yeh, 1988: 107).

3. Some commentators have criticized the use of the terms Masculinity versus Femininity, preferring concepts such as 'career success versus quality of life', 'tough versus tender' or 'assertive versus nurturing', or 'achievement versus nurture' or 'competition versus co-operation' (Robinson, 1983; Leeds and Kirkbride, 1994; Adler, 1997).

4. Hofstede's research is in itself culture-bound. The team was composed of European and American researchers and therefore many of the questions asked and the analysis made of the answers might reflect western concerns and have

had less relevance to other cultures (e.g., the Far East) (Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1984)

5. Hofstede's work may also be subject to time constraints. As Hollinshead and Leat (1995) suggested, Hofstede's main analysis was conducted in the 1970s and since then, a trend towards Individualism (or Masculinity) may have become more obvious even in those countries with low Individualism index scores (e.g., Taiwan).

6. Child (1981: 306) indicates that many researchers of cross-cultural studies tend to treat culture as a 'residual factor' which is presumed to account for national variations that have neither been postulated before the research nor explained after its completion. Following on Child's comment, Tayeb (1994) also argues that although most of the researchers have examined the influence of culture on organizations, they do not attempt to study the cultural context of the focused organizations beforehand, and that they try to learn about the cultural settings of their targeted organizations only after the interpretation of their results have required cultural explanations. Hofstede's work appears to have this weakness, adopting the residual approaches, as Child and Tayeb claim.

7. Hofstede's work has also been criticized for not having empirically investigated the relationships between the four dimensions of work-related values and the structures of the organizations. The relationships tend to be conceptual and speculative without any hard evidence (Tayeb, 1994: 435). Unlike Hofstede work, Tayeb's (1988) comparative study of Indian and English cultures and organizations was carried out in three independent stages in an attempt to (1) examine the cultural, contingency, and political economy factors in the structure of organizations and their employees' work-related attitudes, and (2) establish

the relationships between them. Her systematic literature, national culture, work attitude, and organizational structure surveys led her to develop the multi-perspective model (see Figure 4.4).

Relevant variables	Via	Aspects of organisation
Contingency variables	conditions for organisational operations	Centralisation Formalisation Specialisation Chief executive's span of control Communication (amount of)
Political economy variables	conditioning of production and labour market, industrial relations, etc.	Control strategies Reward and punishment policies
social characteristics of individuals		
Cultural variables	organisational members' work-related attitudes	Formalisation Power and autonomy Delegation of authority Consultation Communication (direction of)

Figure 4.4 A multi-perspective model for understanding organizational structure and systems
Source: Tayeb, 1988, p.156

In the model, Tayeb indicates that cultural variables arise as a result of political economy factors via changes in social characteristics of individuals. She also attempts a causal integration of all elements of the model to increase a more wholistic understanding of organizations and the differences in national cultures than residual approaches, like Hofstede's.

Despite a number of criticisms outlined above, Mead (1994) comments that Hofstede's four dimensions of national culture tap into deep cultural values and allow significant comparisons to be made between national cultures, and that his

work provides the manager with a framework of guidelines and hypotheses against which to measure his/her own analysis. In the words of Westwood and Everett (1987), Hofstede's findings may be useful heuristically as a starting point for further investigation of culture and cultural variation, particularly for more qualitative research and analysis" (p.201).

4.4. 'Confucian Dynamism' as a Fifth Dimension

The previous section examined Hofstede's first four value dimensions, presented the implications of these value orientations for 'ideals' of organization structure and management approach (e.g., HRM, recruitment and selection policies and practices), and described briefly Hofstede's framework and its criticisms. This section explores the fifth dimension - Confucian Dynamism that Hofstede and Bond studied in the 1980s, along with a number of Chinese scholars. This section seeks to:

- provide the reasons for the creation of the Confucian Dynamism;
- discuss the 'long term' versus 'short term' value orientations that composed of this new dimension;
- identify the implications for recruitment and selection practices;
- explain the role of education in East Asia; and
- describe briefly how the Chinese Family Businesses (CFBs) were formed under the influence of Confucianism and the emergence of the western management theories and practices in the Chinese commonwealth.

4.4.1. Reasons Behind the Creation of the Confucian Dynamism

As mentioned earlier, the original questionnaire of the IBM project conducted by Hofstede (1980, 1983, 1986, 1991) had been designed exclusively by westerners, and therefore the choice of items and research findings were inevitably reflective of western values (Mead, 1994). However, Michael Bond (1984, 1988), a Canadian researcher, found a creative solution to the western bias problem. He had a questionnaire designed with a deliberate Eastern bias, in this case a Chinese culture bias, which he used in the same way as western questionnaires, so that the results could be compared. Bond asked a number of Chinese social scientists from Hong Kong and Taiwan to prepare in Chinese a list of basic values for Chinese people (as is shown in Figure 4.4). And so the 40 questions in the *Chinese Value Survey* (*CVS*) reflected the priorities of Eastern rather than Western minds - and hence differed significantly from the original IBM project, and from other instruments used in cross-cultural research. This questionnaire was then translated into English and the languages of the respondents, and administered to 100 students (50 males and 50 females) in each of 22 countries around the world. After the initial publication of the results, data for (the People's Republic of) China were added, increasing the number of countries covered to 23 (Hofstede, 1991: 161).

Respondents were asked to indicate on a 9-point scale how important each of the 40 values was to them personally, where a score of 9 meant 'of supreme importance' and a score of 1 meant 'of no importance at all' (Hofstede et al., 1987: 148). The survey data was analyzed by employing the ecological factor analysis, which means that each of the participating countries is represented by a score on the 40 values derived by combining the individual responses that form

their basis. Moreover, for each culture, the endorsement of the male respondents and of the female respondents on each value was averaged for each of the 40 values on the CVS. The average of the male and female means for a given item then became their culture's score on that item. A principal axis factor analysis was run on the 40 standardized means from each culture, with factors rotated to orthogonal structure. A scree test indicated the presence of four factors in the matrix, accounting for 21.3 per cent, 15.4 per cent, 11.5 per cent, and 8.7 per cent of the matrix variance respectively. These four factors/dimensions were labelled 'Integration', 'Confucian Dynamism', 'Human-Heartedness', and 'Moral Discipline' (Note: for further details concerning how the ecological factor analysis was used to analyze the CVS, please refer to *"Chinese Values and the Search for Culture-Free Dimensions of Culture: the Chinese Culture Connection"* written by Hofstede et al., 1987).

According to the results of a culture-level or ecological analysis of the data, three of the four factors/dimensions in the CVS (and based upon the values suggested by Bond's Chinese experts) seem to probe three types of social behaviour: behaviour towards senior or junior, towards the group, and the expected roles of the sexes. As such they overlapped with those three dimensions in the IBM survey - Power Distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, and Femininity versus Masculinity. The Uncertainty Avoidance dimension from the IBM studies, missing in the CVS data, tends to reflect western preoccupation with Truth (the CVS technique did not yield data that correlated with the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension; and the Chinese researchers who devised that (CVS technique) did not show the western preoccupations with Truth). The westerner is analytic in his/her thinking and accepts the possibility of only one Truth; if my

point of view (logical, religious, ethical, aesthetic) is true, and yours differs, then yours by definition is untrue. This mind set appears to reflect the three great western religions of the Bible, Judaism, Christianity, and Islam. However, the Eastern mentality and its ethical systems, are essentially synthetic. Confucianism and the major Eastern religions, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Taoism, all value Virtue rather than Truth and find Virtue in behaviour (ritual and ways of living, etc.) rather than belief (citing from Mead, 1994).

4.4.2. 'Long Term' versus 'Short Term' Value Orientations

Hofstede and Bond (1988: 16) found evidence of a fifth dimension, missing from the IBM survey, which they call *'Confucian Dynamism'*. This new dimension was composed of the following values: on the one pole which could be labelled 'long-term orientation' (LTO):

- *persistence (perseverance)*
- *ordering relationships by status and observing this order*
- *thrift*
- *having a sense of shame.*

Values on the opposite pole, which could be labelled 'short-term orientation' (STO), are:

- *personal steadiness and stability*
- *protecting your 'face'*
- *respect for tradition*
- *reciprocation of greetings, favours, and gifts.*

1. Filial piety (Obedience to parents, respect for parents, honouring of ancestors, financial support of parents).
2. Industry (working hard).
3. Tolerance of others.
4. Harmony with others.
5. Humbleness.
6. Loyalty to superiors.
7. Observation of rites and social rituals.
8. Reciprocation of greetings, favours, and gifts.
9. Kindness (Forgiveness, compassion).
10. Knowledge (Education).
11. Solidarity with others.
12. Moderation, following the middle way.
13. Self-cultivation.
14. Ordering relationships by status and observing this order.
15. Sense of righteousness.
16. Benevolent authority.
17. Non-competitiveness.
18. Personal steadiness and stability.
19. Resistance to corruption.
20. Patriotism.
21. Sincerity.
22. Keeping oneself disinterested and pure.
23. Thrift.
24. Persistence (Perseverance).
25. Patience.
26. Repayment of both the good or the evil that another person has caused you.
27. A sense of cultural superiority.
28. Adaptability.
29. Prudence (Carefulness).
30. Trustworthiness.
31. Having a sense of shame.
32. Courtesy.
33. Contentedness with one's position in life.
34. Being conservative.
35. Protecting your "face".
36. A close, intimate friend.
37. Chastity in women.
38. Having few desires.
39. Respect for tradition.
40. Wealth.

Figure 4.5 The Chinese value survey and English equivalents
Source: The Chinese culture connection (a team of 24 researchers), 1987, pp.147-148

According to Hofstede, the reason for Bond choosing the qualification 'Confucian' for this dimension is that nearly all values, on both poles, seem to be taken straight from the teachings of Confucius. The values on the one pole, positively rated, are more oriented towards the future (especially perseverance and thrift) and they are more dynamic. The values on the opposite pole, negatively rated, are more oriented towards the past and present and they are more static (Hofstede et al., 1987: 150; Hofstede, 1991: 166; Hofstede, 1993: 150). In practical terms, Confucian dynamism simply refers to *a long-term versus a short-term orientation in life*' (Hofstede, 1991: 164) and it could also apply to countries without a Confucian heritage (Hofstede, 1993: 150).

The column 'Long-Term Orientation' in Figure 4.2 lists the scores for Confucian dynamism by country. From Figure 4.2, one may notice that the most short-term oriented countries are Great Britain, Canada, Nigeria, and Pakistan. Some non-Asian countries such as Brazil and the Netherlands score relatively high on this dimension. The highest scoring countries on this dimension were China, Hong Kong (a part of China now), Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea. Singapore was placed ninth. Leaving out the special case of China, Hong Kong, and the developed country Japan, one can see that the other three Asian countries are those known as 'NICs' (newly industrialized countries) because of their dramatic rate of economic growth over the past decades.

Hofstede (1991:168-69) indicates that the values on the LTO pole are very Confucian and support entrepreneurial activity. *Perseverance* (persistence), in the pursuit of whatever goals, is an essential asset for a new entrepreneur. *Ordering relationships by status* and *observing this order* reflects the Confucian emphasis on pairs of unequal relationships (e.g., father and son), the so-called '*wu lun*' or

the 'Five Cardinal Relations'. A sense of a harmonious and stable hierarchy makes the entrepreneurial role easier to play. The five cardinal relations are: 1. loyalty/ruler-subject; 2. filial piety/father-son; 3. faithfulness/husband-wife; 4. brotherhood/elder brother-younger brother; and 5. sincerity/friend-friend). Oh (1991: 48) comments that four of these five relationships are hierarchically structured, and in each case the proper attitude of the subordinate party is prescribed. Only two major sentiments underlie this system: filial piety and fraternal love. In the father-son relationship, filial piety is expressed as a kind of respect and loyalty; in the relation of wife to husband, it emerges as obedience; and in the relation of younger brother to elder it is expressed as respect. The only equal relationship specified is the friend-friend relation, but even here hierarchy is likely to enter the relation; for instance, if one friend is older than the other. Kim Byung Whan (1992: 77) describes the five human relationships as 'an almost perfect set of ethical codes for industrial society': loyalty to the ruler translates into company loyalty; the benevolence of parents translates into a benevolent management style; senior-junior relationships translate into an acceptance of hierarchy; and trustworthiness among friends becomes co-operation between co-workers.

Thrift leads to savings and the availability of capital for reinvestment by oneself or one's relatives. The value of *having a sense of shame* supports interelatedness through sensitivity to social contacts and an emphasis on keeping one's commitments. Hofstede suggests that certain values on the long-term orientation pole (e.g., perseverance and thrift) tend to be highly correlated with East Asian economic growth, at least for the period of 1965-1987. Clegg (1990) comments that East Asian economic achievement (e.g., the newly industrialized countries: Taiwan, Singapore, and South Korea) could be said to be attributable to

deep-seated and culturally given social facts and values. The role of cultural factors has also been supported by MacFarquhar (1980) and Kahn (1979) who identified Confucian ideology as the main reason for the East Asian economic miracle. However, it should be noted that although Confucian values may be the key to East Asian economic success, other interconnected factors like economic policies, political and legal factors, and the existence of a market, etc. are also likely to play a crucial role in East Asian economic development.

On the short-term orientation pole, Hofstede (1991: 169) indicates that values like *personal steadiness* and *stability*, if over-emphasized, may discourage the initiative, risk seeking, and flexibility required of entrepreneurs in quickly changing markets. *Protecting one's face* if exaggerated would detract from pursuing the business at hand. Too much *respect for tradition* may hinder innovation. Part of the reason for the NICs' economic success is the ease with which they have accepted western technological innovations. In this respect, they have appeared to be less traditional than many western countries (see Figure 4.2), and this thus explains the NICs' relatively low scores on this short-term oriented value. Moreover, with the results of western, analytically derived technologies now being freely available, Eastern cultures were able to start putting these technologies into practice using their own synthetic abilities. The Asian people believe that "what is true or who is right is less important than what works and how the efforts of individuals with different thinking patterns can be co-ordinated towards a common goal" (Hofstede, 1991: 172). Japanese management, for example, particularly with Japanese employees, is famous for this pragmatic synthesis. Finally, *reciprocation of greetings*, *favour*, and *gifts* is a social ritual more concerned with good manners than with performance.

4.4.3. Managerial Implications of the Confucian Dynamism

In much the same way as 'culture' may influence HRM, recruitment and selection policies and practices, it may also influence the work-related values and attitudes sought in prospective employees. When making hiring/selection decisions, the applications' traits, attitudes, and work-related values (e.g., co-operation, loyalty, industry, harmony, caring and nurturing, and perseverance, etc.) may need to be taken into consideration. It may be important for HR managers/specialists to ensure that the applicant's overall qualifications and characteristics (regarding those attitudes and values as mentioned above) can 'fit' well and/or are compatible with the organization's needs and prevailing culture, and that once hired, they are able to effectively carry out required tasks and collaborate well with their colleagues.

4.4.4. The Role of Education in East Asia

Education has also played a highly important role in Confucian tradition. According to Oh (1991: 52-53), academic achievement was measured by a series of examinations which determined young people's educational and personal futures within their society. The educational method involved much rote learning and copying of examples, with the development of the theoretical and logical reasoning playing a minor role. Education in East Asia today still places the major emphasis upon accumulating a vast store of knowledge through rote memorisation. It tends to produce a workforce well suited to the regimentation of the manufacturing and service industries but without much creativity. The emphasis on memorisation rather than critical analysis implies that East Asia's NICs (e.g.,

Taiwan, Singapore, and South Korea) are not likely to play a major role in innovative and creative fields such as software and biotechnology and so on. Today, education is still the pathway to power in East Asia. Young people are highly motivated to obtain it; and diplomas and degrees are respected achievements. Nevertheless, the literary emphasis that prevails in East Asian education has produced a communication style that is not well adapted to expressing the theoretical or logical reasoning necessary for good business communication. Their business documents may often seem vague and evasive (Oh, 1991: 53). This seems to be reflective of East Asian high context cultures as Hall and Hall (1990, 1995) suggest (see Section 4.5).

4.4.5. Chinese Family Businesses (CFBs) and the Emergence of Western Management Theories and Practices in the Chinese Commonwealth

In addition, it should be noted that, even though the Chinese and Japanese have high collectivism values (Hofstede, 1991), the Chinese tend to be more relation-based (Liang, 1974: 94) and less group centred (Yeh, 1989:157) than the Japanese. As the Japanese commentator Nakane perceptively notes:

> In the Japanese system all members of the household are in one group under the head, with no specific rights according to the status of individuals within the family. The Japanese family system differs from that of the Chinese system where family ethics are always based upon relationships between particular individuals such as father and son, brothers and sisters, parents and child, husband and wife, while in Japan they are always based on the collective groups, i.e., members of a household, not on the relationship between individuals (Nakane, 1973: 14).

The Confucian doctrine is of great significance to Japanese management: subordinates are usually loyal to one's superior and expected to show their gratitude for such treatment in their total commitment and dedication to their

superior and to the organization (Whitehill, 1991). However, the Chinese kin-clan tend to generate different trust or loyalty/commitment. According to Confucian ethics, the (biological) family is the most important institution in the Chinese society and an elastic concept which can be expanded or contracted according to need (Oh, 1991). Five subgroups can be identified within the family-owned business; and these are core family members, close relatives, distant relatives, long-term employees, and non-related employees. The closer the distance to the centre, the more likely it is that a member of the enterprise would be trusted and appointed to top management position, instead of the others (Hall and Xu, 1990; Chen, 1995). Under the influence of this concept, the business owner tends to regard the business as the private property of the core family, and hence is usually reluctant to share the ownership with others (out-groups). It seems relatively rare for non-family members (out-groups) without strong personal ties to owners to become trusted members of top management. Partly as a result, many non-family members leave to start their own businesses (Whitley, 1990; Mead, 1994). As Oh (1991) indicates, non-family employees of family-owned firms are often in an unfortunate position: permanently excluded from the inner family circle whose authority is unchallenged, they are seldom trusted, and are often treated as outsiders (out-groups). Moreover, the practice of equal inheritance among sons in the Chinese society (in contrast to Japan and Korea) often restricts the size to which businesses can grow (Wilkinson, 1996), and this may help to explain why the majority of family-owned businesses in Taiwan are small to medium in size (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.1).

Hodgetts and Luthans (1994, 1997) suggest that culture may change over time (here it means the deepest level of a culture - values and their time scale of

change, see the following case given by Kao) and is passed from one generation to the next. This can be illustrated by the environment of a Chinese Commonwealth. Along with the adherence to traditional Chinese values across generations, Kao's (1993) research reveals that the emergence of an economically powerful Chinese commonwealth (Chinese-owned businesses in East Asia, in the USA, and Canada, etc.) is due to a number of changes over the past three decades, including a break with traditional life-raft values (see Figure 4.6). People of Chinese descent are now born all over the world; they are multicultural and have lived and been educated in a manner different from their parents. While second- and third-generation Chinese still respect the family enterprise, these younger entrepreneurs have absorbed other values as well, particularly if they live in western countries like the United States, Canada, Australia, and UK. The commonwealth's new breed of entrepreneurs have shifted from a survivor mentality to a focus on Maslow theory of motivation or self-actualization, a goal that reflects western philosophies and practices.

Based upon Kao's (1993) research evidence, the following 'soft' factors (of HRM) have been considered as most crucial for improving their businesses in the future: managing growth, nurturing creativity, developing more open communication and confrontation skills, and encouraging professionalization of the organization and smooth assimilation of outsiders. For example, the Acer Group in Taiwan markets its own brand of computer clones in more than 70 countries and is one of the largest personal computer companies in the world. Acer's employees are encouraged to own shares of company stock, the company's emphasis on employees' education, training and development, decentralized decision-making, doing its own R&D, and creating its own brand name have become highly praised models for other enterprises in Taiwan. Yet the CEO (chief

executive officer) and cofounder Stan Shih still attributes many of the company's greatest strengths - especially the stability of its senior managers - to traditional Chinese culture, as is shown in Figure 4.6 (Kao, 1993).

> - Thrift ensures survival.
> - A high, even irrational, level of savings is desirable, regardless of immediate need.
> - The only people you can trust are family - and a business enterprise is created as familial life raft.
> - The judgement of an incompetent relative in the family business is more reliable than that of a complete stranger.
> - Obedience to patriarchal authority is essential to maintaining coherence and direction for the enterprise.
> - Investment must be based on kinship or clan affiliations, not abstract principles.
> - Tangible goods like real estate, natural resources, and gold bars are preferable to intangibles like illiquid securities or intellectual property.
> - Keep your bags packed at all time, day or night.

Figure 4.6 The survivor mentality and the Confucian tradition of patriarchal authority inform the 'life-raft' values of the typical Chinese entrepreneur
Source: Kao, 1993, p.276

4.5.   Other Researchers' Work on Cross-Cultural Studies

It should be noted that Hofstede is not the only person who has devised a model or framework that can be used to facilitate our understanding of national cultural differences. Other leading researchers like Kluckhohm and Strodtbeck (1961), Child (1981), Triandis (1983), Laurent (1983), Hall (1981), Tayeb (1988, 1994), Maznevski (1994), Trompennars and Hampden-Turner (1993, 1997), and Adler (1991, 1997), etc. have also made considerable contributions on national culture studies or proposed some significant cultural dimensions, either based upon observational or empirical research.

This section primarily focuses on the works of Laurent, Hall, and Trompennars, which have been widely used as a reference by many researchers (e.g., Leeds, Kirkbride, and Durcan, 1994; Darlington, 1996; Adler, 1997; Deresky, 1997; Schneider and Barsoux, 1997; Sparrow and Wu, 1997; Mead, 1998). Each of the studies reviewed in this section will illustrate different aspects of culture and raise awareness of how culture guides the way managers look at problems, the solutions they find, the way they deal with others, and how others may react.

4.5.1. The Work of Laurent

Laurent (1983) conducted cross-cultural research based on questionnaires completed by middle and senior level managers following courses at INSEAD, Versailles, France. In the surveys, he asked managers (from nine Western European countries, the USA, and three Asian countries (Indonesia, Japan, and China)) to agree or disagree with statements regarding beliefs about organization and management.

Among other statements, Laurent asked managers a question regarding the need for managers to have precise answers to most of the questions that their subordinates might raise about their work. Swedish and American managers have low scores in agreement and they tend to believe that managers should help subordinates discover ways to solve problems rather than simply answering their questions directly because merely providing answers may discourage subordinates' initiative and creativity. By contrast, Japanese and Italian managers have high scores in agreement and believe that people should not hold managerial positions

unless they can give precise answers to most work-related questions. This seems to reflect their reputation for being more directive and less willing to delegate than Swedish and American managers, or for a preference to create dependency or paternalist relationships. However, problems may arise when managers from one culture interact with managers and employees from other cultures. For example, the Japanese subordinate is likely to think that the boss (a Swedish manager), not knowing the answers, is incompetent, while the Swedish boss may think that the Japanese subordinate does not know what to do and is therefore incompetent.

Another of Laurent's findings showed Chinese and Spanish managers expressing numerically greater disagreement than Swedish and British managers with the statement concerning the need to bypass the hierarchical line in order to have efficient work relationships. Most Scandinavian and Anglo managers seem to believe that a perfect hierarchy, in which their boss knows everything, is impossible; and hence they see bypassing as a natural, logical, and appropriate way for employees to work in complex and changing organizations. However, most Asian and Latin managers tend to believe that in order for bosses to be respected, or to have power and authority, they should demonstrate expert knowledge and if the most efficient way to get things done is to bypass the hierarchical line they would consider that there was something wrong with the hierarchy.

Laurent (1983) concludes that the national origin of European, North American, and Asian managers significantly influences their views on how effective managers should manage, and that the extent to which managers see organizations as political, authoritarian, role-formalizing, or hierarchical-relationship systems varies according to their country of origin.

4.5.2. High and Low Context Cultures

Hall makes the distinction between high-context and low-context cultures. Unlike Hofstede, Laurent, and Trompenaars, Hall's work is built on qualitative insights rather than quantitative data and does not rank different countries. He points out that "a high-context communication or message is one in which most of the information is either in the physical context or internalized in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicitly transmitted part of the message.... A low-context communication is just the opposite; e.g., the mass of information is vested in the explicit code.... Although no culture exists exclusively at one end of the scale, some are high while others are low" (Hall, 1981/1976: 91).

In high context cultures (e.g., Asia, Latin America, Middle East, Africa, and the Mediterranean), it is assumed that most information is already in the person and therefore greater reliance is placed on informal, subtle, word of mouth, face-to-face methods of communication. However, in low context cultures (e.g., USA, Germany, Switzerland, and Scandinavian countries), emphasis is placed on clear, unambiguous and explicit messages between people, time management, deadlines and punctuality. In such cultures, personal and business relationships are more separated; feelings and thoughts are expressed in words, and information is more readily available (Hall and Hall, 1990, 1995).

In cross-cultural communication between high- and low-context people, a lack of understanding may cause problems in reaching a solution; and conflict may arise. For example, Germans would expect considerable detailed information before making a business decision whereas Arabs would base their decision more on knowledge of the people involved - the information is still there, but it is implicit. The distinction between high- and low-context cultures can also cause

communication problems, even more so when the participants share the same mother tongue. For example, American people generally have little patience for wordy or dragging explanations and see language as functional rather than as an art form. However, the opposite is true in Great Britain, where speech is more implicative or suggestive. Mastery of the language is usually considered a sign of good breeding and intelligence.

It seems that finding the right balance between low and high-context communication can be tricky, as Hall and Hall (1990) points out: too much information leads people to feel they are being talked down to; too little information can mystify them or make them feel left out.

4.5.3. The Research of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner

A recent work by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) has built on the cross-cultural survey started by Trompenaars in his original thesis (1984) and continued to the present day. Their world-wide study has so far covered over 55 countries among 30,000 participants. In their books *Riding the Waves of Culture* (1997) and *the Seven Cultures of Capitalism* (1993), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner seek to explain differences between cultures in a non-prescriptive nature. They believe that there is no one best way of managing and organizing cultures. They describe culture as the way in which people solve problems and reconcile dilemmas and show that different cultures have different ways of solving common problems and finding specific solutions.

From their research, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner identified seven fundamental dimensions of culture, based on societies' differing solutions to relationships with other people, nature, and time and explained in detail how these

dimensions would affect the process of doing business and managing across cultures. Their work aims at practising managers and international workers and providing them with some cultural insights into the global versus local dilemma facing international organizations. Each of the following dimensions they distinguished has within it a dilemma as typified by two opposite or contrasting values.

1. *Universalism-particularism* in which individuals from a universalist culture would focus on rules, and from a particularist culture on relationships.

2. The *analyzing-integrating* dimension examines the tension between the tendency to analyze phenomena into parts, e.g., facts, items, tasks, numbers, units, points, specifics, or...to integrate and configure such details into whole patterns, relationships, and wider context.

3. *Individualism-Communitarianism* is the conflict between what each of us wants as an individual and the interests of the group we belong to.

4. The *inner directed-outer directed* scale ranges from individuals who are influenced to action by inner directed judgements, decisions, and commitments, or signals, demands and trends in the outside world to which we must adjust.

5. *Achieved status-ascribed status* examines the view that the status of employees depends on what they have achieved and how they have performed, or on some characteristic important to the corporation, e.g., age, seniority, gender, education, potential, strategic role.

6. *Equality-hierarchy* asks the question, is it more important that we treat employees as equals so as to elicit from them the best they have to give, or to emphasize the judgement and authority of the hierarchy that is coaching and evaluating them?

7. *Time as sequence-time as synchronization* is the preference for doing things fast, in the shortest possible sequence of passing time, or to synchronize efforts so that completion is co-ordinated.

The dimensions (1), (2), (3), (5), and (6) above deal with the way people interact with each other whereas the (4) and (7) deal with people's perspective on environment and time. Figure 4.7 illustrates where some major industrial countries would be located on Trompennars and Hampden-Turner's scale of cultural measures.

Universalism	**Particularism**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Germany	France, Japan
Analysis	**Integration**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Netherlands	France, Germany, Japan
Individualism	**Communitarianism**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Netherlands	Germany, France, Japan
Inner Direction	**Outer Direction**
Britain, USA, Germany	Sweden, Netherlands, France, Japan
Status by Achievement	**Status by Ascription**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Germany, Netherlands, Japan	France
Equality	**Hierarchy**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Germany, Netherlands	France, Japan
Time as Sequence	**Synchronized View of Time**
Britain, Sweden, USA, Germany, Netherlands	France, Japan

Figure 4.7 The position of some major industrial countries on Trompenaars cultural dimensions
Source: Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 1993, p. 301

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner indicate that the two horns (or the two opposites) of the dilemma are close and/or complementary to each other: universalism and particularism, in a sense, can be found in the same person. Likewise, all countries may ascribe and achieve in certain ways and all countries may combine both individualist and collectivist tendencies to some extent. They also suggest that value systems are circular and all the seven culture dilemmas can be visualized as points on virtuous circles. For example, in the 'ships that pass in

the night' diagram (see Figure 4.8), Britain, Holland, Sweden, and the USA steam from left to right while France, Germany, and Japan steam from right to left. Inscribed on the hull of each ship is the dominant cultural value. Repressed in the water beneath, each opposite ship is the subordinate cultural consequence. The actual result one achieves depends on where one begins. In some cases, it may be more desirable to have employees think preponderantly about customers, the welfare of the group, than mainly about their own personal gain. In other cases, the desired result would be obtained by encouraging individuals to think first of themselves.
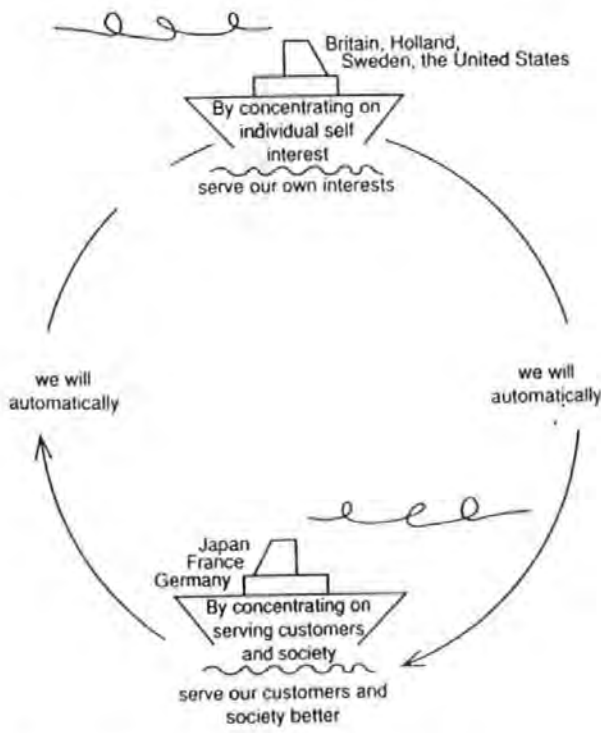
Figure 4.8 Ships that pass in the night
Source: Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 1993, p.15

It should be noted that although members of different cultures may reach the same point on the virtuous circle simultaneously, it does not mean that consensus or mutual understanding has been reached. If there is no real

understanding of how the different parties reached the same point, a lasting sense of cohesion, co-operation, and appreciation of cultures may not be achieved. This implies that shared meaning and cultural cohesion are important prerequisites for multi-cultural teams. Cross-cultural awareness training may be able to help international managers generate real understanding.

Another implication of the cultural dilemmas for global management is that, in a world where more and more products and services are created by cross-national teams, joint ventures, partnerships, and through foreign subsidiaries, it seems highly possible to combine the cultural strengths of various nations. For instance, an automobile migh be best get its steel from Korea, its engines from Germany, its electronics from Japan, its leather and mahogany from Britain, and its safety systems from Sweden. If managers world-wide can truly manage cultural diversity and reconcile contradictions or apparent opposites, then they may be able to make their own strategies and thought processes effectively by combining the traditions of excellence from many nations (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1993).

Trompennaars and Hampden-Turner have developed their dimensional theory further indicating preferred or idealized styles of organization for different national cultures.

1. The *family*: power-orientation and hierarchical in structure with the leader playing a father figure within the organization.

2. The *Eiffel Tower*: rule orientation and hierarchical in structure with a preference for well defined roles and relationships.

3. The *Guided Missile*: task orientation, egalitarian, and strongly individualistic with a measure of impersonality for good measure. The guided missile cultures are capable of adjusting course quickly, but not completely.

4. The *Incubator*: personal and egalitarian orientation with little or no formal structure and emphasis on self-expression and self-fulfilment. The incubator cultures tend to place the focus on creation and innovation.

These four types of corporate culture vary considerably; and differences can be observed in relationships between employees, attitudes to authority, ways of thinking and learning, attitudes to people, ways of changing, ways of motivating and rewarding, criticism and conflict resolution.

Trompenaars indicates that companies should avoid a blanket approach to culture, based on the dominant head office variety. Instead he suggests that a transnational approach should be adopted, in which the best elements from several cultures are brought together and applied differently in each country.

4.6. Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has highlighted the debates on the concept of culture and in particular, explored Hofstede's key value dimensions of national culture. In the work settings, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance tend to affect our thinking about ideal types of organization and have some influences on leadership style, decision making, and organizational design. Individualism-Collectivism and Masculinity-Femininity tend to affect our thinking about people in organizations rather than about organizations themselves, and these two value dimensions also have some effects on motivation, job design, management by objectives, and HRM policies and practices (e.g., recruitment and selection). Confucian Dynamism tends

to measure employees' devotion and/or commitment to the work ethic such as perseverance, harmony, industry, and thrift, etc..

Examination of Hofstede's findings for Taiwan indicates that the culture of Taiwan tends to exhibit high levels of Collectivism and moderately high ratings on the Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Femininity dimensions. However, since Hofstede's world-wide survey conducted in the 1970s, Taiwan, to varying degrees, has been affected by the process of industrialization, globalization and MNCs operating in Taiwan. Today, younger generations of Taiwanese people influenced by western media and education and western management theories, practices, and techniques may be more likely to be aware of and to have absorbed western ideas and values. Therefore, this research seeks to investigate (1) whether Hofstede's key cultural dimensions in Taiwan would still be the same as he found two decades ago, and (2) whether, at the level of organizations, Taiwanese employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary with ownership pattern and company size as well as with gender, age, educational level, and job position/status. These two aims will be addressed in detail in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3. Moreover, the value index scores derived on each of the four dimensions (see Chapter 7) can provide a framework for the identification of implications for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices in Taiwan, which will be discussed in Chapter 9.

In addition to Hofstede's work, other leading researchers like Tayeb, Triandis, Laurent, Hall, Adler, and Trompennaars and Hampden-Turner, etc. have also made the considerable contribution to the debate and understanding of the concept of culture and provided researchers with a framework that may facilitate both analysis and comparison of cross-national and/or cross-cultural studies. The

implication of these researchers' work is that, to manage effectively in a domestic

or a global multi-cultural environment, we may need to develop cultural sensitivity

to anticipate and accommodate behavioural differences in different societies, rather

than either trying to ignore them or simply permitting them to cause problems.

Chapter 5   Research Methodology

5.0.   Introduction

The previous three chapters have presented a review of the literature on the concept of human resource management, recruitment and selection policies and practices, and work-related values of national culture. This chapter is concerned with the research methodology. The major sections of this chapter are: theoretical issues and research hypotheses; research methods used for data collection; questionnaire design; validity and reliability tests; sampling technique; and choices of statistical techniques.

5.1.   Theoretical Issues and Research Hypotheses

Before the following issues and hypotheses are discussed, it may be advisable to outline the overall objectives of this research at the outset.

5.1.1. Overall Objectives of this Research

As is stated in Chapter 1, the overall objectives of this project are:

1a. to undertake a review of the literature on HRM and develop an appropriate framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan;

1b. to examine recruitment and selection policies and practices in Taiwan and develop appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques based on ownership pattern and company size;

2a. to examine work-related values of national culture and consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan; and

2b. to establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for

HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices.

While the first objective (1a and 1b) is concerned with HRM and recruitment and selection, the second objective (2a and 2b) is concerned with work-related values of national culture.

5.1.2. HRM, Cultural Relativism, and Transferability

As many organizations enter into a more competitive and dynamic world of international business and as the globalization of world markets continues rapidly, there is also much greater attention paid to HRM and its cultural relativism and transferability. As is mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.6, several of the theoretical or analytical models of HRM and strategic HRM (e.g., the Harvard model, Guest model, the European model of HRM, etc.) examined in this study are either American or European in origin and many of them tend to reflect the particular cultural characteristics of their country of origin. This raises questions about the applicability of these western-oriented models in a different cultural and contextual environment (in this case Taiwan). Moreover, in the academic and practitioner literature, the question concerning the convergence versus divergence arguments with respect to HRM practices is still subject to considerable debate and has been discussed vigorously by numerous cross-cultural and/or cross-national researchers. The five most recent comparative studies discussed in this section to varying extents are relevant to this research and therefore can provide support for examining the contextually and culturally relativist view of HRM, particularly in the area of recruitment and selection, and the work-related values of national culture in Taiwan.

In a comparative analysis of HRM practices in matched Chinese and UK companies, Easterby-Smith et al. (1995) sought to establish the relationship between culture and HRM by addressing the two major issues. The first was concerned with the possibility of transferring models and practices of HRM from one country to another and more specifically whether there were cultural limitations to the transfer of HRM practices from the USA to Western Europe. In this respect, most of the researchers in the USA tended to take a universalist view (Globerman, 1986) whereas the majority of European researchers tended to take a culturally relativist view (Hofstede, 1993; Guest, 1990; Thevenet, 1991; Brewster and Tyson, 1991). The second issue was concerned with the possibility of developing HRM policies, systems, and procedures which could span different national and cultural boundaries within multinational companies (MNCs). The underlying purpose of these two issues was to determine which elements of HRM were, or were not, culturally sensitive.

Having examined and compared the five areas of HRM, Easterby-Smith et al. found that manpower planning might not be culture-sensitive. They indicated that there were more similarities in manpower planning between Chinese companies and some of the UK companies than there were between all the UK companies. In this case, manpower planning appeared not to be greatly affected by national (and assumed cultural) differences. However, there was a significant difference between the UK and Chinese companies with regard to pay and reward systems, but much consistency within each country. This suggested that there might be deep-seated differences between the two countries with regard to attitudes towards rewards which would limit the transferability of HRM ideas in this area.

Easterby-Smith et al. (1995: 51-52) emphasized that observed national differences in practices were not necessarily attributable to cultural factors (which they defined in terms of "deeply held feelings and beliefs of the people involved"), they could also be explained by contextual factors (which they defined in terms of "structures, institutions, and regulations of the country"). They pointed out that managerial appointments was the practice that could be explained by both cultural and contextual factors. According to their analysis, the national differences were found in the selection criteria that were used to assess suitability of managerial candidates. In the UK, there was more emphasis on 'hard' performance criteria such as the demonstration of business results and the breadth of personal track records. In China, there was a greater emphasis upon 'soft' criteria such as moral behaviour, good relationships with others, and loyalty to the Party. The last criterion 'loyalty' might presumably be a contextual factor, the rest of the factors seemed to stem from more deeply seated beliefs about the way people should relate to each other as social beings and hence were most likely to be cultural attributes. Due to the greater cultural dependency in this case, HRM practices associated with managerial appointments would be less easy to transpose from one national setting to another.

On the basis of their research findings, Easterby-Smith et al. suggested that HRM practices would be influenced by both cultural and contextual factors, and that the areas of HRM which were most affected by cultural and contextual factors were the elements that were least likely to be transferable. For example, practices like managerial appointments, appraisal, reward systems, and the basic stance of unions towards management were more influenced by cultural factors. Other practices such as the relative contributions of specialists and line management in

assessing potential and the institutional structure of unions were more attributable to contextual (industrial and institutional) differences. Easterby-Smith et al. concluded that, despite some similarities in practices between the UK and Chinese companies, there were strong cultural factors which limit the adoption of many features of western HRM models in China. They argued that their research supported the culturally relativist rather than the universalist view of management and HRM and also provided support to the need to be aware that the dominant debates and assumptions in the West about HRM models being culturally bound.

It should be noted that this study is not comparative in this sense, it is more concerned with the establishment of attitudes towards some elements of HRM (e.g., the strategic role of HRM and recruitment and selection practices) and concerned with the examination of work-related values of national culture in Taiwan. However, the Easterby-Smith et al.' research can be used as justification for this study to develop an analytical framework with respect to HRM in Taiwan by taking account of both current Taiwanese contextual and cultural factors rather than simply adopt the western-oriented HRM models, policies and practices, and desired outcomes without critical evaluation of their suitability or transferability.

Another similar comparative study was conducted by Lawler et al. (1995), who sought to examine the differences in HRM practices (e.g., recruitment and selection, training, compensation, and evaluation) between Thailand and India (country) and between the subsidiaries of multinational corporations (MNCs) and locally owned companies (ownership) in each country. According to Lawler et al., MNCs had played a major role in promoting economic growth in Thailand and India, therefore it might be possible for MNCs to transfer their home-country HRM practices to their subsidiaries in these two countries. Also, it was anticipated

that some differences in HRM practices between MNCs and culturally distinct indigenous firms would be observed. Lawler et al. suggested that, in addition to ownership pattern, organizational size and industrial sector were other contingent variables which might also influence HRM practices.

In their study, Lawler et al. highlighted the debate on the convergence and divergence hypotheses. The convergence hypothesis (Kerr et al., 1960) suggested that technology, industrialization, economic growth, and globalization, etc. were the factors which might encourage employment (HRM) practices to become more similar across national boundaries. In contrast, Kochan and Dyer (1992) cited various studies which suggested that cultural differences across countries and regions would contribute to variations in employment (HRM) practices. This divergent view was supported by a group of researchers who argued that employment (HRM) practices would be expected to differ across countries, even within regions of the world, as between Japan and Korea (Steers, Shin, and Ungson, 1989) or Japan and China (Yeung and Wong, 1990). These arguments were related to the universalist versus culturally relativist debates with cultural variations and differences acting (along arguably with some elements of context) as mitigating the influences upon technological, competitive, and economic forces for convergence.

According to their empirical results, Lawler et al. (1995) indicated that recruitment and selection and training practices were the areas in which they observed important inter-country differences and were influenced by cultural forces. For example, they found that internal and external referrals and interviews were more commonly used in Thailand than in India, and that these methods were more likely to be used in family-owned enterprises in Thailand (Note: as most

family-owned enterprises in Thailand are owned by people of Chinese descent, it seems relevant to consider the role of Confucian values in shaping management practices in these organizations (Lawler et al., 1995: 326)). Their findings also showed that although HRM practices might differ between Thailand and India, it did not appear that multinational companies within each country used dramatically different policies than domestically owned companies. In this respect, their analysis provided support for the within-country convergence argument in relation to HRM practices.

On the whole, the relevance of Lawler et al.' study to this research is that they examined HRM practices in MNCs and domestically owned companies, and that there is some evidence in their study to support this research investigating ownership pattern and firm size as organizational variables and elements in HRM framework (e.g., recruitment and selection). Their study suggests that MNCs have some influences on a country's HRM practices and provides support for the view that some elements of HRM (in their case, recruitment and selection and training) are culturally sensitive. They also emphasize the need to be specific that any hypothesized relationships (HRM practices and culture) should be linked to the distinct aspects of the culture one investigated (in their case, Thailand and India). This argument thus can be used as justification for the study of work-related values of national culture in Taiwan.

Like the previous two studies, Paik and Teagarden (1995) also sought to compare and contrast international human resource management (IHRM) approaches in Japanese, Korean, and US multinational enterprises (MNEs) operating in Mexico. In their study, they also addressed the similar issues by highlighting the debate on the universalist (convergence) versus the culturally

relativist (divergence) view of management and HRM. They pointed out that previous research asserted that theories of management were culturally bound, and that management practices varied significantly across cultures (Adler et al., 1986; Brewster and Larsen, 1992; Brewster and Tyson, 1993; Hofstede, 1983, 1984; Laurent, 1983, 1986; Steers et al., 1989; Von Glinow and Teagarden, 1988). Some researchers also questioned the applicability of US-oriented HRM practices in the European context (Brewster and Larsen, 1992; Brewster and Tyson, 1991) and this raised similar questions regarding the applicability of US, Japanese, or Korean HRM practices in Mexico. Another group of researchers (Dunphy, 1987; Steward, 1991) asserted that there was cultural convergence, based in part on standardization of techniques such as world-class manufacturing, total quality management, statistical process control and the emerging perspective called 'base practices'. However, a synthesis of these views suggested that 'hard' technology and related aspects of MNE activity were converging, while 'soft' technologies including the IHRM systems remained culturally and contextually bound (Child, 1981; Schneider, 1988; Von Glinow and Teagarden, 1988). Using Hofstede's (1983, 1984) national cultural dimensions (Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism-Collectivism, and Masculinity-Femininity) as a framework, Paik and Teagarden sought to examine cultural and contextual differences that influence IHRM design among these countries under study. Three principal approaches to IHRM design were identified and used in their study: (1) a mechanistic, 'control' approach that is a transplant of the design used by the parent MNE; (2) a paternalistic, 'human relations' approach that can be a transplant by the parent MNE or an attempt at cultural adaptation; and (3) a developmental,

'human resource' approach that is a hybrid which integrates parent control practices with culturally appropriate HRM systems (Butler and Teagarden, 1993).

Their research results, overall, showed that US MNEs were more aware of cultural similarities and differences between their country and Mexico than were Japanese and Korean MNEs. With respect to the IHRM approaches, US MNEs tended to provide more professional training and career development to mid-level Mexican managers than their Asian competitors. US MNEs using the human resource design also provided operative workers with developmental education in addition to adequate training to update their skills. Reward systems in these US MNEs were carefully tailored to provide culturally appropriate rewards that varied from location to location. In contrast, Korean and Japanese MNEs retaining their work-based cultures in designing IHRM strategies were encountering the dysfunctional consequences of culture shock due to their lack of understanding about Mexican culture and due to language barriers. In particular, Japanese MNEs' strong organizational cultural characteristic often led to conflict with Mexican work norms and values. Their emphasis on group achievement, demand for loyalty to the company, as opposed to a supervisor, and a strong emphasis on work to the exclusion of workers' social needs appeared to be the primary problems in managing Mexican workers. Based upon these findings, Paik and Teagarden expected that Japanese MNEs would continue to prefer Southeast Asian countries over Mexico as offer-shore manufacturing sites, in part because it would be easier for them to transfer IHRM control design practices.

In the case of the paternalistic, 'human relations' approach, Paik and Teagarden found that there appeared to be more cultural congruence between the Koreans and Mexicans than between the Japanese and Mexicans. Korean

managers' outgoing, paternalistic management style seemed to be well accepted among Mexican workers. However, their strong emphasis on work also created high levels of stress for Mexican workers which often resulted in turnover.

On the whole, having examined the applicability of Japanese, Korean, and US HRM practices in Mexico, Paik and Teagarden suggested that the types of IHRM approach the MNEs adopted would need to take Mexico's distinct cultures and contexts into consideration. Their research findings provided support for the culturally relativist (divergence) view of IHRM. They argued that the most highly successful MNEs would be those that would respect diversity and accommodate diversity in ways that would create win/win situations. Moreover, their use of Hofstede's framework to compare national cultural differences in Mexico, US, Japan, and Korea could provide support for investigating the work-related values of national culture in Taiwan and establishing what (if any) are the implications for HRM and recruitment and selection polices and practices. However, unlike this research, Paik and Teagarden's study did not specifically seek to 'update' Hofstede's findings with respect to scores on his cultural dimension indices.

Budhwar and Sparrow (1997) conducted an empirical survey which aimed to analyze the levels of 'integration' of HRM into corporate strategy and 'devolvement' of responsibility for HRM to line managers in India. They pointed out that one of the central features of HRM which differs from personnel management was the importance given to the integration of HRM into business and corporate strategy and devolvement of HRM to line managers instead of personnel specialists (Brewster and Larsen, 1992; Schuler, 1992; Storey, 1992). They also indicated that, although the field of strategic HRM has given considerable emphasis on integration and devolvement, most studies have been

carried out in the West. A study of these two concepts would help to categorize strategic HRM practices in India and would also facilitate comparison with HRM practices of firms in different countries. In this respect, Budhwar and Sparrow's study is relevant to this research and can be justified the concern of this research investigating Taiwanese HR managers' desirability for strategic integration and the extent to which the responsibility for HRM activities being devolved to line management.

Budhwar and Sparrow in their study also indicated that contingent variables such as the size of the organization, level of technology adopted, age of organization, presence of a formal HRM department, type of ownership, life-cycle stage of organization, and the impact of environmental factors were suggested to have direct and predictable causative effects upon HRM polices (Cohen and Pfeffer, 1986; Easterby-Smith, et al., 1995; Shaw et al., 1993), and that a number of non-contingent factors such as national culture, the national business system, legislative and institutional factors, and the role and competence of HR actors were also postulated to have a more intangible effect on the HRM practices and polices of organizations (Brewster, 1995; Sparrow, 1995). In the light of this point, it might be reasonable for this research to examine whether firm size and ownership pattern as organizational variables would have any significant influences upon recruitment and selection policies and practices in organizations in Taiwan.

Another relevant cross-cultural comparative study on HRM was conducted by Wasti (1998), who sought to examine the applicability of Japanese and American HRM practices in the Turkish socio-cultural context. Like the previous cross-cultural researchers, Wasti also centred upon the universalist versus the culturally and contextually relativist debates by addressing the notions of

'traditionalism' and 'cultural imperialism'. Following the views of Triandis (1994), Kanungo and Jaeger (1990), and Jaeger (1990), Wasti in his study critically pointed out that management theories and practices such as HRM developed in the West, notably North America had not only been considered to be universally applicable, but had also been imported through multinational companies to developing countries with the conviction that what had worked for the development of the West would also work for the rest of the world. He further indicated that the developing countries, for their part, seemed to have accepted western development strategies without critical evaluation because of the common belief that the socio-cultural characteristics of developing societies, typically referred to as 'traditionalism', were harmful to economic development. As such, it seemed highly possible that the uncritical use of western management theories and techniques would contribute not only to organizational inefficiency and ineffectiveness in developing countries, but also to the resentment and other negative feelings associated with the perception of being subject to 'cultural imperialism' (which is defined as "...being forced to adopt and accept practices that run counter to deeply held values and assumptions of the local culture" (Wasti, 1998: 608) cited from Jaeger (1990)). In short, Wasti argued that if MNCs wished to increase their chances of success in foreign countries, they would need to build up an understanding of the particular socio-cultural systems of the regions in which they operated and identify specific management practices which would be both culturally and contextually suitable to transfer.

Moreover, Wasti also used Hofstede's cultural dimensions as a framework to examine the socio-cultural differences between developed (Japan and US) and developing (Turkey) countries and their possible influences upon HRM practices

of MNCs. Hosftede's study had received its share of criticism, nonetheless Wasti positively pointed out that Hofstede (1980, 1991) had provided a valuable framework that linked the culture variables to the organizational context, and that the key dimensions of national culture he distinguished had a major impact on employees' work-related values and attitudes. Similarly, McGrath et al. (1992) also asserted that Hofstede's work would continue to be the study that, on an empirical basis, successfully tied cultural orientation and observable institutional differences between countries in a 'parsimonious framework'. The arguments above could provide support for examining work-related values of national culture in Taiwan. Again, unlike this research, Wasti did not specifically seek to 'update' Hofstede's findings with respect to index scores on his cultural dimensions.

5.1.3. Theoretical Issues and Research Hypotheses

5.1.3.1. Human Resource Management and Recruitment and Selection

This research primarily seeks to examine three main elements of HRM: the strategic aspect of HRM, the devolvement of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management, and recruitment and selection polices and practices. As is described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3 and 2.4, what makes HRM different from conventional personnel management is that the former has a number of distinctive characteristics or philosophies underpinning the concept. For example, it has been suggested that HRM is a strategic approach because it tends to emphasize the importance of integrating HRM strategy and practice with corporate strategy (Guest, 1989), that the locus of responsibility for people-management is devolved to line managers and that the role of personnel or HR specialists is to support and facilitate line management in this task, not to control it

(Armstrong, 1992). These two central features of HRM have also been highlighted in an empirical survey conducted by Budhwar and Sparrow (1997), who used the concepts (levels) of 'integration' and 'devolvement' to analyze strategic HRM practices in Indian organizaions (see the study in previous section).

As is mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.6 and Chapter 3, Section 3.1, there appears to be some general agreement among a number of leading American and European researchers (e.g., Beer et al., 1984; Guest, 1989; Brewster and Bournois, 1991; Bratton, 1994) that whatever models and perspective of HRM are used, recruitment and selection policies and practices can be perceived as integral. Recruitment and selection not only seek to attract, obtain, and retain the human resources the organization needs to achieve the strategic goals, but may also have significant impact upon the composition of the workforce, the ultimate fit with the organization's needs and culture, and upon long-range employment stability (Beer et al., 1984).

In the two respective cross-cultural comparative studies, the research findings of Easterby-Smith et al. (1995) and Lawler et al. (1995) provided support for the culturally relativist (divergence) view of HRM. For example, among a range of HRM practices they investigated, recruitment and selection were found to be culturally sensitive and varied across national borders. Therefore, in this research, greater attention would also be paid to recruitment and selection policies and practices as a major area of HRM activity.

In the studies conducted by Lawler et al. (1995) and Budhwar and Sparrow (1997), company size and ownership pattern (along with other contingent and non-contingent variables) were suggested to have some influences upon HRM policies and practices. Thus, in this research, company size and ownership pattern are

treated as independent organizational variables and are examined to see if they have any significant effects upon the strategic role of HRM, recruitment and selection processes, and upon the variety of recruitment methods and selection techniques that employing organizations in Taiwan used.

According to the issues addressed above, nine hypotheses (H_1 to H_9) that related to HRM and recruitment and selection have been devised.

H_1 The perceived importance of having HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_2 The perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_3 There would be a decentralization of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management.

H_4 Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_5 Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with company size.

H_6 Recruitment methods would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_7 Recruitment methods would vary significantly with company size.

H_8 Selection techniques would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_9 Selection techniques would vary significantly with company size.

5.1.3.2. Work-Related Values of National Culture

It should be noted that it is not the aim of this study to replicate Hofstede's work by comparing the work-related values of the matched respondents from different national cultural contexts or different ethnic groups. Rather, this study seeks to examine Hofstede's value based dimensions of national culture, consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan, and establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices. As is indicated earlier, some recent studies suggest that some elements of HRM are culturally sensitive; and recruitment and selection appear to be one of those (Easterby Smith et al., 1995; Lawler et al., 1995).

As is mentioned in Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.6, Hofstede's most famous cross-cultural study of work-related values was conducted during the 1960s and 1970s and his original findings for Taiwan indicated that the culture of Taiwan tended to exhibit relatively high levels of Collectivism and moderately high ratings on the Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Femininity dimensions. However, over the last four decades, Taiwan has been constantly affected by the process of industrialization (e.g., from agricultural sector to industrial and service sectors) and may be to some degrees influenced by globalization and MNCs operating in Taiwan (see Chapter 1, Section 1.2). It has been suggested that, as countries are industrialized and modernized and as countries become wealthier, there may be a tendency towards convergence of management and individuals' work-related values and attitudes (Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Steward, 1991; Paik and Teagarden, 1995; Wasti, 1998). If this is the case, younger generations of Taiwanese people influenced by western media

and education are more likely to be aware of and to have absorbed western ideas and values. There is also evidence that western management techniques (including those regarding HRM, recruitment and selection) have been adopted by various sectors of industry in Taiwan and are taught at universities/colleges (see Chapter 1, Section 1.6). It might therefore be anticipated that, at the organizational setting, some of the work-related values held by Taiwanese employees might have changed during the process of modernization and might not now be the same as Hofstede found two decades ago. Based upon the issues above, this research attempts to update Hofstede's index scores for Taiwan on the key cultural dimensions. A main weakness of Paik and Teagarden (1995) and Wasti's (1998) studies (see the earlier section) is that they used Hofstede's framework to compare socio-cultural differences in different countries with respect to HRM practices, but they have not sought to update Hofstede's findings in respect of the countries they investigated and they have therefore tended to ignore the dynamic nature of culture.

Another reason for re-examining Hofstede's cultural dimensions in Taiwan is that his respondents only worked within a single computer industry and a single multinational (IBM), thus, it can be argued that the values of IBM employees (white collar people) may not be typical of the values of all the members in the Taiwanese society, and that the American-owned IBM corporation may not be taken as representative of the various sectors of industry in Taiwan (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6). Unlike Hofstede's study, this research focuses on the work-related values of non-managerial employees in manufacturing organizations; and IBM is also included in the survey (see section 5.5.1 for further details).

Another issue that needs to be addressed is that, based on Hofstede's original finding, Taiwan has relatively high scores on the Collectivism Index. In Collectivist cultures, there would be an emphasis on in-group versus out-group, co-operation, harmony, face-saving, obligations, and having a sense of shame, etc. (Hofstede, 1991: 50-67). It should be noted that, even in a Collectivist society, the size of the in-group may still vary considerably. It may include just the immediate family, or it may include the extended family and close friends, or the entire organization, etc. (Triandis, 1982, 1983). According to Yeh (1989), the tradition of the family coming first and other groups second is strongly rooted in the Chinese society (including China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore). This strong Chinese family orientation seems to reflect in the excessive devotion to one's own family. In the workplace, employees without strong personal ties to their senior managers or direct superiors do not usually show their loyalty or commitment to their working institutions (both private and public sectors) and they tend to be more concerned with their own individual or family well-being than organizational solidarity. In this respect, the Chinese seem to show some characteristics that are more associated with Individualist values, placing self-interest (or family interest) above the group and/or the organization.

Moreover, Taiwan has moderately high ratings on the Femininity Index; and in countries with a more Feminine culture, Hofstede (1991: 98-103) points out that there would be less differentiation between male and female roles, and that more women would be elected to political office and occupy more important senior government posts. There would be a positive correlation between a country's Femininity score and the participation of women in higher-level technical and professional jobs, as a percentage of all working women in a

country. However, in Taiwan, there appears to be less equality between men and women, there are fewer women in elected political positions than men; and the more senior government posts are usually predominated by men. Further, the lower status of women in the workplace, the limited numbers of women in technical and professional jobs (e.g., engineers or scientists), women's limited promotion opportunities into senior level posts, and women's lower work participation rates (see Chapter 1, Section 1.3) seem to indicate that these phenomenon in Taiwan are more consistent with the Masculine cultures like the USA and Japan as Hofstede described.

The issues above lend the support to the argument that Hofstede's analysis for his respective countries on the key cultural value dimensions is a generalization and thus is somewhat an oversimplification. People of a Collectivist society may still possibly posses some Individualist values; and some Feminine attributes may also be found among people in a dominant Masculine culture. As Chapman and Antoniou (1996) rightly point out, for every culture, one could find both high and low Uncertainty Avoidance domains depending upon the particular sub-domains of culture that are investigated.

Moreover, the simplification of Hofstede's study can be illustrated by the fact that Hofstede, unlike Tayeb, did not attempt to examine the relationship between specific culturally-influenced work-related values and attitudes and specific structural variables. Tayeb's (1979, 1988, 1990, 1994) examination of societal cultures, employees' attitudes and values, and the management structure of organizations in such Collectivist societies as Japan, India, and Iran shows that, except for Japan where the Collectivist characteristics of Japanese culture have actually been carried into organizations, the Indian and Iranian employees

(although still hold some Collectivist values such as loyalty to their own group with the interest of group being placed first) have been seen to be as emotionally separated from their workplace and to have as Individualistic a relationship with their firms as any Individualist country like the USA or UK.

As is indicated in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2, culture is an accumulative experience of various individuals who share common values, beliefs, and ideas. Nonetheless, sub-cultural distinctions or variations may still exist within the same national cultural, political, legal, and geographical context (in this case Taiwan). It has been argued that cultural variables such as a person's age, gender, social class, beliefs, education, wealth, and occupation, etc. would influence people's values and attitudes (Rokeach, 1979; Triandis, 1982, 1983; Tayeb, 1988, 1994). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) also comment that individuals in the same culture do not necessarily behave according to the cultural norms, and that individual personality, gender, and ethnicity mediate in each cultural system. Therefore, it could also be expected that not all people in an organization would think and behave exactly in the same way or hold the same values and attitudes due to differences in occupation, education level, gender, age, religions, life style, job position/status, organization size and structure, the sector of industry, and ownership pattern, etc. (Handy, 1993; Deresky, 1997). It seems that Hofstede prefers to hold sub-cultural and non-cultural variables constant.

Moreover, as is described in Chapter 4, Section 4.4, Hofstede (1991) indicates that certain values on the long-term orientation pole of the Confucian Dynamism (e.g., perseverance and thrift) tend to be strongly correlated with East Asian economic growth, at least for the period of 1965-1987. Clegg (1990) also suggests that East Asian economic achievement could be said to be attributable to

deep-seated and culturally given social facts and values (e.g., industry, harmony, loyalty, co-operation, trust, and perseverance, etc.). Since there is arguably a correlation between traditional Chinese work-related values and economic growth, it may be reasonable to assume that these values may be important in contributing to organizational success (in terms of survival in a dynamic and competitive business environment).

Based upon the issues stated above, eight hypotheses (H_{10} to H_{17}) concerned with work-related values of national culture have been developed.

H_{10} The value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would not be the same as Hofstede previously found.

H_{11} The traditional Chinese/Confucian work-related values, as perceived by HR managers and non-managerial employees, would be important in contributing to organizational success.

H_{12} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{13} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with company size.

H_{14} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with gender.

H_{15} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with age.

H_{16} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with educational level.

H_{17} HR managers and non-managerial employees would differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of work-related values.

5.2. Research Methods Used for Data Collection

The previous section outlined the overall objectives of this study and discussed respectively the issues and research hypotheses that related to HRM and recruitment and selection as well as work-related values of national culture. This section is directed towards the development of an appropriate research method for data collection in order to test the hypotheses above. Before an optimal method is determined, a number of research methods that can be used for data collection will be briefly discussed in the following sub-sections.

5.2.1. Qualitative Research

Generally, both qualitative and quantitative research approaches can be utilized by researchers to elicit information from respondents when conducting the survey. This section will begin with the qualitative research and the methods included in this approach.

According to Hakim (1987: 26-28), qualitative research is concerned with individuals' own accounts of their attitudes, motivations and behaviour. It offers descriptive reports of individuals' perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, views and feelings, the meanings and interpretations given to events and things, as well as their behaviour. It may be used for preliminary exploratory studies before mounting a larger scale or more complex study. The strength of qualitative research is the validity of the data obtained: individuals are interviewed in sufficient detail for the results to be taken as true, correct, complete and believable reports of their views and experiences. However, its main weakness is that small numbers of respondents cannot be taken as representative, even if great care is

taken to choose a fair cross-section of the type of people who are the subjects of the study (Hakim, 1987: 27).

Despite the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative research, there are a number of qualitative research methods that can be used by researchers for collecting data, which may include the following.

5.2.1.1. Personal Interviews

The personal interview is a face-to-face role situation in which an interviewer asks respondents questions designed to extract answers pertinent to the research hypotheses (Nachmias et al., 1992, 1996). The greatest value lies in the depth and detail of information that can be secured through a personal interview. The interviewer can not only improve the quality of the information received, but also can note down conditions of the interview, examine additional questions, and gather supplemental information through observation. Moreover, the interviewer can adjust to the language of the interview and that can control the effect the interview is having on the respondent (Lu, 1997).

Although the personal interview has a number of advantages as described above, this method still has some limitations. For example, the costs in time and money are particularly high if the study covers a wide geographic area or has restrictive sampling requirements (Cooper and Emory, 1995). Another limitation is that the interviewer may introduce measurement bias by varying the phrasing or tone of questions (Kervin, 1992).

5.2.1.2. Telephone Interviews

The telephone interview can be characterized as a semi-personal method of collecting information. This method tends to enable the researcher to correct misunderstandings, motivate the respondent, and probe for more detail when answers are vague. The telephone interview is more convenient and cost-effective and can get results in a short time as compared to the personal interview.

Nevertheless, the telephone interview still has some disadvantages. The interviewer does not have visual aids (e.g., a puzzled look, a shake of the head) so that a misunderstanding may occur. Some questions are difficult to ask on the phone because of their complexity. There may be less control over the measurement situation compared to personal interviews. Furthermore, telephone surveys may produce non representative samples (Kervin, 1992).

On the whole, Nachmias et al. (1992, 1996) suggest that: (1) if a researcher wishes to probe in-depth and complex questions and observe non verbal behaviour and if time and money are available, a form of a personal interview may be more preferable; and (2) if the interview can be simplified, and if funds and speed are concerns, the telephone survey can be used to collect the information.

5.2.1.3. Observation

According to Sapsford and Jupp (1996), observation as a research method has a number of advantages over interviews and questionnaires: (1) information about the physical environment and about human behaviour can be recorded directly by the researcher without having to rely on the retrospective or anticipatory accounts of others; (2) the observer may be able to see what participants can not.

Many important features of the environment and behaviour may be taken for granted by participants and may therefore be difficult for them to describe; (3) it can give data on the environment and behaviour of those who will not take part in interviews or complete questionnaires because they have not the time, or because they object, or because they fear the consequences; and (4) data from observation can be a useful check on, and supplement to, information obtained from other sources (e.g., interviews).

However, the main limitation of observation is that people may, consciously or unconsciously, change the way they behave because they are being observed, and thus observational accounts of their behaviour may be inaccurate representations of how they behave naturally. This is the problem of reactivity (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996).

5.2.1.4. Case Studies

Hakim (1987) points out that case studies can be used to provide a more richly detailed and precise account of the processes at work within particular types of case highlighted by surveys, whether typical or anomalous; they can be used to substantiate or refine causal processes thought to underlie observed patterns and correlations. Multiple case designs can be limited to two or three settings or extend to dozens of cases, either to achieve replication of the same study in different settings or to compare and contrast different cases. Case studies can also provide the basis for international comparative studies. For example, Littler's study of developments in Britain was complemented by briefer comparative studies of developments in Japan and the USA (Littler, 1982: 146-185) and subsequently

extended by a fuller set of comparative case studies of employers' labour policies in the United States, Britain, Germany, and Japan (Gospel and Littler, 1983).

However, the practical problem of case studies is that the analysis and presentation of case study data may require more skill than reports based on a single type of evidence. Two common errors are to present an indigestible mass of detailed evidence in the report, or to report only the researcher's conclusions, instead of presenting carefully selected robust and central items of data in combination with the various questions and issues addressed by the study (Hakim, 1987).

5.2.1.5. Document Study

According to Bailey (1994), the analysis of documents means any written materials that contain information about the phenomena people wish to study. These documents vary greatly, some are primary documents, or eye-witness accounts written by people who experienced the particular event or behaviour and others are secondary documents by people who were not present on the scene but who received the information necessary to compile the document by interviewing eyewitnesses or by reading primary documents. Many nonpersonal documents are written continuously by businesses or organizations to keep a running record of events deemed important but that, because of complexity or quantity, cannot be trusted to memory. Such documents tend to be more structured than personal documents. These include minutes of meetings, interoffice memos, financial records, and files containing various other materials relevant to maintenance of the organizations (e.g., employee records or membership lists).

However, document study also has a number of disadvantages. For example, as Bailey (1994) indicated, in spite of the coding difficulties, document study has limited control over verbal behaviour. The document analyst cannot possibly observe the nonverbal behaviour of his or her respondents, as they typically are not personally present and he or she has only their written accounts to work with.

5.2.2. Quantitative Research

The preceding section discussed the strengths and limitations of the qualitative approach and qualitative methods such as personal interviews, telephone interviews, observation, case studies, and document study. This section describes a particular quantitative approach - the postal questionnaire.

Patton (1990: 13-14) indicates that quantitative research methods require the use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which numbers are assigned (e.g., closed questions with a set of fixed choices). The advantage of a quantitative approach is that it is possible to elicit responses from a large number of subjects to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of the data. This gives a broad, generalizable set of findings presented concisely. Moreover, validity in quantitative research may depend on careful instrument construction to be sure that the instrument (e.g., the questions items in the questionnaire) measures what it is supposed to measure. The instrument then needs to be administered in an appropriate, standardized manner according to prescribed procedures. The focus is

on the measuring instrument - the test items, survey questions, or other measurement tools (Patton, 1990: 14).

5.2.2.1. Postal Questionnaires

The postal questionnaire is an impersonal survey method in which questionnaires are mailed to respondents, whose responses constitute the data on which research hypotheses are tested (Nachmias et al., 1992, 1996). Howard and Sharp (1981) indicate that postal questionnaires are a favoured way of seeking to acquire data from a large number of respondents. According to Cooper and Emory (1995: 287), postal questionnaires have the following advantages: (1) often lowest cost option; (2) expanded geographic coverage without increase in costs; (3) requires minimal staff; (4) perceived as more anonymous; (5) allows respondents time to think about questions; and (6) allows contact with otherwise inaccessible respondents.

The disadvantages of this methods are described as follows. The investigator may have no direct contact with his respondents who may interpret his questions very differently from his intentions (Howard and Sharp, 1981). Moreover, a questionnaire survey has the limitation of asking only simple and straightforward questions. A complex questionnaire may be too confusing for the general respondents. There is no opportunity to probe beyond the given answer, to clarify ambiguous answers, or to appraise the non verbal behaviour of respondents. Particularly, a low response rate may lead to a bias of questionnaire survey (Howard and Sharp, 1981).

Nachmias et al. (1992, 1996) suggest that if a rather lengthy questionnaire is to be used or one that includes sensitive questions, and particularly if the

population to be investigated is relatively dispersed geographically or is a selective population, the mail questionnaire can then be considered as an alternative to personal and telephone interviews.

5.2.3. Determining an Optimal Method for Data Collection

By comparing the overall objectives of this research with the strengths and weaknesses of each qualitative and quantitative research method as stated above, it was decided to choose the postal questionnaire approach for this research. The justification for the use of this method is explained in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the postal questionnaire was used in this research for data collection because the target populations (the sample companies) under investigation were widespread geographically due to random sampling; and time and funds available for this research were also limited.

Secondly, the qualitative research methods such as personal interviews (structured or unstructured), case studies, observation, and document study are useful research techniques which, ideally, could have been used in this research as a supplement to the postal survey to probe for more detail and complex questions regarding, for example, the current human resource management practices in business organizations in Taiwan. The reasons for not being able to employ these qualitative research methods are that: (1) time constraints: the conduct of case studies and observation usually require a longitudinal study and therefore can be very time consuming and costly as compared with postal surveys (Bailey, 1994; Sapsford and Jupp, 1996); (2) case studies tend to demand a wider range of skills: interviewing, the analysis and interpretation of information held in documents and records, the design and analysis of structured surveys, extended periods of

observation as well as the usual literature surveys and drafting skills for research reports. The fact that research staff are willing to 'have a go' at types of data collection or data analysis of which they have no experience is not sufficient; some additional training (whether formal or on-the-job) may be a necessary additional cost for the project to be carried out properly (Hakim, 1987; Bailey, 1994); (3) if using personal interviews or case studies alone for this research, small number of respondents can not be taken as representative of the total population (Hakim, 1987); and (4) the six HR managers the author randomly contacted were willing to answer the postal questionnaires but refused to participate in the personal interviews because of the bad experiences they had had with other researchers. They were also reluctant to provide their firms' written documents concerning corporate/business strategies and HRM or employment policies because they treated such documents as commercially confidential.

Finally, although the response rate to the postal questionnaire may be lower than the other methods (e.g., personal/telephone interviews), there are still some techniques which can be used to motivate respondents to participate, for example, a well designed questionnaire, a formal re-notification of telephone contact, or follow-up efforts, and so forth. In the subsequent sections, the questionnaire design and development will be discussed.

5.3. Questionnaire Design

Once the postal questionnaire is determined and chosen for data collection, the design of a questionnaire begins. When constructing a questionnaire, there are a number of important procedures (such as questionnaire content, forms of response, question wording, questionnaire length, and pilot study) that need to be

taken into consideration. The procedures involved in the questionnaire design will be presented from Sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.8.

5.3.1. Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were designed in this research. The first questionnaire concerning HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) is adapted from the *"Price Waterhouse Cranfield Survey"* questionnaire designed by Brewster et al. (1992) and the second questionnaire concerning work-related values of national culture is adapted from the *"Values Survey Module"* questionnaire designed by Hofstede (1980).

The reasons for adapting Brewster et al. and Hofstede's questionnaires are that: (1) they are the leading European authorities who specialize in the field of human resource management and national cultural differences respectively; (2) Brewster et al.'s questionnaire on HRM incorporates a range of HRM issues, for example, recruitment and selection policies and practices, which are relevant to this research, hence their questionnaire is very helpful in this respect; and (3) since another objective of this research is to examine Hofstede's key cultural dimensions in Taiwan and establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices, it may be advisable to make use of his questionnaire.

5.3.2. Questionnaire Concerning HRM and Recruitment and Selection

A copy of the questionnaire concerning HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) is contained in Appendix A. It should be noted that, in order to ensure the widest possible response from the respondents, both terms 'personnel

management' and 'human resource management' were used interchangeably in this questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of six parts, namely:

- Personnel/Human Resource Management

- Recruitment

- Selection

- Work-Related Values

- Organizational Details

- Respondents Details

The first part (Questions 1-11) was concerned with the human resource management aspects. Question 1 attempted to find out whether the sample companies have a Personnel/HR management department and/or manager. Question 2 was to determine who has the responsibility for personnel issues if the company does not have a Personnel/HR management department and/or manager. Question 3 was to investigate how important the Personnel/HR manager being a member of the senior management team participating in the development of corporate strategy (a five point Likert scale was used to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important"). Question 4 was designed to ascertain whether the sample companies have a corporate strategy and Personnel/HR management policy (Yes, written/unwritten or No). Question 5 was to highlight how important the Personnel/HR management policy being fully integrated with the corporate strategy (again, a five point Likert scale was used to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important"). Question 6 was to determine which department has the primary responsibility for such HRM functions/activities as recruitment and selection, training and

development, etc. ("1 = HR department", "2 = HR department in consultation with line management", "3 = line management", "4 = line management in consultation with HR department", "5 = other", and "6 = don't know". Questions 7-10 were composed to examine the importance level of HR planning (for both present and future staff requirement), job analysis, job description, and job specification (mean score on a five Likert scale, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important"); these latter issues and practices are relevant to recruitment and selection polices and practices.

The second part (Questions 11-18) of the questionnaire was concerned with the recruitment policies and practices. Question 11 was to identify how important the recruitment policies and practices are among the various personnel/HR management functions. Question 12 was to find out how important the realistic job preview technique is in the recruitment process. A five point Likert scale was used in Questions 11 and 12 to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important". Question 13 was designed to determine how often the sample companies target, e.g., older people, women, or friends/relatives etc. in the recruitment process. Questions 14-16 attempted to examine how frequently each of the recruitment methods (e.g., promotion from within, transfers, job rotations, and employee referrals, etc.) are used for filling vacancies at managerial, professional, and entry levels. A 1-5 scale was used in Questions 13-16 to indicate the frequency level, "1 = never" and "5 = always"). Question 17 was to highlight the importance of promotion criteria (e.g., past performance, technical competence, and leadership, etc.) in the recruitment process and Question 18 was to investigate how important each of the flexible working practices (e.g., flexible working hours, part-time work, and job sharing, etc.) are in facilitating recruitment. A 1-5 scale was

used in Questions 17-18 to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important".

The third part (Questions 19-24) of the questionnaire was concerned with the selection policies and practices. Question 19 was to identify how important the selection policies and practices are among the various personnel/HR management functions (a five point Likert scale was used to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important"). Questions 20-22 were constructed to examine how often each of the selection methods (e.g., application forms, aptitude tests, and one-to-one/panel interviews, etc.) are used for filling vacancies at managerial, professional, and entry levels (a 1-5 scale was used to indicate the frequency level, "1 = never" and "5 = always". Question 23 was to determine which department has the primary responsibility for the final hiring decisions ("1 = only by personnel/HR department", "2 = by personnel/HR department in consultation with line management", "3 = only by line management", "4 = by line management in consultation with personnel/HR department", "5 = other"). Question 24 was to investigate how important it is that the person in charge of HRM issues needs to report to more senior HR managers and seeks their approval before making the job offer to applicants (a 1-5 scale was used to indicate the importance level, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important").

The fourth part, Question 25 consisted of ten work-related values (e.g., co-operation, loyalty, industry, harmony, and trust, etc.); and the personnel/HR managers were asked to evaluate how important each of the values are in contributing to organizational success (each item was scored on a scale from "1 = very unimportant" to "5 = very important") (see Section 5.3.4).

The fifth part of the questionnaire contained a number of general questions about company information such as company size (in terms of number of employees hired by the organization in December, 1995) and types of ownership (Question 26-27). Such information could be used to test whether the strategic aspect of HRM and recruitment and selection processes, recruitment methods, and selection techniques would vary significantly with company size and ownership pattern.

The final part of the questionnaire consisted of general information about the respondents (Personnel/HR managers). The questions included are mainly to provide information by which the respondents can be classified, such as gender, age, and educational level (Questions 28-30). Such classifications may in turn help explain differences in work values, behaviours, and attitudes.

5.3.3. Questionnaire Concerning Work-Related Values of National Culture

A copy of the questionnaire concerning work-related values of national culture is contained in Appendix B. The questionnaire was divided into three parts, namely:

- National Culture

- Organizational Details

- Respondents Details

The first part (Questions 1-21) consisted of specific questions regarding the four key work-related dimensions of national culture: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivism versus Individualism, and Masculinity versus Femininity. The survey questions (Questions 1-21) used for composing the four value

dimensions were derived from '*Cultures and Organizations: software of the mind*' (Hofstede, 1991: 25, 51-52, 81-82, 111-112).

The three questions used for composing the Power Distance Index (Questions 1-3) were concerned: (1) 'employee afraid: how frequently are non-managerial employees afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?' (mean score on a five point Likert scale, "1 = never" and "5 = "always"); (2) subordinates' preference for their boss's decision-making style (autocratic, paternalist, consultative, or democratic); and (3) subordinates' perception of their boss's actual decision-making style (autocratic, paternalist, consultative, or democratic).

The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (Questions 4-6) was composed of three questions concerning: (1) 'job stress: how often do you feel nervous or tense at work?' (mean score on a five point scale, "1 = never" and "5 = always"); (2) 'rule orientation: a company's rules should not be broken even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest' (mean score on a five point scale, "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree"); (3) employees' intention to stay with the company for a long-term career (the answers ran from "1 = two years at the most" to "4 = until I retire").

The Individualism versus Collectivism dimension (Questions 7-12) was composed of six questions concerning: (1) personal time: have sufficient time left for your personal or family life; (2) freedom: have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job; (3) challenge: have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment; (4) training: have training opportunities (to improve your skills or learn new skills); (5) physical conditions:

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have good physical working conditions (e.g., good ventilation and lighting and adequate work space, etc.); and (6) use of skills: fully use your skills and abilities on the job.

The eight questions used for composing the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension (Questions 13-20) were concerned: (1) earnings: have opportunities for high earnings; (2) recognition: get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job; (3) advancement: have opportunities for advancement to higher level jobs; (4) challenge: have challenging work to do - work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment; (5) manager: have a good working relationship with your manager; (6) co-operation: work with people who co-operate well with one another; (7) living area: live in an area desirable to you and your family; and (8) employment security: have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to.

For the dimensions of Individualism versus Collectivism and Masculinity versus Femininity (Questions 7-20), Taiwanese employees were asked to assess how important each of the work goals (the items noted above) are when choosing an ideal job (mean score on a five point Likert scale, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important").

Question 21 consisted of two value items that are associated with the characteristics of Individualism and/or Masculinity (e.g., competitiveness and self-advancement/initiative) and eight value items that are relevant to the traditional Chinese culture (e.g., co-operation, loyalty, industry, trust, etc.). Respondents were asked to evaluate how important each of the work-related values are in

contributing to organizational success (each item was scored on a scale from "1 = very unimportant" to "5 = very important").

The second part and third part of the questionnaire contained a number of general information questions about the company and the respondents who participated in the survey. The questions included company size (in terms of number of employees hired by the organization in December, 1995) and types of ownership (Questions 22-23), gender, age, and education level (Questions 24-26). The final part of the questionnaire was designed to build up a profile of the characteristics of the respondents who took part in the survey and to test whether gender, age, and educational level have any significant effects upon the degree of importance of work-related values held by Taiwanese non-managerial employees.

5.3.4. Question that Overlapped in Both Questionnaires

The questionnaires concerning HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) and work-related values of national culture were designed with different respondents in mind. The questionnaire on HRMRS was constructed specifically for Personnel/HR manager to answer whereas the questionnaire on work-related values of national culture was designed particularly for non-managerial employee to answer. However, there was one question that overlapped in both questionnaires - "how important do you think each of the ten work-related values are in contributing to organizational success", which was Question 25 in the HRMRS questionnaire and Question 21 in the national culture questionnaire (see Appendices A and B).

Since Hofstede (1991) suggests that work-related values could be measured according to occupation, gender, educational level, and social class, etc., it might

also be advisable for this research to test whether Personnel/HR managers and non-managerial employees have different perceptions of the importance of work-related values (see Section 5.1.3 and H11).

Furthermore, it should be noted that there are certain questions that the business firms in Taiwan are reluctant to answer, or may be prevented from answering. For example, questions concerning their clients, their financial situations, annual sales turnover, or market share of their products, etc. tend to be perceived to be extremely sensitive and thereby are often treated as commercially confidential. In this research, sensitive topics such as those mentioned above had been deliberately excluded from both of the questionnaires.

5.3.5. Forms of Response

Having discussed respectively the content of the two questionnaires in the preceding sections, this section describes the particular forms of the response. According to Nachmias et al. (1992, 1996), questions in a questionnaire can be either open-ended (unstructured, free-response) or closed-ended (structured, fixed-response). Each form has advantages and disadvantages. However, the important issue is not which form is best. Rather, it is under what conditions a form is most appropriate. Neuman (1994) and Schuman and Presser (1979, 1981) emphasize that open-ended questions are especially valuable in early or exploratory stages of research. For large-scale surveys, researchers often use open-ended questions in pilot studies, then develop close-ended questions response from the answers given to the open-ended questions. However, many questionnaires contain a mixture of both. Researchers can use partially open questions (e.g., a set of fixed choices with

a final open choice of "other"), which allow respondents to offer an answer that the researcher did not include (Neuman, 1994).

In this research, the questionnaire of HRMRS was constructed by employing the forms of close-ended and partially open questions. For example, except Questions 2, 17, and 28 which contained a set of fixed choices with a final open choice of "other", the rest of the questions in the HRMRS questionnaire were close-ended. The questions in the national culture questionnaire were close-ended with a set of fixed choices except Question 23 (see Appendices A and B).

Moreover, the Likert scale, one of the common attitude scaling techniques, was used in the questionnaires to show (1) how frequently the recruitment methods and selection techniques are used by the sample companies and (2) how important the work-related values are perceived to be by respondents when choosing an ideal job. It could be classified into five different levels: 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neither unimportant nor important, 4 = important, 5 = very important. Other expressions such as 1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently, 5 = always are also used in both questionnaires (see Appendices A and B).

5.3.6. Question Wording

The forms of response used in both HRMRS and national culture questionnaires (close-ended and partially open questions and a five point Likert scale) were discussed in the preceding section. This section is concerned with the phrasing of each question.

It is an important task, because poor phrasing of a question can cause respondents to refuse to answer it or to answer incorrectly, either on purpose or

because of misunderstanding (Lu, 1997: 131). In order to avoid these errors, a number of useful options were suggested by Churchill (1991) as stated below: (1) use simple words; (2) avoid ambiguous words and questions; (3) avoid leading questions; (4) avoid implicit alternatives; (5) avoid implicit assumptions; (6) avoid generalizations and estimates; and (7) avoid double-barrelled questions.

In order to avoid these problems in both questionnaires, a pilot study was conducted by way of telephone contacts with a number of HR managers and non-managerial employees (which will be discussed in Section 5.3.8).

5.3.7. Length of the Questionnaire

After deciding the forms of response and specific wording for each question in both HRMRS and national culture questionnaires, the next procedure was discussed regarding the length of both questionnaires.

The length of a questionnaire is one of the factors that may affect the response rate. A common belief is that shorter questionnaires may be returned or completed more often than longer ones. However, there seems to be no conclusive empirical evidence to support this belief; and there appears to be no specific guidelines as to what constitutes a short or lengthy questionnaire (Black and Champion, 1976 and Moser and Kalton, 1985). Nevertheless, these academics (as noted above) still assume that most respondents may eventually get tired of answering questions or responding to statements in a questionnaire as its length increases.

However, both questionnaires used for this research could be considered to be the minimum length necessary to accomplish the overall objectives of this

research: the questionnaire on HRMRS contains nine pages and the questionnaire on work-related values of national culture contains five pages.

5.3.8. Pilot Study (Pre-testing the Questionnaires)

A pilot study, the final procedure in the questionnaire design, was conducted to check the possible measurement error in both questionnaires of HRMRS and national culture. Borg and Gall (1974: 22) define pilot study as "...a small scale model of a research project involving only few subjects, which is carried in order to improve the plan before the researcher makes the major investment in time and effort required to carry out the planned research". Parasuraman (1991: 396) also defines pilot study as: "...it involves administering the questionnaire to a limited number of potential respondents and other knowledgeable individuals in order to identify and correct design flaws".

Through a pilot study, insights and ideas can be provided for refining the questionnaires. According to Cooper and Emory (1995), the purposes of the pilot study are to: (1) determine respondent interest; (2) discover if the questions have meaning for the respondents; (3) check for respondent modification of a question's intent; (4) examine question continuity and flow; (5) experiment with question sequencing patterns; (6) collect early warning data on item variability; and (7) fix the length of the questionnaires.

In this research, the empirical study was conducted in Taiwan in July, 1996. Both questionnaires were written in English and in order to facilitate the understanding of Taiwanese respondents, the English versions were translated into the Chinese versions (see Appendices A1 and B1). The translation work was carried out by the author herself, with the help of Mr Hsu, who is a HR specialist

and is currently the General Secretary of the Frozen Sea-Food Industrial Associations of Taiwan and with the assistance of Mr Jiau, Mr Jin, and Mr Chiou, who are HR specialists and ISO (International Standardized Organization) evaluators at the Bureau of Commodity Quarantine and Inspection, the branch of Kaohsiung, Taiwan. These HR specialists were requested to check the linguistic and content validity of the English and Chinese versions of the questionnaires. They all agreed that the question items in both questionnaires were relevant to the overall objectives of this research (see Section 5.1) and commented that the questions items would elicit answers that could provide the necessary data for hypotheses testing. Therefore, the Chinese and English versions of questionnaires had content validity.

Furthermore, in order to ascertain the level of comprehension and wording of the questionnaires, the pilot questionnaires were sent to a small sample of 11 business organizations chosen at random. Each organization was sent two questionnaires - the questionnaire on HRMRS is addressed to Personnel/HR manager whereas the questionnaire on work-related values of national culture is addressed to non-managerial employee. Before sending out the pilot questionnaires, the respondents were contacted by telephone and asked if they would participate in the pilot study. There were also asked to answer each question and make suggestions concerning the content and wording of the questionnaires. Upon inspection of these returned pilot questionnaires, no particular confusion on format and question type was found. Hence, these 11 returned HRMRS questionnaires and 11 returned national culture questionnaires (from the 11 companies chosen in the pilot study) could be considered as usable and potentially eligible for data analysis.

5.4. Validity and Reliability Tests

The previous section discussed the questionnaire design and the procedures involved in the construction of the questionnaire. This section describes the types of validity and reliability test that used in the pilot study for the questionnaires.

5.4.1. Validity Tests

Validity is an important measure of a survey instrument's accuracy. Cooper and Emory (1995) suggest that validity is the extent to which differences found with a measuring tool reflect true differences among respondents being tested. Generally, validity can be divided into three types, which are described as follows.

Content validity is usually assessed by individuals with expertise in some aspect of the subject under study. The assessment of content validity typically involves an organized review of the survey's contents to ensure that it includes everything it should and does not include anything it should not. It provides a good foundation on which to build a methodologically rigorous assessment of a survey instrument's validity (Lu, 1997).

Criterion validity, also called concurrent validity or predictive validity, involves multiple measurements of the same concept. The term concurrent validity has been used to describe a measure that is valid for measuring a particular phenomenon at the present time, while predictive validity refers to the measure's ability to predict future events (Bailey, 1994).

Construct validity is assessed by whether the measure confirms or denies the hypotheses predicted from the theory based on the constructs (Churchill, 1991). It primarily checks relationships involving the theoretical ideas underlying the

measure (Kervin, 1992). Construct validity is often thought to comprise two other forms of validity: convergent and divergent (discriminant). The former is defined as the confirmation of a relationship by independent measurement procedures while the latter requires that a measure does not correlate too highly with measures from which it is supposed to differ (Kervin, 1992; Churchill, 1991).

In this research, a content validity test of the HRMRS and national culture questionnaires was conducted through a theoretical review and a pilot test. The content of both questionnaires is based on the existing literature and adapted from Brewster et al. and Hofstede's questionnaires (see Section 5.3.1). Both questionnaires were discussed with a number of British experts. Moreover, the question items in both questionnaires were also seen by a number of Taiwanese HR specialists as the relevant criteria that would extract answers to provide the necessary data for hypotheses testing. Thus, the two questionnaires could be accepted as possessing content validity (see Section 5.3.8).

5.4.2. Reliability Tests

Reliability is the extent to which a measuring instrument provides consistent results. Reliability data reveal the degree of confidence that can be placed in a measuring instrument. To ensure its usefulness, the measuring instrument needs to be verified. Reliability is commonly assessed in three forms as outlined below.

The test-retest method is a method of determining reliability by giving the test twice to the same group of respondents and correlating the two sets of scores. A perfect positive correlation is +1.00. The higher the reliability coefficient, the more consistent the results, and therefore the more reliable the test. The test-retest

reliability can be calculated not only for single items but also for groups of items. When measuring the test-retest reliability, care needs to be taken not to select items or scales that measure variables likely to change over short periods of time (Litwin, 1995).

The split-half method estimates reliability by treating each of two or more parts of a measuring instrument as a separate scale. Suppose that the measuring instrument is a questionnaire. The questionnaire is separated into two sets, using the odd-numbered questions for one set and the even-numbered questions for the other. Each of the two sets of questions is treated separately and scored accordingly. The two sets are then correlated, and this is taken as an estimate of reliability (Nachmias et al., 1992). To correct the correlation coefficient obtained between the two halves, the Spearman-Brown formula (Bartz, 1988) can be applied.

The internal consistency reliability is a common form in assessing survey instruments and scales. It can be applied not only to single items but to groups of items that are thought to measure different aspects of the same concept. Internal consistency is an indicator of how well the different items measure the same issue. It is measured by calculating a statistic known as Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Coefficient alpha measures internal consistency reliability among a group of items combined to form a single scale. It reflects the homogeneity of the scale and how well the different items complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variable of quality (Churchill, 1991; Kervin, 1992; Cooper and Emory, 1995; Litwin, 1995).

In this research, the internal consistency reliability was used to test the questionnaires. As stated in previous paragraph, reliability can be expressed on

basis of the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability of both questionnaires was tested from the data collected in the pilot study - 11 returned HRMRS questionnaires and 11 returned national culture questionnaires (see Section 5.3.8). In HRMRS questionnaire, the responses for Questions 14 to 16 and Questions 20 to 22 were used. The reason for selecting these question items as a representative of this questionnaire for a reliability test is that these items are based on the same scaling technique - a five point Likert scale to indicate how frequently the recruitment methods and selection techniques are used by the sample companies. Likewise, the responses for Questions 7 to 21 were used to test the reliability of the national culture questionnaire (Note: these question items are based upon the same scaling technique - a five point scale to indicate the degree of importance of work-related values). The results of reliability analysis show that the Cronbach's alpha for the 11 returned HRMRS questionnaires is 0.83 and for the 11 returned national culture questionnaires is 0.92. According to Sekaran (1992), a value of 0.60 or more is generally taken as representing acceptable reliability.

5.5. Sampling Technique

The preceding section introduced the types of validity and reliability test that used in the pilot study for the questionnaires. This section presents the sampling technique and discusses the questionnaires distribution and follow-up procedures.

5.5.1. Sample Size and Random Sampling

The samples for this research primarily focus on manufacturing industry in Taiwan due to its remarkable contributions to the economic growth over the last

decades (see Chapter 1). However, there was no formal governmental publication concerning the total number of manufacturing companies located in the Taiwan area; and the *Trade Yellow Pages*, published by the Taiwan Trade Pages Corporation, may serve as a useful source because this directory provides various up-to-date information from the total number of manufacturing companies in Taiwan (including the local Taiwanese firms and foreign-owned companies), company location, types of business, names of chief executives, telephone and fax numbers, to the range and types of products, etc.. Form this directory, 500 manufacturing companies (the sample size in this research) were randomly selected for the postal surveys and could be considered as representative of the manufacturing industry in Taiwan.

These 500 manufacturing companies, engaged in such activities as electronic and electrical appliances, steel, plastics, chemicals, hardware, computers, and pharmaceutical, etc., were characterized according to size and ownership pattern. Based upon number of employees hired, company size was categorized into three main groups: small, medium-sized, and large businesses. Ownership pattern was also classified into three groups: Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned, or family-owned, non family-owned, and foreign-owned companies (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.1.1 for further details).

5.5.2. Questionnaires Distribution and Follow-Ups

Once the sample companies were selected and determined, the questionnaires were distributed. In this research, the 500 manufacturing companies were sent two questionnaires each. The questionnaires were sent together within the same envelope and addressed to Personnel/HR department of each firm. The

HR manager/specialist who received the questionnaires was asked to pass on the national culture questionnaire to any non-managerial employee of his or her firm to be completed. The HR manager/specialist was also requested to return the completed questionnaires in the stamped addressed return envelope that the researcher provided.

In this research, the initial mailing was completed before 20th of July, 1996. One month after the questionnaires were posted, a follow-up letter was sent (on 20th of August) to all of the sample companies which did not respond to the first mailing in order to increase the response rate of this research. The follow-up letter was similar to that of the covering letter with the addition of a short paragraph emphasizing the importance of their participation in ensuring the success of the research project. In order to facilitate the author to identify which companies did not respond to the mailing, a serial number was allocated on the questionnaires and on stamped addressed return envelopes as a means of monitoring and keeping track in a small record book. This approach can be rendered to the second group for reliability analysis, based upon the presumption that the late respondents might be similar to non-respondents. No further attempts were made to obtain the completed questionnaires after the follow-ups. The cut-off date to receive responses was 10th, September, 1996. The response rate to the questionnaire surveys for the two studies, HRM and recruitment and selection and work-related values of national culture, will be discussed respectively in Chapter 6, Section 6.1 and Chapter 7, Section 7.1.

5.6   Statistical Techniques

After the sample companies were determined and the questionnaires distribution and follow-ups procedures were conducted, the next step concerned the choice of statistical techniques for data analysis. When executing computerized data analysis, the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS/PC + 6.0), one of the most widely available and useful soft-ware packages, was used in this research. The statistical techniques described below were used in this research with the aid of the SPSS programme. Section 5.6.1 begins with the statistical techniques that used for analyzing the data in the HRMRS questionnaire.

5.6.1. Statistical Techniques Used for Analyzing the Data in the HRM and Recruitment and Selection (HRMRS) Questionnaire

5.6.1.1. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The analysis of variance is a statistical technique employed to analyze multigroup experiments. By using the F test, it allows us to make one overall comparison that tells whether there is a significant difference between the means of the groups. According to Sapsford and Jupp (1996: 252), the assumptions underlying the analysis of variance are: (1) all observations should be independent of each other; that is, no individual should appear twice in the data set; (2) the populations of scores from which the samples are drawn should be normally distributed (Note: Ortuzar and Willumsen (1994: 58) indicate that any sample n which is greater than or equal to 30 could be considered as normal distribution; and this also would apply in this case); and (3) the groups should have the same

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within-groups variance (because the estimate of the population within-groups variance will be biased if the variances differ widely).

5.6.1.2. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

One-way ANOVA is analysis of variance where the groups are defined on only one independent variable (Howell, 1989). In this research, one-way ANOVA was employed to test whether there was any significant effect for ownership pattern (one factor variable) with respect to each of the selection techniques (27 dependent variables). Within one-way ANOVA, the null hypothesis, for example, is that the selection techniques would not vary significantly with ownership pattern; the alternative hypothesis is that they would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

5.6.1.3. Multiple Comparison Procedures

Analysis of variance or a significant F value tells only that the population means are probably not all equal. It does not tell which pairs of groups appear to have different means. The null hypothesis that all population means are equal is rejected if any two means are unequal. Special tests to determine which means are significantly different from each other are called the multiple comparison procedures. Among the multiple comparison tests (e.g., the least-significant difference (LSD), Bonferroni, Duncan, Student-Newman-Keula, and Sheffé tests, etc.), the Duncan test, widely used by researchers in social sciences, was employed in this research to find out where any differences of the mean groups lay. This test ranks the group means from smallest to largest and uses the distance or number of steps that two means are apart in this ranking in computing the range value for

each comparison. Duncan test is based on the assumption that the larger the number of group means being compared, the more likely that significantly different comparisons will occur. In this test, the probability of finding a significant difference, given that the two groups are in fact equal, is sometimes less than and never grater than, the specified significance level (e.g., 0.05).

5.6.1.4. Two-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Two-way ANVOA is analysis of variance where the groups are defined on at least two independent variables. In this research, two-way ANOVA was used to test whether there was any significant interaction between ownership pattern and company size with regard to the perceived importance of integrating HRM policy and corporate strategy. The null hypothesis for a two-way ANVOA would be, for example, that the integration of HRM policy and corporate strategy would not vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size. Conversely, the alternative hypothesis would be that the integration of HRM policy and corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

5.6.2. Statistical Techniques Used for Analyzing the Data in the National Culture Questionnaire

One-way ANOVA and the t-test were used to analyze the data of the national culture questionnaire. One-way ANOVA was performed to test whether the perceived importance of work-related values would vary significantly with non-managerial employees' educational level (one factor variable). If the results

indicated that there were significant differences in some of the work values between individuals on educational level, the null hypothesis should be rejected.

The t-test, also termed two-tailed test, assesses the statistical significance of the difference between two independent sample means for a single dependent variable (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995: 260). In this research, the t-test was used to determine whether HR managers and non-managerial employees would differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of work-related value e.g., loyalty. The significance level α could be set at 5 per cent, i.e., $\alpha = 0.05$. If the results showed that HR managers and non-managerial employees differed significantly in their perceptions of loyalty, the null hypothesis should be rejected.

5.7. Summary

This chapter has discussed the research methodology. The issues identified were derived from the literature review and the recent comparative studies, which provided a framework for the creation of research hypotheses. The postal questionnaire was chosen for data collection due to the samples' dispersion geographically and limitations of time and financial resources. The samples in this research primarily focused on manufacturing industry in Taiwan. The 500 manufacturing companies randomly selected for this research were sent two questionnaires each - the questionnaire concerning HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS) is to be completed by HR manager/specialist whereas the questionnaire concerning work-related values of national culture is to be completed by non-managerial employee.

The follow-up procedures were also conducted to increase the response rate of this research. The appropriate statistical techniques such as one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), two-way ANOVA, Duncan test, and the t-test were employed to test the research hypotheses. The response rate to the questionnaire surveys and empirical results for the HRMRS and national culture studies will be analyzed and presented respectively in Chapters 6 and 7.

Chapter 6   Empirical Results and Analysis (1)

6.0.   Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the research methodology such as issues and research hypotheses, methods used for data collection, questionnaire design, validity and reliability tests, and sampling techniques, etc.. This chapter seeks to: (1) present the general findings resulting from the initial analysis of the HRMRS questionnaires(HRM and recruitment and selection) and (2) report the empirical results that related to the research hypotheses stated in Chapter 5, Section 5.2. The main sections covered in this chapter are: (1) response rate and reliability analysis of questionnaire survey; (2) characteristics of sample; (3) empirical results and analysis of some aspects of HRM as well as recruitment and selection policies and practices; and (4) discussion of the major findings. Based upon the findings, some appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques in Taiwan are proposed.

6.1.   Response Rate and Reliability Analysis

Before the reliability test of the returned HRMRS questionnaires is presented, this section will begin with the response rate of questionnaire survey.

6.1.1. Response Rate

Based on the 500 sample companies selected for the survey (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5.2), HRMRS questionnaires were sent to 500 HR managers/specialists. The initial mailing was completed on 20th, July, 1996 and received 156 responses. A follow-up letter was sent on 20th, August, 1996, one month after the initial

mailing. An additional 24 responses were returned. Therefore, the total response number was 180 and the overall response rate for the HRMRS study is 36 per cent (see Table 6.1).

It should be noted that there seems to be no general agreement in research methodology literature as to what constitutes a proper or satisfactory response rate. As Nachmias et al. (1992) emphasizes, the question of what constitutes an acceptable response rate can not easily be answered because there is no agreed standard for a minimum response rate. However, Black and Champion (1976: 398) indicate that, usually, "...response rates to mailed questionnaires are in the 30 to 40 per cent range....". Moser and Kalton (1985: 268) also comment that "a poor response rate must constitute a dangerous failing, and if it does not rise above, say, 20 or 30 per cent the failing is so critical as to make the survey results of little, if any, value". Since the response rate for the HRMRS study appears to meet the criteria made by Black and Champion and Moser and Kalton, it could be considered as reasonable.

Table 6.1 Response Rate

Respondents	Number distributed on 20/07	Number returned before the follow-ups (from 20/07 to 20/08)	Number returned after the follow-ups (from 20/08 to 10/09)	Response rate
Personnel/HR managers	500*	156**	24**	36%

Note: *represents the sample size in this research
**represents that all returned responses were usable.

6.1.2. Reliability Analysis

Even though the response rate for the HRMRS study was 36 per cent and could be considered as reasonable, the question of non-response bias may still

remain. An approach for testing the non-response bias as suggested by Armstrong and Overton (1977) was performed; the late respondents could be assumed to be similar to non-respondents. An internal consistency reliability was used to test the first 156 returned responses; and a value of 0.83 (Cronbach's alpha) was obtained. The same method was used again to test the additional 24 returned responses; and a value of 0.82 (Cronbach's alpha) was obtained. The reliability coefficient of the total 180 responses was 0.83 (Note: in the HRMRS questionnaire, the responses for Questions 14 to 16 and Questions 20 to 22 were used for a reliability test; and a five point Likert scale where "1 = never" and "5 = always" was used for these question items. See Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2). According to the results of the reliability test, it can be said that the HRMRS questionnaire itself has proved its internal consistency and that the survey responses can be considered as representative of the total and hence generalized to the target population. The main purpose of doing the reliability analysis for the responses, before and after the follow-ups, is to reduce the risks of potential bias to the minimum possible.

6.2. Characteristics of Sample

The previous section reported the response rate and the reliability analysis of the HRMRS questionnaire. This section presents demographic characteristics of responses. It was categorized into two parts: general characteristics of responding firms and personal information of respondents. The general characteristics of responding firms consist of company size (in terms of number of people employed) and ownership pattern, while personal information of respondents is composed of gender, age, and educational level.

6.2.1. General Characteristics of Responding Firms

6.2.1.1. Company Size

According to the *White Book of Medium and Small Enterprises* published by the Medium and Small Business Administration, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan (1992), companies that operate in manufacturing and mining sectors with employees under 300, or in construction sector with employees under 100, or in commerce, transport, and business services fields with employees under 50 can be classified as small and medium-sized enterprises. Since the sample companies in this research are focused upon manufacturing industry (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5) and based upon the information noted above, company size can then be categorized into three main groups:

Table 6.2 Company Size (in Terms of Number of Employees Hired by the Companies) in Taiwan

	Number of employees	Number of companies N=180	Percentages
Small businesses	100 or less	71	39.4%
Medium-sized businesses	101-300	46	25.6%
Large businesses	301 or over	63	35%

1. small businesses: the group of companies that employ people under 100 can be classified as small firms. There are seventy-one such firms (39.4%), as is illustrated in Table 6.2;

2. medium-sized businesses: the group of firms that hire 101 to 300 employees on average. There are forty-six such firms (25.6%);

3. large businesses: the group of companies that employ people over 301 can be considered as large firms. There are sixty-three such firms (35%).

In this study, more than half of the responding companies were small and medium sized, accounting for 65 per cent of the responding companies (see Table 6.2). This result appears to be consistent with the statistical data provided by the Medium and Small Business Administration, Taiwan, 1995, which illustrates that, in the end of 1994, approximately 90 per cent of companies in Taiwan were small and medium scale. Hence, one can say that there is a preponderance of small and medium-sized companies in Taiwan (Note: the data published by the Medium and Small Business Administration, Taiwan is to support the research result that there is a large proportion of small and medium-sized firms in Taiwan relative to large companies. Moreover, this research is based upon random sampling survey (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5), therefore, it is unlikely to pre-control or manipulate the size of the sample companies).

Table 6.3(a) Ownership Pattern

Ownership pattern	Taiwanese-owned	Japanese-owned	Western-owned	Row total
Family-owned businesses	91 (50.6%)	0	0	91 (50.6%)
Non family-owned businesses	49 (27.2%)	0	0	49 (27.2%)
Foreign-owned businesses	0	18 (10%)	22 (12.2%)	40 (22.2%)
Column total	140 (77.8%)	18 (10%)	22 (12.2%)	180 (100%)

6.2.1.2. Ownership Pattern

Table 6.3(a) exhibits the pattern of ownership. Of the 180 responding companies that returned the questionnaires, 140 (77.8%) were Taiwanese-owned, 18 (10%) were Japanese-owned, and 22 (12.2%) were western-owned companies. Of these 140 Taiwanese-owned companies, 91 (65%) were family-owned and 49 (35%) were non family-owned businesses. This indicates that the family firm still appears to be a common organization form in Taiwan.

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Table 6.3(b) Ownership Pattern by Company Size

Company size	Taiwanese family-owned businesses	Taiwanese non family-owned	Foreign-owned businesses	Row total
Small businesses	38 (21.1%)	19 (10.6%)	14 (7.8%)	71 (39.4%)
Medium businesses	23 (12.8%)	18 (10%)	5 (2.8%)	46 (25.6%)
Large businesses	30 (16.7%)	12 (6.7%)	21 (11.7%)	63 (35%)
Column total	91 (50.6%)	49 (27.2%)	40 (22.2%)	180 (100%)

Moreover, Hamilton and Biggart (1988) point out that family firms predominate in Taiwan and they are usually small to medium in size. Similarly, Pon (1989) also indicates that, the majority of the small and medium-sized enterprises in Taiwan belong to family-owned businesses, accounting for 70 per cent of the small and medium-sized firms. This would also appear to be the case among the sample companies in this study. As is illustrated in Table 6.3(b), of the 91 Taiwanese family-owned companies, 61 (67%) were small and medium scale. Thus, based upon the findings above, it could be argued that family-owned businesses are one of the major organization forms in Taiwan and most of them are small to medium in size (Note: there is no official data published by the Taiwanese government exhibiting the total numbers of family-owned companies in Taiwan and how many of them are small and medium-sized enterprises).

Empirical results and analysis will be carried out in Section 6.3 to test whether HRM and in particular recruitment and selection policies and practices would vary with company size and ownership pattern.

6.2.2. Personal Information of Respondents

A profile of respondents - HR managers/specialists is summarized in Table 6.4. Of the 180 HR managers/specialists, 121 (67.2%) were male while 59

(32.8%) were female. The preponderance of male HR managers/specialists may be consistent with high scores on the Masculinity Index (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1 for findings on the dimensions of national culture) and may well be an influence upon recruitment and selection policies and practices. It has also been pointed out in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4 that the influence of Masculinity values on an organization's recruitment and selection practices is that there may be preferences for recruiting men or women over certain professions or job positions (e.g., in this case Personnel/HR manager).

Table 6.4 Personal Information of Respondents

Demographic breakdown	HR managers/specialists N = 180	100%
Sex		
Male	121	67.2%
Female	59	32.8%
Age		
20-29	20	11.1%
30-39	73	40.6%
40-49	62	34.4%
50-59	25	13.9%
Education		
Junior high or high school	43	23.9%
Junior college	49	27.2%
First or masters degree	88	48.9%

Table 6.4 shows that 75 per cent of the Personnel/HR managers were aged from 30 to 49. This may be due to the fact that people who are responsible for HRM issues tend to be older and have greater working experience in this field. Reflecting the emphasis on education in Taiwan (see Chapters 1 and 4), 76.1 per cent of Personnel/HR managers at least held a diploma (junior college), or first/masters degree and this may be indicative of a coincidence between educational attainment and job position in the company.

6.3. Empirical Results and Analysis

The preceding section sought to provide the general profiles for HR managers/specialists who participated in the surveys. This section seeks to: (1) report the findings that derived from the analysis of the survey data and (2) present the empirical results through a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), one-way analysis of variance, and a Duncan test, according to the research hypotheses that related to HRM and recruitment and selection (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2).

6.3.1. Personnel/HR Management Department/Manager

In some countries, many organizations do not have a formalized and well-established Personnel/HR management department to deal with personnel functions. In some cases, the Personnel/HR management department is only a sub-unit of other major departments of an organization e.g., marketing, production, or finance. In this research, survey participants were asked to answer the "Yes" or "No" question in order to identify whether the business organizations in Taiwan have an independent Personnel/HR management department and/or manager dealing with personnel issues. Table 6.5(a) illustrates that, of the 180 responding firms in Taiwan, 131 have Personnel/HR management departments and/or managers, accounting for 72.8 per cent of the responding companies. Only 49 (27.2%) responding firms indicated that they do not have Personnel/HR management departments and/or managers.

Table 6.5(a) Personnel/HR Management Department/Manager

	Yes (1)	No (2)
Personnel/HR management departments/ managers N=180 100%	131 72.8%	49 27.2%

N = 49	Managing director (1)	Assistant manager (2)	Finance director (3)	Production director (4)	Company secretary (5)	Other (6)
Personnel issues	0 0%	9 18.4%	16 32.7%	3 6.1%	7 14.3%	14 28.6%

Table 6.5(b) Persons that have Responsibility for Personnel Issues

The 49 companies, which do not have a Personnel/HR management department and/or manager, reported that the personnel issues are usually assumed by an assistant manager (9 companies, 18.4%), finance director (16 companies, 32.7%), production director (3 companies, 6.1%), or by a company secretary (7 companies, 14.3%). An additional 14 (28.6%) companies claimed that marketing director is responsible for personnel issues (see Table 6.5(b)).

6.3.2. Corporate Strategy and HRM Policy

In addition, participants were also asked to indicate whether they have a written/unwritten corporate strategy and a written/unwritten Personnel/HR management policy. Of the 180 responding companies, 53 (29.4%) have a written corporate strategy while 74 (41.1%) have an unwritten corporate strategy (see Table 6.6). As for the HRM policy, 59 (32.8%) responding firms have a written HRM policy, with 60 (33.3%) claiming to have an unwritten HRM policy (see Table 6.6). Based on the analysis above, it could be argued that the corporate strategy and HRM policy in these responding firms are not as formalized and explicit (in terms of a written form) as in some of the Scandinavian countries such as Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Take Norway as an example, 71 per cent of organizations have a written HRM policy and only 16 per cent have an unwritten HRM policy (Brewster, 1994).

Table 6.6 Corporate Strategy and HRM Policy

	Yes, written (1)	Yes, unwritten (2)	No (3)	Don't know (4)
Corporate strategy N=180 100%	53 29.4%	74 41.1%	33 18.3%	20 11.1%
HRM policy N=180 100%	59 32.8%	60 33.3%	46 25.6%	15 8.3%

6.3.3. The Perceived Importance of Personnel/HR Managers on the Board

In some organizations, the role and the significant contribution of effective Personnel/HR management practices have not been widely recognized by top-level management. It has been suggested that Personnel/HR managers or specialists can not be strategically important if they can not influence the dominant management decisions in an organization. Even in some European countries, Personnel/HR managers seem to rarely reach the very highest positions in employing organizations (Coulson-Thomas, 1990; Coulson-Thomas and Wakeham, 1991). In order to understand the status of a Personnel/HR manager within an organization, Taiwanese participants were asked to rate the perceived importance of having a Personnel/HR manager on the board or being a member of senior management team participating in the corporate strategy formulation. A five point scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important" was used in this study.

Table 6.7(a) shows that 70.6 per cent of HR managers in these responding firms reported that it is important and/or very important to have Personnel/HR managers being present at board level involving in the development of corporate strategy.

Table 6.7(a) The Importance of Personnel/HR Manager being a Member of Senior Management Team

	Very unimportant (1)	unimportant (2)	Neutral (3)	Important (4)	Very important (5)	Mean and SD
Importance of HR manager *N*=180	4	13	36	77	50	3.87
100%	2.2%	7.2%	20%	42.8%	27.8%	0.98

A two-way analysis of variance was used to test the first hypothesis of the HRMRS study: whether there was any significant interaction between ownership pattern and company size with respect to the perceived importance of having Personnel/HR managers on the board. The null hypothesis (H_{01}) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are stated below.

H_{01} The perceived importance of having HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy would not vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_1 The perceived importance of having Personnel/HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

The results of the two-way ANOVA showed that none of the factors is significant as can be seen from the final column of significance values of F because they are all greater than 0.05 (see Ta ble 6.7(b)). Therefore, H_1 is rejected. The findings support the null hypothesis H_{01} that there is no effect (main or interactive) for ownership pattern and company size with regard to the perceived importance of having Personnel/HR managers on the board participating in the corporate strategy formulation.

Table 6.7(b) Two-Way Analysis of Variance

	Having Personnel/HR managers on the board Ownership pattern By Company size					
Source of variation		Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.of F
Main Effects		0.73	4	0.18	0.19	0.94
Ownership pattern		0.19	2	0.09	0.10	0.91
Company size		0.54	2	0.27	0.29	0.75
2-way interactions		7.822	4	1.96	2.06	0.09
Ownership pattern	Company Size	7.822	4	1.96	2.06	0.09
Explained		8.55	8	1.07	1.13	0.35
Residual		162.25	171	0.95		
Total		170.80	179	0.95		

6.3.4. Integration of HRM Policy and Corporate Strategy

As is mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.3, HRM tends to be seen as a strategic approach because it emphasizes the importance of integrating HRM policies (e.g., recruitment, training, rewards, etc.) with an organization's corporate strategy. In this research, survey participants were asked to rate the perceived importance of integrating HRM policy and corporate strategy, using a five point Likert scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important".

As is shown in Table 6.8(a), 88.3 per cent of HR managers in these responding firms felt that it is important and/or very important to fully integrate the HRM policy with the corporate strategy.

Table 6.8(a) Integration of HRM Policy and Corporate Strategy

	Very unimportant (1)	unimportant (2)	Neutral (3)	Important (4)	Very important (5)	Mean and SD

Integration of HRM and
corporate strategy
    N=180
    100%
	
	2
	1.1%
		
		4
		2.2%
			
			15
			8.3%
				
				92
				51.1%
					
					67
					37.2%
						4.21
						
						0.78

Likewise, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the second hypothesis of the HRMRS study: whether there was any significant interaction between ownership pattern and company size (two factor variables) with respect to the perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy (one dependent variable). The null hypothesis (H_{o2}) and alternative hypothesis (H_2) are outlined as follows.

H_{o2} The perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy would not vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

H_2 The perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

Table 6.8(b) illustrates that neither the main effects of ownership pattern ($p = 0.55$) nor company size ($p = 0.06$) are significant, and that their two-way interactions are also not significant ($p = 0.61$) since their significance values of F are all larger than 0.05. Thus, H_2 is rejected. The results support the null hypothesis H_{o2} that the perceived importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy would not vary significantly with ownership pattern and company size, although size bordered on the significant ($p = 0.06$) and may warrant further investigation.

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Table 6.8(b) Two-Way Analysis of Variance

Importance of integrating the HRM policy and the corporate strategy

By   Ownership pattern
     Company size

Source of variation		Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.of F
Main Effects		4.15	4	1.04	1.74	0.14
Ownership pattern		0.71	2	0.36	0.59	0.55
Company size		3.44	2	1.72	2.88	0.06
2-way interactions		1.63	4	0.41	0.68	0.61
Ownership pattern	Company Size	1.63	4	0.41	0.68	0.61
Explained		5.78	8	0.72	1.21	0.30
Residual		102.20	171	0.60		
Total		107.98	179	0.60		

6.3.5. Primary Responsibility for HRM Functions/Activities

Armstrong (1992) indicates that the locus of responsibility for people-management is devolved to line managers, and that the role of personnel specialists is to support and facilitate line management in this task, not to control it. In this research, respondents were asked to identify the position of their own organization on the six HRM functions/activities: pay and benefits; recruitment and selection; training and development; industrial relations; health and safety; and workforce expansion or reduction. In each case, organizations were rated according to whether the primary responsibility for HRM activities rested with (1) HR department; (2) HR department in consultation with line management; (3) line management; (4) line management in consultation with HR department; (5) other; or (6) don't know. The third hypothesis is stated below.

Ho3   There would not be a decentralization of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management.

H3   There would be a decentralization of responsibility for HRM functions/activities to line management.

As is illustrated in Table 6.9, in the majority of the areas of HRM activity included in the survey, HR managers (30-40%) indicated that they shared responsibility with line management rather than having sole responsibility (see Column 2). The area in which HR managers (35.6%) seem to have the greater incidence of sole responsibility being "health and safety" (see Column 1). The results also show very few instances of sole line responsibility for these HRM functions (see Column 3). However, line involvement seems to be stronger in the areas of "recruitment and selection", "training and development", and "workforce expansion/reduction" (see Column 4). Given these results, this study supports Hypothesis H3 that there are some substantial decentralized responsibilities for HRM activities/functions to line management.

Table 6.9 Primary Responsibility for HRM Functions/Activities

Functions/Activities	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Total and percentages
Pay & benefits	61 33.9%	66 36.7%	10 5.6%	18 10%	22 12.2%	3 1.7%	N=180 100%
Recruitment & selection	42 23.3%	73 40.6%	11 6.1%	41 22.8%	10 5.6%	3 1.7%	N=180 100%
Training & development	36 20%	72 40%	20 11.1%	32 17.8%	15 8.3%	5 2.8%	N=180 100%
Industrial relations	58 32.2%	59 32.8%	13 7.2%	26 14.4%	17 9.4%	7 3.9%	N=180 100%
Health and safety	64 35.6%	57 31.7%	16 8.9%	26 14.4%	15 8.3%	2 1.1%	N=180 100%
Workforce expansion/ reduction	23 12.8%	72 40%	23 12.8%	41 22.8%	16 8.9%	5 2.8%	N=180 100%

Note: (1) HR department, (2) HR department in consultation with line management
(3) line management, (4) line management in consultation with HR department,
(5) other, (6) don't know.

6.3.6. Recruitment and Selection Processes

As is described in Chapter 3, Section 3.1, recruitment and selection processes not only seek to attract, obtain, and retain the quantity and quality of human resources the organization needs to achieve its strategic goals, but may also have significant effects upon the composition of the workforce, their ultimate fit with the organization's needs and prevailing culture, and upon long-range employment stability (Beer et al., 1984). In order to understand the relative importance of the recruitment and selection processes to an organization, Taiwanese respondents were asked to rate the importance of each stage in the recruitment and selection processes (see Table 6.10(a)). A five point Likert scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important" was used to indicate the importance level. Results on this analysis and the means and standard deviation for each stage are shown in Table 6.10(a).

Compared with "recruitment" and "selection", HR managers tend to consider "HR planning" (for both present and future staff requirements), "job analysis", "job description", and "job specification" to be more important (see Table 6.10(a)). The "realistic job preview" (RJP) is only considered as a moderately important recruiting technique. This may be due to the fact that, to local Taiwanese firms, the RJP (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5) is still a new western-oriented concept and hence may not be used as widely in Taiwan as is in the western countries even though local Taiwanese firms may be aware that this recruiting technique can better allow applicants to select whether a particular job is suited to their needs and enables the expectations of applicants to become more realistic. Furthermore, the respondents (Personnel/HR managers) also felt that it is

moderately important and/or important to seek approval from their superiors before they make the job offer to applicants (see Table 6.10(a)). This may be consistent with the moderately high Power Distance Index scores in Taiwan (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1).

Table 6.10(a) Recruitment and Selection Processes

Recruitment and Selection Processes	Mean N=180	SD
HRP - present staff requirement	4.05	0.82
HRP - future staff requirement	4.14	0.81
Job analysis	4.03	0.73
Job description	4.09	0.83
Job specification	4.07	0.85
Recruitment	3.78	0.84
Realistic job preview (RJP)	3.49	0.97
Selection	3.98	0.76
Approval concerning job offer	3.93	0.83

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unimportant, 2=unimportant, 3=netural, 4=important, 5=very important) was used to indicate the degree of importance of the recruitment processes

Results for Hypotheses Four and Five

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the fourth and fifth hypotheses of the HRMRS study: whether there was any significant effect for ownership pattern and company size with respect to the recruitment and selection processes. The null hypotheses (Ho4 and Ho5) and alternative hypotheses (H4 and H5) are outlined as follows.

Ho4   Recruitment and selection processes would not vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H4   Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H₀₅ Recruitment and selection processes would not vary significantly with company size.

H₅ Recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with company size.

The findings indicated that no statistically significant effect is found for ownership pattern with respect to each of the nine stages in the recruitment and selection processes ($p>0.05$). Hence, the alternative hypothesis H₄ is rejected and the table will not be shown in this study. However, there is a main effect for company size with respect to recruitment ($F = 4.72$; df = 2; $p = 0.01$). This means that, among these stages, "recruitment" is the only item that is affected by company size (see Table 6.10(b)). According to the results, the alternative hypothesis H₅ that the recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with company size could be accepted.

Table 6.10(b) The Importance of Recruitment Varied with Company Size

	Small firms (1) Mean	Medium firms (2) Mean	Large firms (3) Mean	F value	Sig.	Duncan
Recruitment	3.62	3.67	4.03	4.72	0.01	1-3, 2-3

Note: the statistical significant difference is derived by using one-way analysis of variance.

Moreover, although F test or analysis of variance can tell you that there is a significant difference between the means of the three groups of firm size with respect to "recruitment", it does not tell you where the differences lay. Hence, a Duncan multiple comparison test (see Chapter 5, Section 5.6.1) was conducted to determine which firm size differs significantly from one another. Table 6.10(b) illustrates that the means of large firms (group 3) appear to differ from the means of small (group 1) and medium-sized (group 2) firms. This means that large firms

tend to consider "recruitment" to be more important than do small and medium-sized firms.

In addition, a two-way analysis of variance was also used to test whether each of the nine stages in the recruitment and selection processes would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size. The results showed that there are no statistically significant interactions between ownership pattern and company size with regard to each of the nine stages. Thus, the tables will be not exhibited in this study.

If the researcher wishes to examine the effects of several dependent variables at the same time, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) can be used (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996). MANOVA was not performed in this study to test the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size (2 factor variables) on the recruitment and selection processes (9 dependent variables). The main reason for not being able to perform this statistical technique is that there are certain constraints needed to be taken into consideration when using this instrument: (1) MANOVA tends to require greater sample size than univariate ANOVAs; (2) the sample size needs to exceed specific thresholds in each cell (group) of the analysis; and (3) most importantly, the sample in each cell should be greater than the number of dependent variables included (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995). According to these constraints, it may not be advisable to employ a MANOVA because the sample in some cells could be expected to be smaller than the number of dependent variables included, in this case, nine stages.

6.3.7. Primary Responsibility for the Final Selection Decisions

As is mentioned in Chapter 3, Section 3.9, in some countries (e.g., USA), the final hiring decision is usually made by the line manager in the department that had the position open. Since the candidate may eventually work for this manager in that department, it may be important for HR managers/specialists to ensure a good 'fit' (including work-related values and attitudes) between the boss and the employee (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1996). In this research, respondents were asked to identify the position of their own organization on the final selection decisions. Organizations were rated according to whether the primary responsibility for such hiring decisions rested with (1) HR department; (2) HR department in consultation with line management; (3) line management; (4) line management in consultation with HR department; (5) other.

According to the results shown in Table 6.11, most of the HR managers/specialists (58.9%) indicated that line management is either solely responsible for the final hiring decisions or is in consultation with HR department (see columns 3 and 4). Given these result, it could be argued that line managers in the survey firms have some substantial decentralized responsibilities for the final hiring decisions.

Table 6.11 Primary Responsibility for the Final Hiring/Selection Decisions

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Total & percentages
Final hiring/selection decision	9	56	35	71	9	$N=180$
	5.0%	31.1%	19.4%	39.5%	5.0%	100%

Note: (1) HR department. (2) HR department in consultation with line management
    (3) line management. (4) line management in consultation with HR department, (5) other.

6.3.8. Recruitment Methods

The variety of internal and external recruitment methods listed in Table 6.12 can be used to attract potential employees to the firm for filling vacancies at managerial, technical, or entry levels. A five point scale where "1 = never" and "5 = always" was used in the surveys to indicate how frequently these recruitment methods are used by the Taiwanese participants (see footnote to Table 6.12(a)).

Table 6.12(a) shows that the internal recruitment methods such as "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" appear to be used more often than do external methods (e.g., recruitment consultants and executive search consultants), the internal personnel may be more likely to become the primary source to fill managerial and technical job vacancies. The use of internal recruiting methods may not only motivate current employees to perform better, but may also improve their job security and commitment (commonly desired HRM outcomes).

Table 6.12(a) Recruitment Methods

Recruitment Methods	Managerial (N=180)		Professional (N=180)		Entry (N=180)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Promotion from within	3.86	0.79	3.64	0.74	3.03	1.12
Transfers	3.51	0.84	3.31	0.81	3.12	0.97
Job rotations	3.11	0.99	3.14	0.88	3.03	0.99
Employee referrals	2.58	1.05	2.72	0.93	3.05	0.95
Schools or college/universities	2.20	1.15	2.78	1.02	3.26	1.00
Private employment agencies	2.15	0.98	2.21	0.99	2.14	1.04
Public employment agencies	2.26	0.99	2.29	1.00	2.40	1.09
Recruitment consultants	2.08	1.08	1.97	0.99	1.82	1.03
Executive search consultants	1.90	1.11	1.74	0.88	1.62	0.91
Direct applications	3.03	1.21	3.12	1.14	3.38	1.15
Advertisement in the media	3.46	1.22	3.72	1.12	4.07	0.98

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=frequently, 5=always) was used to indicate how often the recruitment and selection methods are used by companies.

"Direct applications" and "advertisement in the media" are also commonly used by the responding firms in Taiwan (see Table 6.12(a)). Occasionally, companies recruit potential employees from "private/public employment agencies" to fill vacancies at either managerial, technical, or entry levels. Although "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" are seldom used by the responding firms for managerial and professional positions, the research results showed that western-owned companies tend to use such methods more frequently than do Taiwanese-owned and Japanese-owned companies (see Table 6.12(b)).

When it comes to entry-level job openings, "advertisement in the media" appears to be used most frequently by the responding firms. Organizations, from time to time, use "employee referrals" and "direct applications" to fill entry-level job vacancies. "Colleges/universities" is also a common external recruiting source that the responding firms in Taiwan sometimes used (see Table 6.12(a)).

One way ANOVA was performed in this research to test the sixth and seventh hypotheses of the HRMRS study: whether there was any significant effect for ownership pattern with respect to each of the recruitment methods. The null hypotheses (H_{06} and H_{07}) and alternative hypotheses (H_6 and H_7) are shown as follows.

H_{06} Recruitment methods would not vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_6 Recruitment methods would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{07} Recruitment methods would not vary significantly with company size.

H_7 Recruitment methods would vary significantly with company size.

Results for Hypothesis Six

Since Table 6.12(b) shows that there are significant differences in F-tests on mean ownership pattern responses for six of the 33 items ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$), the alternative hypothesis H6 that recruitment methods would vary significantly with ownership pattern should be accepted. For example, according to the analysis, "college/universities", the external recruiting source used by the responding companies for entry-level job openings appears to vary with ownership pattern at the 5% significance level (see Table 6.12(b)). This indicates that Japanese-owned companies tend to recruit graduates directly from "college/universities" more often than do Taiwanese-owned and western-owned companies. This may be consistent with the stereotypical Japanese model in which Japanese organizations usually recruit graduates directly from schools, colleges, or universities on the premise that they will work for a long time and they (Japanese organizations) then provide them with on-the-job training so that they can be expected to acquire experience of various aspects of the business through job rotations and may be promoted according to their seniority or length of service (Graham and Bennett, 1995).

Moreover, "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" methods, used by the responding firms for managerial and professional vacancies, also differ significantly ($p<0.01$) with ownership pattern. This indicates that western-owned companies tend to recruit potential qualified candidates from "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" more often than do Taiwanese-owned and Japanese-owned companies for managerial and technical vacancies (see Table 6.12(b)).

Table 6.12(b) Recruitment Methods that Varied with Ownership Pattern -
One Way Analysis of Variance

Recruitment methods - managerial level	Taiwanese-owned Mean (1) N=140	Japanese-owned Mean (2) N=18	Western-owned Mean (3) N=22	F ratio	F prob.	Duncan
Promotion-from-within	3.86	4.06	3.64	1.46	0.24	0
Transfers	3.53	3.72	3.19	2.34	0.10	0
Job rotations	3.16	3.11	2.77	1.49	0.23	0
Employee referrals	2.67	2.11	2.36	2.87	0.06	2-1
Colleges or universities	2.31	2.06	1.64	3.52	0.03*	3-1
Private employment agencies	2.06	2.44	2.45	2.43	0.09	0
Public employment agencies	2.77	2.33	2.05	0.59	0.56	0
Recruitment consultants	1.96	1.78	3.05	11.63	0.00**	2-3, 1-3
Executive search consultants	1.79	1.50	2.95	13.52	0.00**	2-3. 1-3
Direct applications	3.11	2.83	2.73	1.214	0.30	0
Advertisement in the media	3.49	3.56	3.18	0.67	0.51	0
professional/technical						
Promotion-from-within	3.64	3.83	3.55	0.80	0.45	0
Transfers	3.30	3.50	3.18	0.77	0.46	0
Job rotations	3.19	3.17	2.77	2.22	0.11	3-1
Employee referrals	2.74	2.61	2.68	0.18	0.84	0
Colleges or universities	2.79	3.06	2.50	1.49	0.23	0
Private employment agencies	2.14	2.56	2.36	1.77	0.17	0
Public employment agencies	2.24	2.61	2.41	1.30	0.27	0
Recruitment consultants	1.89	1.67	2.77	9.42	0.00**	2-3, 1-3
Executive search consultants	1.66	1.44	2.55	12.24	0.00**	2-3, 1-3
Direct applications	3.13	2.83	3.27	0.77	0.46	0
Advertisement in the media	3.71	4.00	3.55	0.82	0.44	
entry level						
Promotion-from-within	3.06	2.89	2.95	0.25	0.78	0
Transfers	3.12	3.11	3.09	0.01	0.99	0
Job rotations	3.10	2.78	2.82	1.44	0.24	0
Employee referrals	2.99	3.28	3.27	1.44	0.24	0
Colleges or universities	3.16	3.83	3.36	3.81	0.02*	1-2
Private employment agencies	2.12	2.22	2.18	0.10	0.91	0
Public employment agencies	2.37	2.61	2.68	1.39	0.25	0
Recruitment consultants	1.84	1.44	2.00	1.55	0.22	0
Executive search consultants	1.64	1.33	1.68	0.10	0.37	0
Direct applications	3.34	3.39	3.59	0.44	0.64	0
Advertisement in the media	4.06	4.39	3.86	1.45	0.24	0

Note: *represents significant level $p<0.05$; **represents significant level $p<0.01$.

A Duncan test was also conducted to distinguish mean differences of Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned businesses among the six items yielding significant F-tests (see Table 6.12(b)). Take the item "recruitment consultants" at managerial job level as an example, the means of western-owned business (group 3) appear to differ significantly from both means of Taiwanese-owned and Japanese-owned businesses (group 1 and group 2). This indicates that western-owned companies tend to use "recruitment consultants" more often than do Taiwanese and Japanese-owned companies for managerial posts.

It should be noted that there are relatively limited number of foreign-owned companies operating in Taiwan (see Chapter 1, Section 1.2), and that the 500 sample companies chosen for postal survey are randomly selected from the *Taiwan Trade Yellow Pages* (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5.1), therefore, it seems unlikely to pre-control or manipulate the number of Japanese-owned or western-owned companies being included in these 500 sample companies; and it can be expected that the number of foreign-owned companies that returned both the HRMRS and national culture questionnaires would be far less than did the domestic Taiwanese firms (see Table 6.12(b) and Table 6.13(b)). Sapsford and Jupp (1996) also point out that, in survey analysis, it is rarely the case that groups to be compared are of equal size.

Results for Hypothesis Seven

The results showed that ten of the 33 items varied significantly with company size ($p<0.05$, and $p<0.01$). Thus, the findings support the alternative hypothesis H7 that recruitment methods would vary significantly with company size (see Table 6.12(c)). According to the analysis, large and medium-sized

companies tend to use the internal recruitment methods such as "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" more frequently than do small firms for managerial and professional vacancies (see Table 6.12(c)). The external methods such as "colleges/universities", "employee referrals", and "direct applications" are also utilized by large and medium-sized companies more often for entry-level job openings. The findings above suggest that while large and medium-sized companies tend to recruit qualified candidates from the internal labour market (thereby help to increase employee security and commitment, etc.), the recruitment of entry level applicants seem to remain in the external labour market.

A Duncan test was also performed to determine which firm size differs significantly from one another with respect to the ten items that yield significant F-tests. Take the item "employee referrals" at technical job level as an example, the means of large companies (group 3) appear to differ significantly from the means of small companies (group 1). This indicates that large companies in Taiwan tend to utilize "employee referrals" more frequently than do small companies for technical job vacancies (see Table 6.12(c)).

Moreover, a two-way analysis of variance was utilized to test whether each of the recruitment methods shown in Table 6.12(a) would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size. According to the results, there are statistically significant interactions between ownership pattern and company size with regard to "promotion-from-within" for technical vacancies ($F = 2.62$; df $= 4$; $p = 0.04$) (see Table 6.12(d)). Since the rest of the recruitment methods are not significantly affected by the two-way interactions of size and ownership pattern, the tables will not be shown in this study.

Table 6.12(c) Recruitment Methods that Varied with Company Size -
One Way Analysis of Variance

Recruitment methods - managerial level	Small firms Mean (1) N=71	Medium Mean (2) N=46	Large firms Mean (3) N=63	F ratio	F prob.	Duncan
Promotion-from-within	3.66	3.87	4.06	4.55	0.01**	1-3
Transfers	3.27	3.48	3.81	7.46	0.00**	1-3, 2-3
Job rotations	2.79	3.11	3.48	8.73	0.00**	1-3, 2-3
Employee referrals	2.55	2.63	2.57	0.08	0.92	0
Colleges or universities	2.35	2.35	1.92	2.95	0.06	3-1
Private employment agencies	2.23	2.20	2.03	0.72	0.49	0
Public employment agencies	2.18	2.39	2.24	0.63	0.53	0
Recruitment consultants	2.21	1.93	2.03	1.01	0.37	0
Executive search consultants	1.92	1.70	2.03	1.24	0.29	0
Direct applications	3.01	3.30	2.86	1.85	0.16	0
Advertisement in the media	3.52	3.52	3.35	0.40	0.67	0
professional/technical						
Promotion-from-within	3.44	3.70	3.84	5.44	0.01**	1-3
Transfers	3.10	3.24	3.59	6.64	0.00**	1-3, 2-3
Job rotations	2.87	3.11	3.46	8.12	0.00**	1-3, 2-3
Employee referrals	2.51	2.87	2.86	3.19	0.04*	1-3
Colleges or universities	2.65	2.87	2.86	0.95	0.39	0
Private employment agencies	2.24	2.28	2.11	0.46	0.63	0
Public employment agencies	2.11	2.43	2.40	2.00	0.14	0
Recruitment consultants	1.94	1.83	2.11	1.16	0.37	0
Executive search consultants	1.76	1.59	1.84	1.13	0.32	0
Direct applications	2.96	3.17	3.25	1.22	0.30	0
Advertisement in the media	3.62	3.67	3.87	0.90	0.41	0
entry level						
Promotion-from-within	2.83	3.26	3.10	2.22	0.11	0
Transfers	3.00	3.15	3.22	0.92	0.40	0
Job rotations	2.87	3.28	3.03	2.42	0.09	1-2
Employee referrals	2.85	2.93	3.37	5.71	0.00**	1-3, 2-3
Colleges or universities	3.01	3.24	3.54	4.78	0.01**	1-3
Private employment agencies	2.17	2.26	2.02	0.79	0.46	0
Public employment agencies	2.21	2.57	2.49	1.85	0.16	0
Recruitment consultants	1.89	1.85	1.71	0.49	0.61	0
Executive search consultants	1.62	1.65	1.59	0.07	0.93	0
Direct applications	3.07	3.80	3.41	6.06	0.00**	1-2
Advertisement in the media	3.90	4.09	4.25	2.19	0.11	1-3

Note: *represents significant level $p<0.05$;
**represents significant level $p<0.01$.

Table 6.12(d) Two-Way Analysis of Variance

Promotion-from-within - Technical level
Ownership pattern
By   Company size

Source of variation		Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.of F
Main Effects		6.12	4	1.53	3.04	0.02
Ownership pattern		0.87	2	0.43	0.87	0.42
Company size		5.25	2	2.62	5.22	0.01
2-way interactions		5.26	4	1.32	2.62	0.04
Ownership pattern	Company Size	5.26	4	1.32	2.62	0.04
Explained		11.38	8	1.42	2.83	0.01
Residual		85.87	171	0.50		
Total		97.24	179	0.54		

6.3.9. Selection Techniques

A range of useful selection techniques listed in Table 6.13(a) can be used in the selection process to help organizations make decisions about individuals whose qualifications and work-related values and attitudes most closely conform to the requirements of the open positions should be selected. In the survey, respondents were asked to indicate how frequently they use these selection techniques. A five point scale was used with values ranging from "1 = never" to "5 = always".

Among the selection techniques, "application forms" and "one-to-one interviews" appear to be used most frequently by the responding companies in Taiwan for filling vacancies at managerial, professional, and entry levels (see Table 6.13(a)). Organizations, from time to time, employ "skill/knowledge tests" and "panel interviews" for managerial, professional, and entry-level positions. The other selection techniques like "aptitude tests", "psychometric tests", "assessment centres", "references", and "medical examinations" are also occasionally used by the responding firms for managerial, technical, and entry-level posts.

Table 6.13(a) Selection Techniques

Selection Techniques	Managerial (N=180)		Professional (N=180)		Entry (N=180)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Application forms	4.02	1.21	4.30	0.89	4.12	1.11
Aptitude tests	2.44	1.23	2.60	1.24	2.37	1.25
Psychometric tests	2.23	1.18	2.31	1.16	2.16	1.16
Skill or knowledge tests	3.33	1.27	3.69	1.18	3.07	1.27
One-to-one interview	4.20	1.09	4.09	1.04	4.04	1.04
Panel interview	3.06	1.28	3.01	1.26	2.73	1.29
Assessment centres	2.13	1.16	2.12	1.12	1.91	1.07
References	2.42	1.00	2.36	0.97	2.20	1.05
Medical examinations	2.77	1.40	2.91	1.42	2.98	1.48

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=frequently, 5=always) was used to indicate how often the recruitment and selection methods are used by companies.

Results for Hypotheses Eight and Nine

In addition, one-way ANOVA was used to test the last two hypotheses of the HRMRS study: whether there was any significant effect for ownership pattern and company size with respect to each of the selection techniques. The null hypotheses (H_{08} and H_{09}) and alternative hypotheses (H_8 and H_9) are outlined below.

H_{08} Selection techniques would not vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_8 Selection techniques would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{09} Selection techniques would not vary significantly with company size.

H_9 Selection techniques would vary significantly with company size.

The results showed that each of the selection techniques (27 items) appear not to vary significantly with ownership pattern ($p>0.05$, see Table 6.13(b)), therefore, the null hypothesis H_{08} should be accepted. However, twelve of the 27

items are found to differ significantly with company size ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$). Therefore, the alternative hypothesis H9 is accepted. Although the results showed that "aptitude tests" and "psychometric tests" are occasionally used by the responding firms for filling vacancies at managerial, professional, and entry levels, both large and medium-sized organizations tend to use such selection techniques more frequently than do small firms (see Table 6.13(c)). Moreover, large and medium-sized companies tend to utilize "panel interviews" more often for managerial, technical, and entry-level vacancies. "Application forms" and "assessment centres" are also used more frequently by large organizations for filling vacancies at managerial and professional levels. Large organizations appear to use "medical examinations" more often for entry-level job openings (see Table 6.13(c)). The findings above seem to indicate that the number and type of selection techniques the company utilizes to select the right employees for the jobs may be associated with company size.

A Duncan test was also used to identify which mean groups of firm size are significantly different from one another with respect to the twelve items that yield significant F-tests. Take the item "skill or knowledge tests" at professional levels as an example, the means of small firms (group 1) appear to differ significantly from both means of medium and large firms (group 2 and group 3). This indicates that small companies in Taiwan tend to employ "skill or knowledge tests" less frequently than do medium and large companies for professional job vacancies (see Table 6.13(c)).

Furthermore, a two-way analysis of variance was performed to test whether each of the selection techniques illustrated in Table 6.13(a) would vary significantly with the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size.

The results showed that there are no statistically significant interactions between size and ownership pattern with regard to each of the selection techniques. Therefore, the tables will not be shown in this study.

Table 6.13(b) Selection Techniques that Varied with Ownership Pattern - One Way Analysis of Variance

Selection Techniques - managerial level	Taiwanese-owned Mean (1) N=140	Japanese-owned Mean (2) N=18	Western-owned Mean (3) N=22	F ratio	F prob.
Application forms	4.01	3.89	4.23	0.43	0.65
Aptitude tests	2.39	2.50	2.77	0.97	0.38
Psychometric tests	2.19	2.28	2.45	0.48	0.62
Skill or knowledge tests	3.41	3.11	3.05	1.07	0.34
One-to-one interview	4.17	4.33	4.27	0.23	0.80
Panel interview	3.07	2.72	3.27	0.93	0.40
Assessment centres	2.17	2.33	1.73	1.72	0.18
References	2.41	2.17	2.64	1.10	0.33
Medical examinations	2.75	2.50	3.14	1.10	0.33
professional level					
Application forms	4.27	4.22	4.55	0.98	0.38
Aptitude tests	2.58	2.50	2.82	0.41	0.66
Psychometric tests	2.28	2.44	2.36	0.19	0.82
Skill or knowledge tests	3.71	3.83	3.50	0.43	0.65
One-to-one interview	4.04	4.17	4.36	1.00	0.37
Panel interview	2.99	2.61	3.45	2.30	0.10
Assessment centres	2.19	2.06	1.73	1.65	0.16
References	2.41	2.22	2.14	0.94	0.39
Medical examinations	2.83	2.89	3.45	1.86	0.16
entry level					
Application forms	4.11	3.83	4.41	1.36	0.26
Aptitude tests	2.38	2.22	2.45	0.18	0.84
Psychometric tests	2.14	2.39	2.05	0.47	0.63
Skill or knowledge tests	3.09	2.83	3.09	0.33	0.72
One-to-one interview	3.97	4.17	4.41	1.86	0.16
Panel interview	2.72	2.33	3.14	1.97	0.14
Assessment centres	2.01	1.56	1.55	3.00	0.05
References	2.29	1.89	1.91	2.11	0.12
Medical examinations	2.90	2.83	3.59	2.20	0.11

Table 6.13(c) Selection Techniques that Varied with Company Size -
One Way Analysis of Variance

Selection Techniques - managerial level	Small firms Mean (1) N=71	Medium Mean (2) N=46	Large firms Mean (3) N=63	F ratio	F prob.	Duncan
Application forms	3.79	4.09	4.24	2.41	0.09	1-3
Aptitude tests	2.07	2.48	2.84	7.09	0.00**	1-3
Psychometric tests	1.92	2.33	2.52	4.80	0.01**	1-3
Skill or knowledge tests	3.17	3.39	3.48	1.04	0.36	0
One-to-one interview	4.04	4.26	4.33	1.29	0.28	0
Panel interview	2.75	3.11	3.38	4.28	0.02*	1-3
Assessment centres	1.90	2.07	2.44	3.92	0.02*	1-3
References	2.42	2.28	2.51	0.68	0.513	0
Medical examinations	2.66	2.65	2.98	1.11	0.33	0
professional/technical						
Application forms	4.23	4.13	4.51	2.86	0.06	2-3
Aptitude tests	2.20	2.65	3.02	7.83	0.00**	1-2, 1-3
Psychometric tests	1.96	2.43	2.60	5.87	0.00**	1-2, 1-3
Skill or knowledge tests	3.37	3.85	3.95	4.86	0.01**	1-2, 1-3
One-to-one interview	4.17	3.91	4.13	0.91	0.41	0
Panel interview	2.73	3.02	3.32	3.69	0.03*	1-3
Assessment centres	2.03	1.98	2.32	1.61	0.20	0
References	2.32	2.26	2.46	0.63	0.54	0
Medical examinations	2.73	2.87	3.14	1.42	0.24	0
entry level						
Application forms	4.08	4.09	4.19	0.18	0.83	0
Aptitude tests	2.00	2.39	2.78	6.94	0.00**	1-3
Psychometric tests	1.87	2.22	2.43	4.03	0.02*	1-3
Skill or knowledge tests	2.83	3.24	3.21	2.05	0.13	0
One-to-one interview	4.04	3.89	4.16	0.89	0.41	0
Panel interview	2.39	2.80	3.06	4.79	0.01**	1-3
Assessment centres	1.77	1.87	2.10	1.56	0.21	0
References	2.14	2.22	2.25	0.20	0.82	0
Medical examinations	2.72	2.87	3.35	3.28	0.04*	1-3

Note: *represents significant level p<0.05.
  **represents significant level p<0.01.

It should be noted that it may not be appropriate in this study to employ a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size on the overall recruitment methods and selection techinques. Because the sample in some cells could be expected to be

much smaller than the number of dependent variables included, in this case, recruitment methods (33 items) and selection instruments (27 items) (see Section 6.3.6).

6.3.10. Promotion Criteria

In the surveys, Taiwanese respondents were asked to rate the degree of importance of each promotion criterion, as shown in Table 6.14. A five point Likert scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important" was used to indicate the level of importance. Results on this analysis and the means and standard deviation for each criterion are illustrated in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14 Promotion Criteria

Criteria	Mean (N=180)	SD
Past performance	4.08	0.67
Technical competence	4.27	0.61
loyalty	3.89	0.91
Seniority	3.28	0.87
Leadership	4.19	0.64
Sociability	3.63	0.78

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unimportant, 2=unimportant, 3=netural, 4=important, 5=very important) was used to indicate the importance of promotion criteria.

According to the analysis, although the promotion criteria are generally considered by Taiwanese HR managers as moderately important and/or important, "technical competence" appears to be the most important, and then "leadership", "past performance", "loyalty", and "sociability". "Seniority" seems to be the least important among these promotion criteria (see Table 6.14). Factors like "comprehensive knowledge about the company and the products", "initiative", and "co-operation" are also considered by HR managers as important criteria.

6.3.11. Factors that Facilitate Recruitment

Recruiting prospective employees has always been challenging; however, economic pressures, equal employment legislation, and shortages in specific skills in today's society may require business organizations in Taiwan to adopt more flexible and innovative recruitment strategies and practices. Therefore, issues such as flexible working practices and the recruitment of older people, women, and disabled people, etc. for employment, although not discussed in this research, might as well briefly present their analysis and results in this section and the next section.

In this research, Taiwanese respondents were asked to indicate how important each of the following factors are in facilitating recruitment (see Table 6.15). A five point scale was used to indicate the level of importance with values ranging from "1 = very unimportant" to "5 = very important".

Table 6.15 shows that, among the 11 factors, the last item "marketing the company's image" tends to be considered by HR managers as the most important factor in facilitating recruitment. "Retraining existing employees", "training for new employees", and "increase pay/benefits" are also considered as important. Factors like "flexible working hours", "recruiting abroad", "relaxed age and qualifications requirements", and "job sharing" are considered as moderately important. "Relocation of the company" and "part-time work" are considered as the least important in facilitating recruitment.

It appears that the offer of flexible working hours and part-time employment as part of a recruitment effort is not as prevalent among the responding firms in Taiwan as is in some European countries such as Germany, Norway, Sweden, and UK, etc. (Hegewisch and Mayne, 1994). This may be due to

the fact that these flexible working practices are still new western concepts to the local Taiwanese firms and thus have not yet been considered as important and used as widely as in the western countries.

Table 6.15 Factors that Facilitate Recruitment

Factors	Mean (N=180)	SD
Flexible working hours	2.86	0.97
Recruiting abroad	2.79	1.09
Relaxed age requirements	2.75	0.88
Relaxed qualifications requirements	2.79	0.88
Relocation of the company	2.33	0.98
Retraining existing employees	3.90	0.80
Training for new employees	3.91	0.75
Part-time work	2.28	0.94
Job sharing	3.11	0.97
Increasing pay/benefits	3.87	0.83
Marketing the company's image	4.05	0.79

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unimportant, 2=unimportant, 3=netural, 4=important, 5=very important) was used to indicate the importance of flexible working practices.

6.3.12. The Target Groups in the Recruitment Process

In addition, survey participants were also asked to indicate how frequently they target the following groups of people, using a five point scale with values ranging from "1 = never" to "5 = always" (see Table 6.16).

The findings showed that, among seven groups of people, the responding firms in Taiwan tend to target "people with work experience" most frequently. This may be because hiring experienced people is an inexpensive way of acquiring skilled and experienced employees, particularly when there is an immediate demand for scarce, technical, or managerial skills. From time to time, the responding companies also recruit their present employees' "friends and relatives" and "women" for employment. However, "the long-term unemployed", "older people", "people with disabilities", and "school leavers" are seldom targeted by

these responding firms. Although equal opportunity legislation has been enacted by the Taiwan Council of Labour Affairs (CLA), it only asks employers to make efforts to treat these groups of people equally and it is therefore not surprising that its effect seems to be unexceptional. The Equal Opportunities Act in Scandinavian and North European countries tends to place more restrictions upon employers to provide equal treatment of e.g., men and women in recruitment for jobs, transfer, or promotion (Hofstede, 1991).

Table 6.16 Target Groups

	Mean (N=180)	SD
The long-term unemployed	2.00	0.79
Older people	2.08	0.74
People with disabilities	2.34	0.92
Women	3.12	0.97
School leavers	2.35	0.94
People with work experience	4.12	0.69
Friends and relatives	3.60	0.78

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=frequently, 5=always) was used to indicate how often the group of people noted above were targeted in the recruitment process.

6.4. Discussion of the Major Findings

The major findings reported in the earlier section of this chapter are highlighted and discussed in this section.

6.4.1. HRM and Strategic Integration

The results indicated that, in the majority of the responding firms, there is an HR manager/department (73%), and that the majority of HR managers (71%) felt it was important that there was an HR specialist on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy. An even greater proportion of the HR managers (88%) felt it important that HR policy and corporate strategy were fully

integrated. Yet when asked whether there were written statements of corporate strategy and HR policy, only about 30 per cent of the HR managers said there were. A further 30 per cent affirmed that there were unwritten corporate strategy and HR policy.

However, this research is not able to provide empirical evidence concerning how many responding firms do have personnel/HR representation at board level and whether those Personnel/HR managers who do have a place on the board are actually involved in the development of corporate strategy from the outset, or whether they are involved in a consultative capacity or perhaps at the implementation stage. In future years, it may be possible to tell from further research whether there is an increasingly strategic role for the personnel function and whether this is combined with a greater integration of personnel policies with business objectives.

It should be noted that even though most HR managers in the survey may find 'strategic integration' important, in practice it may be very difficult for them to achieve without having the formalized and explicit corporate strategy and HRM policy (in terms of a written form) to refer to on the board. As noted earlier, only about 30 per cent of the responding companies in Taiwan claimed to have a written corporate strategy and HRM policy.

6.4.2. Responsibility for HRM Functions/Activities

In the majority of the areas of HR activity included in the survey, HR managers indicated that they shared responsibility with line management rather than having sole responsibility. The area in which they seem to have the greater incidence of sole responsibility being "health and safety".

The results also showed very few instances of sole line responsibility for these HRM functions. However, line involvement seems to be stronger in the areas of "recruitment and selection", "training and development", and "workforce expansion/reduction". Line managers also seem to have a particularly significant role in final hiring decisions. When it actually comes down to making the selection decisions, one would expect that line managers would be involved and would like to have a greater say in that decision than HR managers/specialists since the prospective employees would eventually work for the line managers in their departments. To some extent, these responses may give an indication of line management preferences as well as HR managers' preferences for involvement in these HRM functions/activities. These responses may also indicate differences in the locus of responsibility for individual and collective issues and those areas in which decision-making may be appropriately decentralized.

6.4.3. Recruitment Practices

6.4.3.1. The Use of Recruitment Methods

The research results showed that a range of recruitment methods shown in Table 6.12(a) have all been used to varying degrees by the responding firms in Taiwan for filling vacancies at the managerial, professional, and entry levels. Some are used more frequently while some are used less. For example, when it comes to the managerial and professional recruitment, the responding firms in Taiwan appear to use "promotion-from-within", "transfers", "advertisement in the media", "job rotations", and "direct applications" more frequently. Other methods such as "employee referrals", "colleges/universities", "private employment agencies", "public employment agencies", "recruitment consultants", and "executive search

consultants" are seldom used by the firms for managerial and professional positions.

For the entry-level recruitment, "colleges/universities" and "employees referrals" seem to be used more frequently by the responding firms along with other methods such as "advertisement in the media", "direct applications", "transfers", and "job rotations". In the family-based culture like Taiwan, one could expect that "employees referrals" (the hiring of family members, relatives, or close friends) would be a common method for the recruitment of entry-level employees.

6.4.3.2. Recruitment Methods by Ownership Pattern and Company Size

Ownership Pattern

Table 6.12(b) shows that while western-owned companies in Taiwan appear to use "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" more frequently than do Japanese-owned and Taiwanese-owned companies for managerial and professional vacancies, Japanese-owned companies seem to recruit new graduates directly from "colleges/universities" more often than do Taiwanese-owned and western-owned companies for entry-level openings (see the significant levels in Table 6.12(b)). These results may be indicative of support for the culturally relativist arguments that recruitment practices are culturally sensitive across national boundaries and that the results are consistent with the findings of Easterby-Smith et al. (1995) and Lawler et al. (1995). Since the empirical evidence showed that ownership pattern has significant effects upon some of the recruitment methods that the responding companies used, models of recruitment methods in Taiwan can then be proposed according to the pattern of ownership and the frequency level as Figures 6.1 to 6.3 illustrate.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Recruitment Methods            │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Promotion-from-within (f)           │
│ Transfers (f)                       │
│ Job rotations (f)                   │
│ Colleges/universities (*)           │
│ Direct applications (f)             │
│ Advertisement in the media (f)      │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```
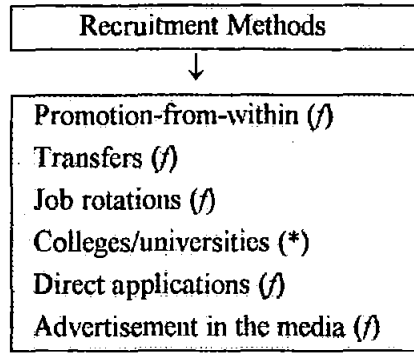
Figure 6.1 Recruitment methods commonly used by Taiwanese-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3
      (*) indicates those methods with a significant level $p<0.05$ (managerial recruitment)

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Recruitment Methods            │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Promotion-from-within (f)           │
│ Transfers (f)                       │
│ Job rotations (f)                   │
│ Employee referrals (f)              │
│ Colleges/universities (f)(*)        │
│ Direct applications (f)             │
│ Advertisement in the media (f)      │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
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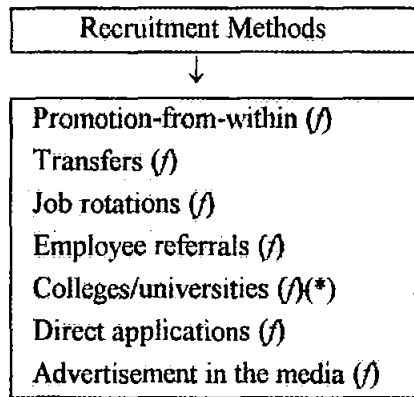
Figure 6.2 Recruitment methods commonly used by Japanese-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3
      (*) indicates those methods with a significant level $p<0.05$ (entry-level recruitment)

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Recruitment Methods            │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Promotion-from-within (f)           │
│ Transfers (f)                       │
│ Employee referrals (f)              │
│ Colleges/universities (f)           │
│ Recruitment consultants (**)        │
│ Executive search consultants (**)   │
│ Direct applications (f)             │
│ Advertisement in the media (f)      │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```
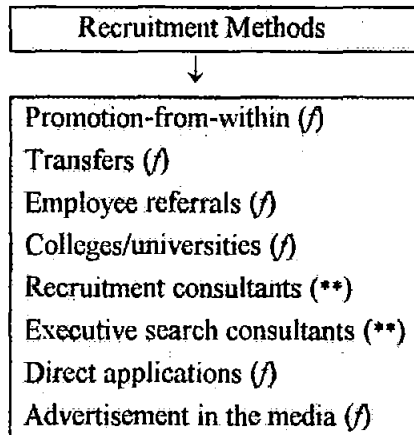
Figure 6.3 Recruitment methods commonly used by western-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3
      (**) indicates those methods with a significant level $p<0.01$ (managerial and
         professional recruitment)

Based on the certain types of recruitment method used by the Japanese-owned and western-owned companies, it could be inferred that these foreign subsidiaries in Taiwan tend to adopt Perlmutter's (1969) ethnocentric approach to management, particularly with regard to recruitment practices (these are reflective of home country practices). However, this does not suggest that an ethnocentric approach would be used by all of the foreign-owned companies in Taiwan for major strategic decisions and managerial policies. Some multinational firms, in practice, may find it appropriate to have company-wide philosophies and policies (e.g., adopt a global strategy) while they may also find it unavoidable to be responsive to local conditions when it comes to HRM practices, for example, training and development, or pay and benefits (e.g., adopt a polycentric strategy). Whatever approach the multinational firms adopted may vary from company to company depending on their form and extent of multinationalization, their industry and the markets they select to serve, and the kind of employees they have.

Company Size

In addition to ownership pattern, recruitment methods also vary with company size. Table 6.12(c) shows that medium-sized firms tend to use "direct applications" more frequently than do small firms for entry-level recruitment (see the significant levels). Large companies tend to use "transfers", "job rotations", and "employee referrals" more frequently than do small and medium-sized companies for managerial, professional, and entry-level posts (see the significant levels in Table 6.12(c)). As compared with small firms, "promotion-from-within", the internal recruitment method, is also used more often by large firms for filling

vacancies at managerial and professional levels. This may be a reflection of the respective size of internal labour markets and that a greater variety of recruitment methods are used by larger organizations.

Based upon the findings above, models of recruitment methods in Taiwan can also be developed according to size variation and the type of methods being frequently or commonly used by the responding firms (see Figures 6.4 to 6.6).

```
+-----------------------------------+
|       Recruitment Methods         |
+-----------------------------------+
                  ↓
+-----------------------------------+
| Promotion-from-within (f)         |
| Transfers (f)                     |
| Colleges/universities (f)         |
| Direct applications (f)           |
| Advertisement in the media (f)    |
+-----------------------------------+
```
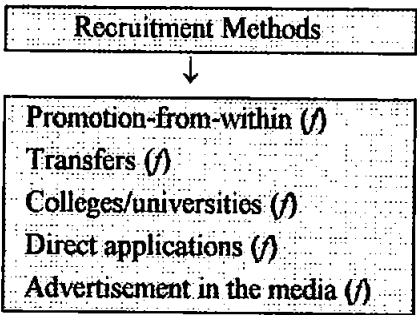
Figure 6.4 Recruitment methods commonly used by small companies
Note: (f) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3

```
+-----------------------------------+
|       Recruitment Methods         |
+-----------------------------------+
                  ↓
+-----------------------------------+
| Promotion-from-within (f)         |
| Transfers (f)                     |
| Job rotations (f)                 |
| Colleges/universities (f)         |
| Direct applications (f)(**)       |
| Advertisement in the media (f)    |
+-----------------------------------+
```
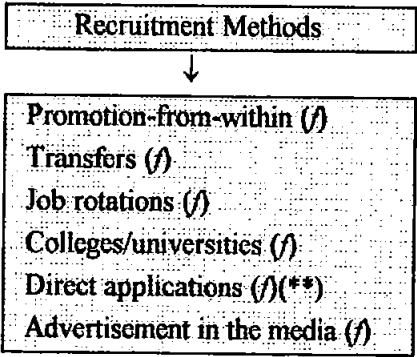
Figure 6.5 Recruitment methods commonly used by medium-sized companies
Note: (f) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3
(**) indicates those methods with a significant level $p<0.01$ (entry-level recruitment)

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Recruitment Methods               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Promotion-from-within (ƒ)(**)           │
│ Transfers (ƒ)(**)                        │
│ Job rotations (ƒ)(**)                    │
│ Employee referrals (ƒ)(**)               │
│ Colleges/universities (ƒ)(**)            │
│ Direct applications (ƒ)                  │
│ Advertisement in the media (ƒ)           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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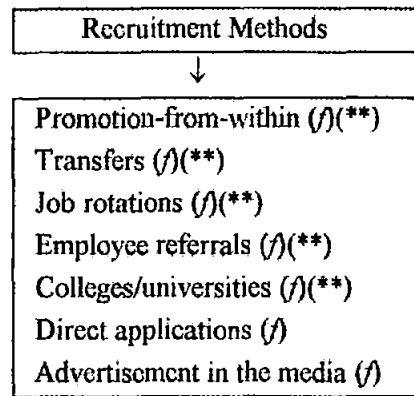
Figure 6.6 Recruitment methods commonly used by large companies
Note: (ƒ) indicates those methods with a mean frequency above 3
      (**) indicates those methods with a significant level $p<0.01$ (managerial,
      professional, and entry-level recruitment)

6.4.3.3. Promotion Criteria

The research results showed that "technical competence", "leadership", and

"past performance" based promotion tend to be considered by HR managers of the

responding firms as important. "Loyalty" and "sociability" are perceived as

moderately important. "Seniority" is found to be the least important. The findings

when compared to those of Hofstede's seem to demonstrate that, since the 1970s,

there has been a greater degree of emphasis being placed upon "technical

competence", "leadership", and "performance" based promotion than on "loyalty",

"sociability", and "seniority". There may be a relationship between these responses

and the findings with respect to work-related values and culture. The emphasis on

"leadership", "performance", and "technical competence" perhaps is in part a

reflection of the apparent increase in Masculinity in Taiwanese society. The lack of

emphasis on "loyalty" and "seniority" may be indicative of cultural change or

changes of work-related values of Taiwanese people within the society in the past

twenty years (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3).

6.4.3.4. Factors that Facilitate Recruitment

Relative to other factors, "marketing the company's image" tends to be considered by HR managers of the responding firms as most important in facilitating recruitment. "Training for new employees", "retraining existing employees", "increasing pay/benefits", and "job sharing" are perceived as moderately important. Factors like "flexible working hours", "recruiting abroad", "relaxed age requirements", and "relaxed qualifications requirements" are considered as less important. HR managers seem to find "relocation of the company" and "part-time work" the least important in facilitating recruitment.

There may be a relationship between some of the findings above and the findings on culture, for example, a relationship between status/reputation of the company and own status and self-esteem; and training and retraining practices may be a reflection of long-term values with respect to Confucian Dynamism.

6.4.3.5. The Target Groups in Recruitment

The research results showed that "the long-term unemployed", "older people", "people with disabilities", and "school leavers" are seldom targeted by the responding firms in Taiwan. Compared with these groups of people, it appears that "people with work experience" tend to be targeted most frequently. "Friends and relatives" are also commonly targeted in recruitment. One would expect that, in the Confucian culture an emphasis on family traditions, the hiring of friends, relatives, and family members (in-groups) would be a common recruitment practice within the organizations (see Chapter 1, Section 1.7).

6.4.4. Selection Practices

6.4.4.1. The use of Selection Techniques

Like the recruitment methods, a range of selection techniques identified in Table 6.13(a) have also been used to varying degrees by the responding firms in Taiwan. It appears that "application forms", "one-to-one interviews", "skill or knowledge tests", and "panel interviews" are the dominant selection techniques that the responding firms used at all levels (managerial, professional, and entry). Other techniques such as "medical examinations", "aptitude tests", and "references" are seldom used by the responding firms. "Psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" seem to be used least at all levels. It may not be surprising to see such results because "psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" are the western-oriented selection techniques and hence may not be used as commonly in Taiwan as in the USA and/or in Europe. In this respect, the selection practices might be culturally sensitive.

6.4.4.2. Selection Techniques by Ownership Pattern and Company Size

The research results do not provide statistically significant support for the study that the selection techniques listed Table 6.13(b) would vary significantly with ownership pattern. Nevertheless, models of selection techniques in Taiwan can still be developed according to the type of selection techniques being commonly used by the respective Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned companies (see Figures 6.7 to 6.9).

```
┌──────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│                      │          │  Application forms (f)          │
│ Selection Techniques │─────────▶│  Skill or knowledge tests (f)   │
│                      │          │  One-to-one interviews (f)      │
└──────────────────────┘          │  Panel interviews (f)           │
                                  └─────────────────────────────────┘
```
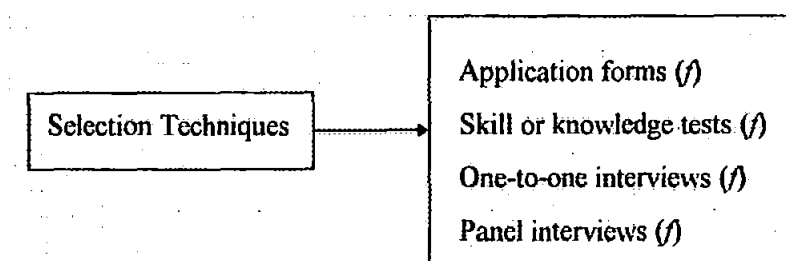
Figure 6.7 Selection techniques commonly used by Taiwanese-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3

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┌──────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│                      │          │  Application forms (f)          │
│ Selection Techniques │─────────▶│  Skill or knowledge tests (f)   │
│                      │          │  One-to-one interviews (f)      │
└──────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────────────────┘
```
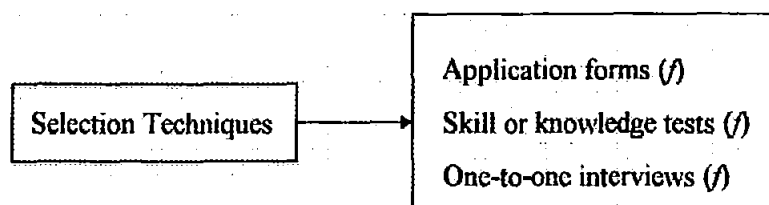
Figure 6.8 Selection techniques commonly used by Japanese-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3

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┌──────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│                      │          │  Application forms (f)          │
│                      │          │  Skill or knowledge tests (f)   │
│ Selection Techniques │─────────▶│  One-to-one interviews (f)      │
│                      │          │  Panel interviews (f)           │
└──────────────────────┘          │  Medical examinations (f)       │
                                  └─────────────────────────────────┘
```
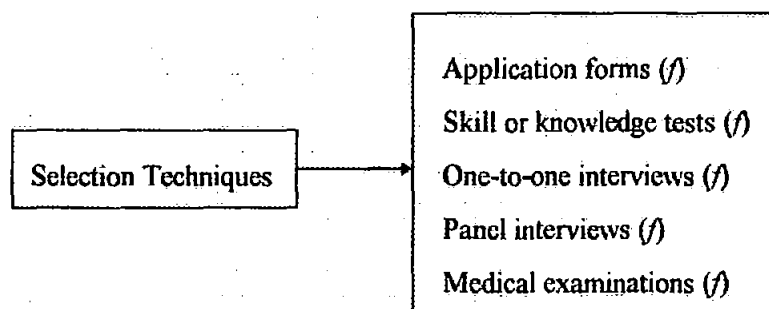
Figure 6.9 Selection techniques commonly used by western-owned companies
Note: (f) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3

As Figures 6.7, 6.8, and 6.9 exhibit, "application forms", "skill or knowledge tests", and "one-to-one interviews" appear to be the common selection techniques that Taiwanese-owned, Japanese-owned, and western-owned companies used. "Panel interviews" is used more frequently by Taiwanese-owned and western companies. "Medical examination" is used more often by western-owned companies. It appears that western-owned companies in Taiwan tend to use

more variety of selection techniques than Taiwanese-owned and Japanese-owned companies (see Figure 6.9).

Unlike ownership pattern, company size has significant effects on some of the selection techniques that the responding firms used. As is shown in Table 6.13(c), both medium-sized and large firms appear to use "aptitude tests", "psychometric tests", and "skill or knowledge tests" more frequently than do small firms for managerial or professional selection. Large firms also use "panel interviews", "assessment centres", and "medical examinations" more often to select the potential applicants at all levels than do small firms.

The findings above suggest that the number and type of selection techniques that the responding companies used to select the right employees for the jobs may be associated with firm size; and this is confirmed by the significant level as Table 6.13(c) illustrates. The findings above also enable this study to propose some appropriate models of selection techniques in Taiwan according to size variation and the frequency level (see Figures 6.10, 6.11, and 6.12).
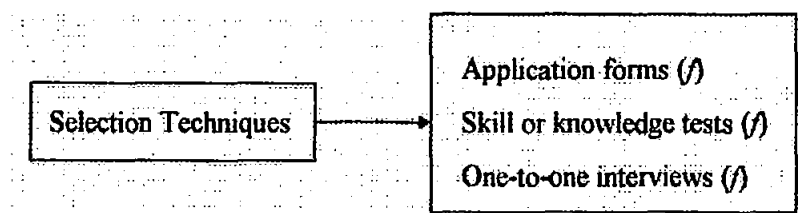
Figure 6.10 Selection techniques commonly used by small companies
Note: (*f*) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3
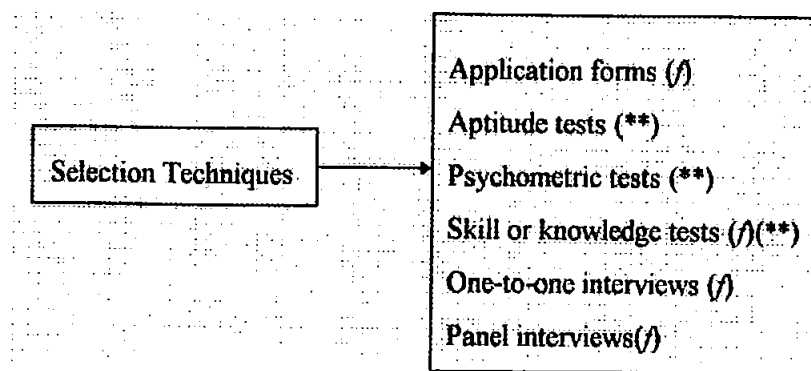
Figure 6.11 Selection techniques commonly used by medium-sized companies
Note: (*f*) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3
   (**) indicates those techniques with a significant level $p<0.01$ (professional selection)
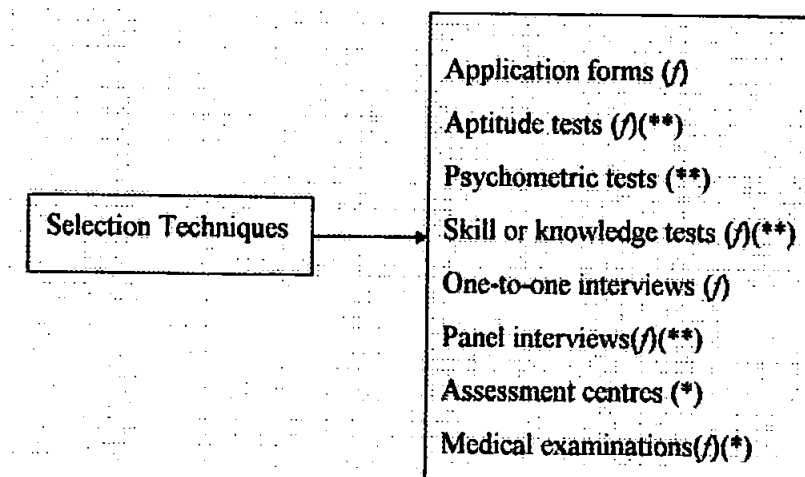
Figure 6.12 Selection techniques commonly used by large companies
Note: (*f*) indicates those techniques with a mean frequency above 3
   (*) indicates those techniques with a significant level $p<0.05$
   (**) indicates those techniques with a significant level $p<0.01$ (managerial, professional, and entry-level selection

In conclusion, the research results discussed so far demonstrated that a range of recruitment methods and selection techniques (the main area of focus) identified in this study have all been used by the survey firms in Taiwan to varying degrees, and that recruitment methods varied significantly with ownership pattern and selection techniques did not. However, the Japanese-owned companies'

frequent hiring of graduates directly from "universities/colleges" and the western-owned companies' more use of "recruitment consultants", "executive search consultants", "psychometric tests", and "assessment centres" suggest that recruitment and selection practices may be culturally sensitive. Therefore, the research findings provide some support for the culturally relativist view of HRM particularly in the area of recruitment and selection.

In addition to ownership pattern, company size also has significant effects upon some of the recruitment methods and selection techniques used. It could be anticipated that, as the company expands or grows bigger, the more variety of recruitment methods and selection techniques that the company is likely to use. The main contribution of this study is that the findings above enable the development of appropriate models of recruitment methods and selection techniques in Taiwan on the basis of ownership pattern and company size. In Chapter 8, some conclusions are drawn concerning the implications of these findings for both the theory and practice of HRM. Consideration is also given to the limitations of the study and to directions and issues that might be the subject of further research.

Chapter 7   Empirical Results and Analysis (2)

7.0.   Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the general findings and empirical results for the study concerned with HRM and recruitment and selection (HRMRS). This chapter seeks to present the general findings on work-related values of national culture and to report the empirical results that related to the research hypotheses stated in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3. The major sections of this chapter are: (1) response rate and reliability analysis of questionnaire survey; (2) characteristics of sample; (3) empirical results and analysis for the national culture study; and (4) discussion of the major findings.

7.1.   Response Rate and Reliability Analysis

7.1.1.   Response Rate

As is described in Chapter 5, Section 5.5, the questionnaire concerning work-related values of national culture was sent to the 500 sample companies along with the HRMRS questionnaire and a postage-paid return envelope. Of the 500 companies, 156 returned the questionnaires after the initial mailing was completed on 20th, July, 1996. An additional 24 completed questionnaires were received after the follow-ups (20th, August). Therefore, the total response number was 180 and the overall response rate for the national culture study was 36 per cent (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Response Rate

Respondents	Number distributed on 20/07	Number returned before the follow-ups (from 20/07 to 20/08)	Number returned after the follow-ups (from 20/08 to 10/09)	Response rate
Non-managerial employees	500*	156**	24**	36%

Note: *represents the sample size in this research
**represents that all returned responses were usable.

7.1.2. Reliability Analysis

Although the response rate for the national culture study was 36 per cent and could be considered as reasonable (Black and Champion, 1976; Moser and Kalton, 1985), the question of non-response bias may still remain. An approach for testing the non-response bias as suggested by Armstrong and Overton (1977) was performed; the late respondents can be assumed to be similar to non-respondents. An internal consistency reliability was used to test the first 156 returned responses; and a value of 0.90 (Cronbach's alpha) was obtained. The same method was used again to test the additional 24 returned responses; and a value of 0.91 was obtained. The reliability coefficient of the total 180 responses was 0.90 (Note: in the national culture questionnaire, Questions 7 to 21 were used for a reliability test; and a five point scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important" was used for these question items. Refer back to Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2). Based upon the results of the reliability test, it can be said that the national culture questionnaire itself has proved its internal consistency, and that the survey responses could be considered as representative of total and hence generalized to the target population.

7.2. Characteristics of Sample

The preceding section reported the response rate and the reliability analysis of the national culture questionnaire. This section presents characteristics of sample.

7.2.1. General Characteristics of Responding Firms

The general characteristics of responding firms consist of company size and ownership pattern, which have been described in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.1.

7.2.2. Personal Information of Respondents

A profile of respondents - non-managerial employees is summarized in Table 7.2. Of the 180 non-managerial employees, 97 (53.9%) were female while 83 (46.1%) were male. This finding combined with the high Masculinity Index scores may be indicative of women, having limited opportunities for job advancement, may be more likely to be restricted to entry level or non-managerial jobs than men. Furthermore, 80.6 per cent of ordinary employees were aged from 20 to 39; and reflecting the emphasis on education in Taiwan (see Chapter 1, Section 1.5 and Chapter 4, Section 4.4.4), 37.2 per cent of employees at lest held a first or masters degree.

Empirical results and analysis will be carried out in Section 7.3 to test whether the perceived importance of work-related values would vary with respondents' (non-managerial employees) gender, age, and educational level.

Table 7.2 Personal Information of Respondents

Demographic breakdown	Non managerial employees $N = 180$	100%
Sex		
Male	83	46.1%
Female	97	53.9%
Age		
20-29	70	38.9%
30-39	75	41.7%
40-49	21	11.7%
50-59	14	7.8%
Education		
Junior high or high school	52	28.9%
Junior college	61	33.9%
First or masters degree	67	37.2%

7.3. Empirical Results and Analysis

The previous section sought to provide the general profiles for non-managerial employees who participated in the surveys. This section seeks to present the empirical results through a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), a Duncan test, and the *t*-test, according to the research hypotheses that related to work-related values of national culture (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3).

7.3.1. Value Based Dimensions of National Culture in Taiwan

As is discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3, it is not the aim of this study to replicate Hofstede's work by comparing the work-related values of the matched respondents from different national cultural contexts or different ethnic groups. Rather, this study seeks to examine Hofstede's key value dimensions of national culture, consider their dynamic nature in Taiwan, and establish what (if any) are the implications of work-related values for HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices.

As is indicated in Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.6, Hofstede's most famous cross-cultural study of work-related values was conducted during the 1960s and 1970s and his original findings for Taiwan indicated that the culture of Taiwan tended to exhibit relatively high levels of Collectivism and moderately high ratings on the Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Femininity dimensions. However, the work-related values that Taiwanese people held might have changed during the process of industrialization and might not now be the same as Hofstede found two decades ago. Hence, this study seeks to update Hofstede' index scores for Taiwan on his key cultural dimensions. The weighted formulas designed by Hofstede (1980, 1983) for calculating the scores of Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism versus Collectivism and Masculinity versus Femininity were employed in this research (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6) to test the first hypothesis of the national culture study as stated as follows.

Ho_{10} The value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would be the same as Hofstede previously found.

H_{10} The value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would not be the same as Hofstede previously found.

Note: Ho_{10} represents null hypothesis.
H_{10} represents alternative hypothesis.

Before the hypothesis H_{10} is tested, it is important to discuss how the scores for each value dimension are derived.

7.3.1.1. Power Distance Index (PDI)

Power Distance is "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1991: 28). As is indicated in Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3, the Power Distance Index was composed of the three questions: (1) 'employee afraid: how frequently are non-managerial employees afraid to express disagreement with their superiors' (mean score on a five point Likert scale, "1 = never" and "5 = always"); (2) subordinates' preference for their boss's decision-making style ("manager 1 = autocratic", "manager 2 = paternalist", "manager 3 = consultative", or "manager 4 = democratic"); and (3) subordinates' perception of their boss's actual decision-making style ("manager 1 = autocratic", "manager 2 = paternalist", "manager 3 = consultative", or "manager 4 = democratic"). For this dimension, the weighted formula was designed on the basis of these three questions: PDI = 135 - 25 (mean score employee afraid) + (% perceived manager 1 + 2) - (% preferred manager 3) (Hofstede, 1980, 1983). The purposes of this formula were: (1) to ensure that each of the three questions would carry equal weight in arriving at the final index and (2) to arrive at index values ranging from about 0 for a small Power Distance country to about 100 for a large Power Distance country (Hofstede, 1991: 25).

Table 7.3 Comparison of Work-Related Values for the Taiwanese in Hofstede's (1991) and This Study

Value dimensions	This study	*Hofstede
Power distance	48.54	58
Uncertainty avoidance	68.14	69
Individualism vs. collectivism	68.25	17
Masculinity vs. femininity	71.32	45

Note: *the scores for Hofstede's study are based on the data provided in Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind (Hofstede, 1991).

According to the findings shown in Table 7.3, Taiwan has lower Power Distance Index (48.54) in this study relative to Hofstede's initial analysis (58). This seems to indicate a decline in the expectation and acceptance of power being distributed unequally. However, given such index scores, Taiwan is still located in the moderately high Power Distance dimension as Hofstede previously found.

Table 7.4(a) Type of Leadership Style the Non-Managerial Employees Prefers to Work Under

	Manager 1 (autocratic)	Manager 2 (paternalist)	Manager 3 (consultative)	Manager 4 (democratic)
Non-managerial employees N = 180 100%	9 5%	71 39.4%	54 30%	46 25.6%

Table 7.4(b) Type of Leadership Style the Managers Most Closely Corresponds to

	Manager 1 (autocratic)	Manager 2 (paternalist)	Manager 3 (consultative)	Manager 4 (democratic)
Non-managerial employees N = 180 100%	39 21.7%	53 29.4%	62 34.4%	26 14.4%

Under conditions of a moderately high Power Distance Index score (which means a moderately high level of acceptance of inequality), Taiwanese employees are seldom/sometimes afraid to express disagreement with their superiors in the work environment (see Table 7.5) and generally prefer to work for managers with either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style (see Table 7.4(a)). This means that some Taiwanese employees prefer the manager to make decisions, solve problems, and assign tasks whereas some expect to be consulted by their boss in most decisions.

Moreover, in subordinates' eyes, their current superiors tend to adopt either a consultative or paternalist type of leadership style (see Table 7.4(b)). This means that some Taiwanese managers would consult with their subordinates before they make the decisions whereas some managers make the decisions very quickly without consulting with their subordinates but would give the reasons for the decisions and answer whatever questions that the subordinates might have.

Table 7.5 The Mean Scores of Power Distance and Uncertainty
Avoidance Values

Values	Mean N=180	Standard deviation (SD)
Afraid to express disagreement with superiors	2.53	0.90
Feel nervous or tense at work	2.75	0.85

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=sometimes, 4=frequently,
5=always) was used to indicate how often employees feel afraid or tense
at work.

7.3.1.2. Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)

Uncertainty Avoidance is "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. This feeling is, among other things, expressed through nervous stress and in a need for predictability: a need for written or unwritten rules" (Hofstede, 1991: 113).

This dimension was also composed of the three questions: (1) 'job stress: how often do you feel nervous or tense at work?' (mean score on a five point scale, "1 = never" and "5 = always"); (2) 'rule orientation: a company's rules should not be broken even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest' (mean score on a five point scale, "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree"); (3) employees' intention to stay with the company for a long-term career (the answers ran from "1 = two years at the most" to "4 = until I retire"). The weighted formula for this dimension was developed on the basis of these three

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questions: UAI = 300 - 30 (mean score rule orientation) - (% intending to stay less than 5 years) - 40 (mean stress score) (Hofstede, 1983). The aims of this formula were: (1) to ensure that each of the three questions would contribute equally to the final index and (2) index values would range from around 0 for the country with the weakest Uncertainty Avoidance to around 100 for the strongest (Hofstede, 1991: 113-114).

Even though Hofstede's work was mainly conducted in the 1970s, the Uncertainty Avoidance Index scores for Taiwan have not changed dramatically over time. According to the analysis (see Table 7.3), Taiwan has slightly lower Uncertainty Avoidance Index (68.14) as compared to Hofstede's original results for Taiwan (69). This indicates that Taiwan is still located in the moderately strong Uncertainty Avoidance dimension.

Table 7.6 Years of Stay in the Company

	More than 2 years (1)	2-5 years (2)	More than 5 years (3)	Until retirement (4)
Number of years in the firm N=180 100%	30 16.7%	37 20.6%	53 29.4%	60 33.3%

Taiwanese employees, under a moderately strong Uncertainty Avoidance society, seldom/sometimes feel nervous or tense at work (see Table 7.5). However, when choosing an ideal job, they tend to consider "security of employment" as an important work goal (see Table 7.7, the last item). Since "a desire for long careers in the same business" is one of the characteristics of a strong Uncertainty Avoidance culture, it may not be surprising to see that most of the Taiwanese employees in this study intend to stay longer in the same company, as is illustrated in Table 7.6: 62.7 per cent of responding employees asserted that they would either

intend to work for the same company for more than 5 years or would like to or prefer to remain in the same company until their retirement.

7.3.1.3. Individualism vs. Collectivism Indices

Individualism is "societies where the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family", while Collectivism is "societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1991: 51).

The Individualism versus Collectivism dimension was composed of the six questions: (1) personal time: have sufficient time left for your personal or family life; (2) freedom: have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job; (3) challenge: have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment; (4) training: have training opportunities to improve your skills or learn new skills; (5) physical conditions: have good physical working conditions (e.g., good ventilation and lighting and adequate work space, etc.); and (6) use of skills: full use your skills and abilities on the job. For this dimension, Taiwanese participants were asked to assess how important each of the work goals (the items noted above) are when choosing an ideal job. A five point scale was used with values ranging from "1 = very unimportant" to "5 = very important". The weighted formula for this dimension was: $IND = 50 + 25x$ (x = factor scores) (Hofstede, 1983).

The statistical procedure used to identify the Individualism and Masculinity dimensions on the basis of the 14 work goals produces automatically a factor score

for either dimension for each country. These factor scores seem to be more accurate measure of that country's position on the dimension; and scores were achieved in a range from close to 0 for the most collectivist country to close to 100 for the most individualist one (Hofstede, 1991: 53).

As is shown in Table 7.3, the scores on the Individualism/Collectivism Index derived from this study are higher at 68.25 than Hofstede's results which showed a score of 17. This seems to indicate that there has been a substantial shift in values from Collectivism to Individualism since the 1970s. Such a shift in values is demonstrated by Taiwanese employees who now tend to consider "time for personal or family life", "freedom to adopt you own approach", and "challenging tasks" as important work goals (see Table 7.7).

Table 7.7 The Degree of Importance of Individualism/Collectivism and Masculinity/Femininity Values

Values	Mean N=180	SD
Sufficient time for your personal or family life	3.90	0.79
Freedom to adopt your own approach	4.33	0.73
Challenging tasks	4.17	0.85
Training opportunities	4.00	0.79
Good physical working conditions	4.35	0.74
Use of skills	4.00	0.88
Opportunities for high earnings	3.98	0.81
Get the recognition you deserve	4.36	0.71
Opportunities for advancement	3.92	0.88
Have good relationships with your superior	4.14	0.79
Co-operate with one another	4.38	0.82
Living area	3.92	0.82
Security of employment	4.34	0.86

Note: a 5-point Likert scale was used (1=very unimportant, 5=very important) to indicate the degree of importance of Individualism and Masculinity values.

It should be noted that although Taiwanese employees, in some respects, have become more individualistic in their orientations than was the case two decades ago (see examples above), they still regard "training opportunities", "working conditions", and "good use of skills", the characteristics associated with a Collectivist culture, as important work goals (see Table 7.7).

Furthermore, as is described in Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.3 and 4.4.5, in a society exhibiting high scores on the Collectivism Index, most of the owners regard the family business as their personal property and since they tend to be reluctant to share the ownership with other non-family members (Lau, 1981), key management positions are usually filled by family members or relatives. Consequently, it can be expected that employees who have personal relationship with the owners tend to show loyalty to the family-owned companies but not to non-family organizations (Yeh, 1991). Nevertheless, the results of this research showed that even though Taiwanese non-managerial employees generally consider "loyalty" as an important work value, the degree of perceived importance of loyalty seems to not vary significantly with ownership pattern (see Table 7.9(a)) and company size (see Table 7.9(b)).

7.3.1.4. Masculinity vs. Femininity Indices

Masculinity is defined as "societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (e.g., men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life", while Femininity is the term used to describe "societies in which social gender roles overlap (e.g., both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life)".

The eight questions used for composing the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension were: (1) earnings: have opportunities for high earnings; (2) recognition: get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job; (3) advancement: have opportunities for advancement to higher level jobs; (4) challenge: have challenging work to do - work form which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment; (5) manager: have a good working relationship with your superior; (6) co-operation: work with people who co-operate well with one another; (7) living area: live in an area desirable to you and your family; and (8) employment security: have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to. For this dimension, respondents were asked to assess how important each of the work goals (the items noted above) are when choosing an ideal job (mean score on a five point scale, "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important". The weighted formula for this dimension was listed as: MAS = 50 + 20x (x = factor scores) (Hofstede, 1983). Like the Individualism/Collectivism Index, Masculinity was based on factor scores for each country which were automatically produced by the statistical procedure used (factor analysis). Scores were achieved in a range from about 0 for the most feminine to about 100 for the most masculine country by multiplying the factor scores by 20 and adding 50 (Hofstede, 1991: 83).

As is illustrated in Table 7.3, Taiwan's Masculinity Index score (71.32) is higher than Hofstede's original results (45). This seems to indicate that there has been a significant shift in values from Femininity to Masculinity since the 1970s. According to Hofstede (1991), stereotypically male values such as challenge, competitiveness, individual advancement, profit, etc. are usually appreciated in Masculine countries. Given a high Masculinity Index score in Taiwan, it can be

anticipated that work values associated with Masculinity may also be appreciated and perceived as important by Taiwanese employees. For example, the research results showed that Taiwanese employees now tend to consider "opportunities for high earnings", "get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job", and "opportunities for advancement" as important work goals (see Table 7.7) and regard "self-initiative" and "competitiveness" as important work values (see Table 7.8). However, stereotypically female values such as "have good working relationships with your direct superior", "living in a desirable area", "co-operation", and "caring and nurturing" are also appreciated by Taiwanese employees (see Table 7.7 and Table 7.8). This suggests that employees in Taiwan still have concern for the quality of life and the work environment and place an emphasis on friendliness and personal relationships.

On the whole, the scores obtained in this study indicated that the culture of Taiwan now appears to exhibit moderately high ratings on the Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance dimensions and high levels of Individualism and Masculinity. Therefore, the findings support the alternative hypothesis H$_{10}$ that the value based dimensions of national culture in Taiwan would not be the same as Hofstede found two decades ago.

7.3.2. Traditional Chinese/Confucian Work-Related Values

As is noted in Chapter 4, Section 4,4, Hofstede (1991) indicates that certain values on the long-term orientation pole (e.g., perseverance and thrift) tend to be strongly correlated with East Asian economic growth, at least for the period of 1965-1987. Clegg (1990) also suggests that East Asian economic achievement could be said to be attributable to deep-seated and culturally given social facts and

values (e.g., industry, harmony, loyalty, co-operation, trust, and perseverance, etc.). Since there is arguably a correlation between traditional Chinese work-related values and economic growth, it may be reasonable to assume that these Chinese values may be important in contributing to organizational success (in terms of survival in a dynamic and competitive business environment).

Based upon the issues above, Taiwanese participants were asked to rate the importance of each of the work values listed in Table 7.8, using a five point Likert scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important". The second hypothesis of the national culture study, the null hypothesis (H_{011}) and alternative hypothesis (H_{11}) are stated below.

H_{011} The traditional Chinese/Confucian work-related values, as perceived by HR managers and non-managerial employees, would not be important in contributing to organizational success.

H_{11} The traditional Chinese/Confucian work-related values, as perceived by HR managers and non-managerial employees, would be important in contributing to organizational success.

According to the analysis, both HR managers and ordinary employees, in general, consider "co-operation", "industry", "trust", "harmony", "perseverance", "caring and nurturing", and "loyalty" as important work values that may contribute to organizational success (see Table 7.8). Compared with other Chinese work values, "ordering relationships by status and observing this order (e.g., employer-employee)" is only considered as moderately important. Nonetheless, given the results presented above, it appears that these traditional Chinese values are still appreciated and greatly emphasized by Taiwanese people; and thus the hypothesis

H11 should be accepted. This may be a reflection of a continuing influence from the Chinese culture or Confucian ideology. In addition to the Chinese values, "self-advancement" and "competitiveness" (the work values that are prevalent and/or commonly accepted in the USA and UK) are also perceived by HR managers and ordinary employees as important.

Table 7.8 The Degree of Importance of Confucian and Western
Work-Related Values

Work-related values	Non-managerial employees		HR managers	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Co-operation	4.44	0.85	4.41	0.70
loyalty to superiors	3.89	0.91	4.00	0.79
Industry/working hard	4.17	0.82	4.36	0.71
Harmony with others	4.29	0.86	4.36	0.76
Self-advancement /initiative	4.42	0.77	4.37	0.77
Caring and nurturing	4.14	0.84	4.12	0.79
Competitiveness/aggressiveness	3.98	0.85	4.00	0.88
Persistence/perseverance	4.21	0.89	4.14	0.78
Trust	4.32	0.86	4.33	0.73
Ordering relationships by status	3.70	0.99	3.92	0.82

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unimportant, 5=very important)
was used.

7.3.3. The Effects of Ownership Pattern and Company Size on Work-Related Values

As is indicated in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.4, although culture is an accumulative experience of various individuals who share common values, beliefs, and ideas, this does not suggest that culture may not change over time and sub-cultural distinctions or variations may not exist among different categories of people within the same national cultural, political, and geographical context (e.g., in Taiwan). Not all people in an organization would behave exactly in the same way or hold the same values and attitudes due to differences in occupation,

education level, job position/status, gender, age, organizational size and structure, ownership pattern, and the sector of industry, etc.. Thus, in this research, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the third hypothesis of the national culture study: whether there was any significant effect for ownership pattern and company size with respect to the perceived importance of each of the work-related values. The null hypothesis (H_{012} and H_{013}) and alternative hypothesis (H_{12} and H_{13}) are outlined as follows.

H_{012} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would not vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{12} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

H_{013} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would not vary significantly with company size.

H_{13} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with company size.

As is shown in Table 7.9(a), one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences on mean ownership pattern responses for two of the 26 items. "Working conditions" and "ordering relationships by status" appear to vary with ownership pattern at the 5% significance level. Therefore, the results support the alternative hypothesis H_{12} that the perceived importance of work-related values would vary significantly with ownership pattern.

Furthermore, in order to distinguish mean differences of Taiwanese family-owned, Taiwanese non family-owned, and foreign-owned businesses among those two items yielding significant F-tests, a Duncan multiple comparison test (see Chapter 5, Section 5.6.1) was performed. Take the item "ordering relationships by

status" as an example, the means of foreign-owned companies (group 3) appear to differ significantly from the means of Taiwanese family-owned companies (group 1) (see Table 7.9(a)). This means that employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" to be more important than do employees in foreign-owned companies. Given a moderately high Power Distance Index score, it can be expected that this Confucian value emphasized upon unequal relationship pairs (e.g., superiors and subordinates) may still be prevailing among Taiwanese-owned companies, and that employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies are more likely to expect and accept the power being distributed unequally than are those employees in foreign-owned companies.

Moreover, one-way ANOVA was also used to test whether there was any significant effect for company size with respect to each of the work values. The results showed that three items are significantly different at the 0.05 level and an additional seven items show significant difference at the 0.01 level (see Table 7.9(b)). Thus, the alternative hypothesis H_{13} that 'the perceived importance of work-related values would vary with company size' is accepted.

Table 7.9(b) illustrates that employees in medium and large firms tend to consider "challenging tasks", "time for personal or family life", "job advancement", "initiative", and "competitiveness" to be more important than do employees in small firms. They also consider "co-operation", "harmony", "caring and nurturing", "perseverance", and "trust" to be more important than do employees in small firms.

The Duncan test was performed to determine which mean groups of firm size differ significantly with one another regarding the ten values that yield

significant F-tests. Take the item "challenging tasks" as an example, the means of large and medium-sized firms (group 3 and group 2) appear to differ significantly from the means of small firms (group 1). This indicates that employees in medium and large firms tend to consider "challenging tasks" to be more important than do employees in small firms.

Table 7.9(a) Values that Varied with Ownership Pattern - One-Way Analysis of Variance

Work-related values	Family-owned Mean (1) N=91	Non family-owned Mean (2) N=49	Foreign owned Mean (3) N=40	F ratio	F prob.	Duncan
Fear	2.45	2.67	2.55	0.99	0.37	0
Tense	2.71	2.90	2.65	1.11	0.33	0
Rule	2.62	2.73	2.45	0.63	0.53	0
Time	3.90	3.76	4.08	1.81	0.17	0
Freedom	4.36	4.24	4.35	0.43	0.65	0
Challenging tasks	4.22	4.00	4.28	1.44	0.24	0
Training	4.07	3.94	3.93	0.64	0.53	0
Working conditions	4.48	4.16	4.28	3.30	0.04*	2-1
Use of skills	3.97	4.14	3.90	0.96	0.39	0
High earnings	4.05	3.86	3.95	0.99	0.37	0
Recognition	4.41	4.41	4.18	1.66	0.19	0
Advancement	3.97	3.80	3.95	0.64	0.53	0
Manager	4.12	4.14	4.20	0.14	0.87	0
Cooperate with one another	4.51	4.16	4.38	2.83	0.06	2-1
Living area	3.98	3.90	3.83	0.52	0.60	0
Security of employment	4.41	4.14	4.43	1.77	0.17	0
Co-operation	4.42	4.41	4.55	0.40	0.67	0
loyal to superiors	3.87	3.98	3.83	0.36	0.70	0
Industry	4.22	4.12	4.13	0.31	0.73	0
Harmony	4.32	4.27	4.25	0.11	0.89	0
Initiative/self-advancement	4.42	4.45	4.40	0.05	0.95	0
Caring and nurturing	4.21	4.14	3.98	1.07	0.35	0
Competitiveness	4.02	4.02	3.83	0.83	0.44	0
Perseverance	4.26	4.22	4.05	0.82	0.44	0
Trust	4.34	4.29	4.30	0.07	0.93	0
Ordering relationships	3.84	3.71	3.38	3.11	0.05*	3-1

Note: *represents significant at 0.05 level.

Table 7.9(b) Values that Varied with Company Size - One-Way Analysis of Variance

Work-related values	Small firms Mean (1) N=71	Medium Mean (2) N=46	Large firms Mean (3) N=63	F ratio	F prob.	Duncan
Fear	2.62	2.41	2.52	0.74	0.48	0
Tense	2.80	2.65	2.76	0.45	0.64	0
Rule	2.66	2.52	2.63	0.20	0.82	0
Time	3.77	3.76	4.14	4.76	0.01**	2-3, 1-3
Freedom	4.27	4.37	4.37	0.40	0.67	0
Challenging tasks	3.87	4.35	4.38	7.81	0.01**	1-2, 1-3
Training	3.99	3.98	4.06	0.37	0.69	0
Working conditions	4.25	4.52	4.33	1.86	0.16	0
Use of skills	3.90	4.00	4.11	0.94	0.39	0
High earnings	3.87	4.00	4.08	1.12	0.33	0
Recognition	4.30	4.30	4.46	1.05	0.35	0
Advancement	3.65	4.02	4.14	6.08	0.01**	1-2, 1-3
Manager	4.06	4.17	4.22	0.79	0.46	0
Cooperate with one another	4.18	4.63	4.43	4.46	0.01*	1-2
Living area	3.92	3.83	4.00	0.61	0.55	0
Security of employment	4.23	4.52	4.33	1.67	0.19	0
Co-operation	4.31	4.52	4.54	1.49	0.23	0
loyal to superiors	3.79	4.04	3.89	1.10	0.34	0
Industry	4.10	4.35	4.13	1.45	0.24	0
Harmony	4.08	4.48	4.38	3.62	0.03*	1-3, 1-2
Initiative/self-advancement	4.14	4.65	4.57	8.68	0.01**	1-3, 1-2
Caring and nurturing	3.89	4.33	4.29	5.50	0.01**	1-3, 1-2
Competitiveness	3.76	4.20	4.06	4.28	0.02*	1-3, 1-2
Perseverance	3.99	4.39	4.32	3.79	0.02*	1-3, 1-2
Trust	4.04	4.57	4.44	6.70	0.01**	1-3, 1-2
Ordering relationships	3.61	3.93	3.63	1.78	0.17	0

Note: *represents significant at 0.05 level.
**represents significant at 0.01 level.

In this study, the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was not performed to test the interactive effects of ownership pattern and company size on the overall work values that Taiwanese employees held because the sample in some cells could be expected to be smaller than the number of dependent variables included - in this case, 26 work-related values (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.6).

7.3.4. The Effects of Gender, Age, and Educational Level on Work-Related Values

One-way ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses that whether the perceived importance of each of the work-related values would vary significantly with gender, age, and educational level. The null hypotheses (from H_{014} to H_{016}) and alternative hypotheses (from H_{14} to H_{16}) are stated as follows.

H_{014} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would not vary significantly with gender.

H_{14} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with gender.

H_{015} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would not vary significantly with age.

H_{15} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with age.

H_{016} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would not vary significantly with educational level.

H_{16} Non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with educational level.

The separate effects of gender, age, and educational level on the work-related values that Taiwanese non-managerial employees held are exhibited respectively in Table 7.10(a), Table 7.10(b), and Table 7.10(c).

7.3.4.1. The Effect of Gender

According to the analysis, there are statistically significant effects for gender with respect to four of the 26 items (see Table 7.10(a)). Hence, the findings

support the alternative hypothesis H₁₄ that non-managerial employees' perceptions of the importance of work-related values would vary significantly with gender.

Table 7.10(a) shows that male and female non-managerial employees generally consider "challenging tasks" and "opportunities for advancement" as important work goals and regard "industry/working hard" and "caring and nurturing" as important work values. However, male employees tend to view "challenging tasks" and "opportunity for advancement" to be more important than do female employees. This demonstrates that male employees in Taiwan seem to be more ambitious in their work, to have more desire to succeed and strive for advancement than do female employees. Nevertheless, some of the stereotypically feminine values are also appreciated by Taiwanese male employees. As the Table 7.10(a) shows, male employees tend to consider "industry/working hard" and "caring and nurturing" to be more important than do female employees.

Table 7.10(a) Values that Varied with Gender- Analysis of Variance

Work-related values	Male (1) N=83 Mean	Female (2) N=97 Mean	F-value	Sig.
Challenging tasks	4.33	4.04	5.10	0.03*
Opportunity for advancement	4.08	3.77	5.78	0.01**
Industry/working hard	4.35	4.02	7.49	0.01**
Caring and nurturing	4.30	4.00	5.85	0.02*

Note: *represents significant at 0.05 level.
       **represents significant at 0.01 level.

7.3.4.2. The Effect of Age

The results shown in Table 7.10(b) support the alternative hypothesis H₁₅ that there are significant effects for age with regard to the perceived importance of the 19 work values. Take the Chinese work-related values such as "perseverance" and "co-operation" and western work values such as "opportunities for high

earnings and advancement" as examples. Employees who are aged between 50 to 59 tend to appreciate these Chinese and western values less than the other three age groups of employees. Employees who are aged between 40 to 49 generally consider both Chinese and western value as important. However, those Chinese and western work values tend to be perceived as the most important by employees who are aged between 20-29 and 30-39 when compared with the previous two age groups. The results above seem to indicate that the perceived importance of work-related values may be associated with respondents' age: the older the employees are, the less they are likely to consider both western and Chinese values as important (Note: Sapsford and Jupp (1996) emphasize that it is rarely the case that the groups to be compared are of equal size particularly in survey analysis, e.g., see Table 7.10(b)).

Table 7.10(b) Values that Varied with Age - One-Way Analysis of Variance

Work-related values	20-29 N=70 (1) Mean	30-39 N=75 (2) Mean	40-49 N=21 (3) Mean	50-59 N=14 (4) Mean	F value	Sig.
Fear	2.36	2.55	2.43	3.50	7.03	0.01**
Tense	2.56	2.77	2.86	3.43	4.62	0.01**
Company rule	2.31	2.73	2.71	3.36	3.75	0.01**
Time for personal life	4.09	3.93	3.57	3.29	5.77	0.01**
Working conditions	4.41	4.40	4.48	3.57	6.08	0.01**
Challenging tasks	4.27	4.29	4.05	3.21	7.65	0.01**
Security of employment	4.51	4.32	4.52	3.29	9.49	0.01**
Higher earnings	4.14	4.08	3.81	2.86	12.88	0.01**
Opportunity for advancement	4.10	4.01	3.67	2.86	10.01	0.01**
Co-operation	4.50	4.45	4.38	3.43	7.76	0.01**
Loyalty	3.81	4.13	3.81	3.07	6.31	0.01**
Industry/working hard	4.24	4.23	4.38	3.21	7.98	0.01**
harmonious with others	4.49	4.35	4.05	3.36	8.36	0.01**
Initiative/self-advancement	4.51	4.52	4.48	3.36	11.42	0.01**
Caring and nurturing	4.19	4.27	4.14	3.21	6.86	0.01**
Competitiveness	4.03	4.09	4.05	3.00	7.47	0.01**
Persistence/perseverance	4.34	4.28	4.19	3.14	8.31	0.01**
Trust	4.56	4.27	4.29	3.43	7.76	0.01**
Ordering relationships	3.66	3.84	3.95	2.79	5.40	0.01**

Note: **represents significant at 0.01 level.

7.3.4.3. The Effect of Educational Level

Table 7.10(c) shows that there are significant differences in six work-related values between individuals on educational level, thus the alternative hypothesis H_{16} could be accepted. According to the analysis, these six work values are generally considered as important by non-managerial employees who graduated from high schools, junior colleges, and universities (see Table 7.10(c)). However, employees who received diploma (junior colleges) or first/masters degree tend to see "security of employment", "co-operation", "loyalty", and "industry/working hard" to be less important than do employees who were graduated from high school or vocational high school. This seems to indicate that the perceived importance of Chinese work-related values may be associated with respondents' educational attainment. People who have received higher education in Taiwan or have absorbed western values and management (e.g., HRM) may be more likely to de-emphasize some of the traditional Chinese work values. However, this finding may warrant further investigation.

Table 7.10(c) Values that Varied with Education Level - One-Way Analysis of Variance

Work-related values	High school Mean (1) N=52	Junior college Mean (2) N=61	First degree Mean (3) N=67	F value	Sig.
Fear	2.23	2.49	2.81	6.46	0.01**
Working conditions	4.60	4.39	4.12	6.56	0.01**
Security of employment	4.60	4.48	4.01	8.51	0.01**
Co-operation	4.69	4.34	4.34	3.21	0.04*
loyal to superiors	4.19	3.90	3.64	5.66	0.01**
Industry/working hard	4.50	4.21	3.88	9.31	0.01**

Note: *represents significant at 0.05 level.
**represents significant at 0.01 level.

7.3.5. Different Perceptions of the Importance of Work-Related Values

Both Taiwanese HR managers and non-managerial employees were asked to rate the importance of the work-related values as shown in Table 7.11. A five point scale where "1 = very unimportant" and "5 = very important" was used in this study to indicate the importance level. The t-test was used to determine whether HR managers and non-managerial employees have different perceptions of the importance of work values. The null hypothesis (H_{017}) and alternative hypothesis (H_{17}) are outlined below.

H_{017} HR managers and non-managerial employees would not differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of work-related values.

H_{17} HR managers and non-managerial employees would differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of work-related values.

Table 7.11 shows that there are significant differences between HR managers and ordinary employees in their perceptions of the importance of three work-related values - "royalty" ($p = 0.01$), "trust" ($p = 0.02$), and "ordering relationships by status" ($p = 0.00$). Hence, the alternative hypothesis H_{17} is accepted.

The results demonstrated that HR managers tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" (e.g., employer and employee) to be more important than do ordinary employees. This Confucian value emphasized upon unequal relationship pairs may be associated with job position. Given a moderately high Power Distance Index score, Taiwanese HR managers may consider themselves and subordinates as existentially unequal.

Hence, special privileges and status symbols may tend to be more appreciated by HR managers. Moreover, there are significant differences between HR managers and ordinary employees in their perceptions of "loyalty" and "trust": HR managers tend to view "loyalty" and "trust" to be more important than do ordinary employees. This, again, implies that the degree of importance attached to loyalty and trust may be associated with job position.

Table 7.11 Different Perceptions of the Importance of Work-Related Values

Work-related values	HR managers		Ordinary employees		The *t*-test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	*P*-value
Co-operation	4.41	0.70	4.44	0.85	0.34
loyalty to superiors	4.00	0.79	3.89	0.91	0.01**
Industry/working hard	4.36	0.71	4.17	0.82	0.53
Harmony with others	4.36	0.76	4.29	0.86	0.24
Self-advancement/initiative	4.37	0.77	4.42	0.77	0.93
Caring and nurturing	4.12	0.79	4.14	0.84	0.28
Competitiveness/aggressiveness	4.00	0.88	3.98	0.85	0.63
Persistence/perseverance	4.14	0.78	4.21	0.89	0.08
Trust	4.33	0.73	4.32	0.86	0.02*
Ordering relationships by status	3.92	0.82	3.70	0.99	0.01**

Note: a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unimportant, 2=unimportant, 3=neutral,
        4=important, 5=very important) was used
        *represents significant at 0.05 level.
        **represents significant at 0.01 level.

7.4. Discussion of the Major Findings

The major findings reported in the earlier section of this chapter are highlighted and discussed in this section.

7.4.1. Power Distance and Leadership Style

The research results showed a moderately high score on the Power Distance dimension. Most of the Taiwanese non-managerial employees (69 per cent) indicated that they would prefer to work for managers with either a

paternalist or consultative type of leadership style. Some Taiwanese non-managerial employees prefer managers to make major decisions, assign tasks, and solve problems for them, whereas others expect and/or prefer to be consulted by their superiors in most decisions.

From the subordinates' perspective, about 64 per cent of their current superiors tend to adopt either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style and there would therefore appear to be considerable consistency between the style that employees preferred and the approach that they say their current superiors adopt. Given the moderately high Power Distance Index scores, it may not be surprising to see that some Taiwanese managers would make the decisions very quickly without consulting with their subordinates while some would consult with their subordinates before they make the decisions.

7.4.2. Uncertainty Avoidance and Security of Employment

The empirical results showed a moderately high Uncertainty Avoidance Index score and since this indicates a moderate desire to avoid uncertainty, one could expect that most of the Taiwanese non-managerial employees would stay longer in the same business. As the results have demonstrated, 63 per cent of employees asserted that they would either intend to work for the same company for more than 5 years or would like to or prefer to remain in the same company until their retirement. When choosing an ideal job, Taiwanese employees generally consider "security of employment" as an important work goal. While this is probably consistent with Confucian traditions, it is also possible that it is a reflection of Taiwan's economic slow-down in recent years (see Chapter 1, Section 1.3).

7.4.3. Individualism vs. Collectivism and Femininity vs. Masculinity

The research results showed that the culture of Taiwan now exhibits high levels of Individualism and Masculinity. Compared with Hofstede's original findings for Taiwan, it appears that there has been a significant shift in these two value dimensions - from Collectivism to Individualism and from Femininity to Masculinity.

Such a shift in values can be seen from the research evidence. Taiwanese non-managerial employees of the responding firms consider "get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job", "have sufficient time for your personal or family life", "freedom to adopt your own approach", "challenging tasks", "opportunities for high earnings", and "opportunities for job advancement" as important work goals. "Self-advancement/initiative" and "competitiveness" have also been considered as important work values that may contribute to organizational success (in terms of survival in a competitive and dynamic business environment). The findings above imply that Taiwanese employees in some respects have become more individualistic and masculine in their orientations than was the case two decades ago.

Nevertheless, the evidence also showed that the characteristics which are associated with Collectivism and Femininity are still appreciated by Taiwanese employees. For example, they still regard "have good working conditions", "have good relationships with your superior", "live in a desirable area" as important. This suggests that employees still have concern for the quality of life and the work environment and place an emphasis on friendliness and personal relationships.

Since all the work-related values that are associated with Individualism-Collectivism and Masculinity-Femininity are generally perceived by Taiwanese

employees as important, one can infer that these values can be co-existent or mutually compatible with one another in the work environment. As Tayeb points out, people may live in a collectivist society but still demonstrate individual work-related values (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3). After all, "...no culture exists exclusively at one end of the scale...." (Hall, 1981/1976: 91) (see Chapter 4, Section 4.5.2).

However, a closer examination of the degree of perceived importance of these values indicates that Taiwanese employees tend to place more emphasis on the work values (e.g., self-actualization) that are commonly accepted and prevalent in Individualist and Masculine cultures like the USA, Great Britain, and Australia, etc.. There are a range of possible explanations for such apparent cultural change:

1. the process of modernization in Taiwan;

2. the influences of foreign direct investment (FDI) from e.g., the USA and/or Europe;

3. domestic organization's engagement in joint ventures with foreign multinational companies;

4. the prevailing western management theories, practices, and techniques (e.g., HRM), many of which have been applied and adopted by the local and foreign-owned companies and are taught in universities and colleges in Taiwan;

5. the prevalence of western media in Taiwan;

6. the academic exchange activities (including exchange students) arranged by universities and colleges in Taiwan and in the USA and/or in the UK;

7. the opportunities of travelling and receiving further education abroad, particularly in the West.

8. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) in their model of "clustering countries on attitudinal dimensions" suggest or hypothesize that as countries become wealthier, there may be a tendency for a convergence of culture. The high Masculinity Index scores uncovered by this research may indicate trends in Taiwan consistent with Ronen and Shenkar's hypothesis. Taiwan has become wealthier (see Chapter 1) and now employees demonstrate scores on the Masculinity dimension which are much closer to those Hofstede found in countries such as Japan, UK, USA, and France, etc..

The points outlined above may be the possible explanations for Taiwanese employees' growing awareness of the western values and for the cultural change in Taiwan (in terms of individuals' work-related values). The current study has not examined these points, yet further research could usefully examine some of them and interrelationships between them and work-related values. A further investigation may enable the research to determine whether there is a relationship between the current external environmental contexts of Taiwan and the change of work-related values of Taiwanese people (or whether the external contextual factors have any significant influences upon individuals' work-related values). This may also facilitate an understanding of similar development in other countries and thus help to develop a predictive model and identify what are the most possible factors that cause cultural change.

7.4.4. The Effects of Ownership Pattern, Size, Gender, Age, and Educational Level on Work-Related Values

The research results showed that some of the perceived importance of work-related values vary significantly with company size and ownership pattern,

and gender, age, and educational level. In other words, Taiwanese employees do hold the work-related values differently according to these organizational and demographic variables.

For example, Taiwanese non-managerial employees in large and medium-sized firms tend to consider "challenging tasks", "time for personal or family life", "initiative", "competitiveness", "co-operation", "harmony", "caring and nurturing", "perseverance", and "trust" to be more important than do employees in small firms. Employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" to be more important than do employees in foreign-owned companies. It perhaps is to be expected that this Confucian value emphasized upon unequal relationship pairs (e.g., superiors and subordinates) may still be prevailing among Taiwanese-owned companies, and that employees in Taiwanese family-owned and non family-owned companies may be more likely to expect and accept the power being distributed unequally than those employees in foreign-owned companies.

The results also showed that male employees in Taiwan tend to view "challenging tasks", "opportunity for advancement", "industry", and "caring and nurturing" to be more important than do female employees. This seems to suggest that male employees are more ambitious in their work, have more desire to succeed and strive for advancement as compared with female employees, even though at the same time they still appreciate the importance of work values that are associated with the characteristics of Femininity more than female employees.

Furthermore, a closer examination of the 'age' variable among Taiwanese non-managerial employees suggests that the older the employees are, the less they

consider both western and Chinese values as important. Take the Chinese work values, "perseverance" and "co-operation", and western work values, "opportunities for higher earnings and advancement", as examples. Employees who are aged between 50 to 59 tend to appreciate these Chinese and western values less as compared with the other three age groups of employees. This may be due to the fact that this group of employees is approaching the stage of retirement and thus is less concerned with the importance of the work values.

Employees who are aged between 40 to 49 generally consider both Chinese and western values as important. However, those Chinese and western work values tend to be perceived as the most important by employees who are aged between 20-29 and 30-39 when compared with the previous two age groups. This may be due to the fact that these employees who are aged from 20 to 39 are just at the threshold of their long career life with lots of potential to offer and hence may be more ambitious in their work and more concerned with high earnings and advancement/promotion while at the same time still possess the traditional Chinese work-related values (e.g., perseverance and co-operation) and carry them into the workplace.

In addition, employees who received diploma (junior colleges) or first/masters degree tend to see "security of employment", "co-operation", "loyalty", and "industry" to be less important than do employees who were graduated from high school or vocational high school. This seems to imply that people who have received higher education in Taiwan or have absorbed western values and management (e.g., HRM or motivation theory) are more likely to de-emphasize these Chinese work values (although these values, on average, are still

considered by these employees as important). However, the findings may warrant further investigation.

7.4.5. Traditional Chinese/Confucian Work-Related Values

The research results showed that both Taiwanese non-managerial employees and HR managers/specialists generally appreciate the importance of "harmonious" and "co-operative" working relationships with other people in their organizations and regard "industry", "loyalty", "caring and nurturing", "trust", and "perseverance" as important work values that may contribute to organizational success. This may be a reflection of a continuing influence from the traditional Chinese culture or Confucian ideology. It appears that these traditional Chinese work-related values are still emphasized by Taiwanese people. This may be due to the fact that these values are so deeply rooted in them (in this case, HR managers and ordinary employees) as part of their distinctive cultural identity that these values are not likely to be totally diminished no matter what types and forms of organization that they choose to work for (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.3).

7.4.6. Different Perceptions of the Importance of Work-Related Values

In addition to company size and ownership pattern, and gender, age, and educational level, job position also has some influences on the perceived importance of work-related values. The research results showed that HR managers and non-managerial employees have different perceptions of the importance of work values.

For example, HR managers tend to consider the Confucian value "ordering relationships by status and observing this order" (e.g., employer and employee) to

be more important than do ordinary employees. This suggests that the Confucian value emphasized on unequal relationship pairs may be associated with job position. Given the moderately high Power Distance Index scores, it seems likely that Taiwanese HR managers may consider themselves and subordinates as existentially unequal and thus may tend to more appreciate special privileges and status symbols than do ordinary employees.

In conclusion, since the work-related values that are associated with Individualism-Collectivism, Femininity-Masculinity, and Confucian Dynamism are generally perceived as important by Taiwanese non-managerial employees of the survey firms, it may be important for both local and expatriate HR managers/specialists to be aware of these values so that they could design forms and systems of work and develop a set of HRM policies and practices which could be consistent with or could meet the wishes and values of their current employees. In Chapter 9, some potentially important implications of the national culture survey findings for leadership style, HRM, recruitment and selection policies and practices, as well as motivation and job design in Taiwan will be established. Limitations of the study and directions for future research will be outlined.

Chapter 8   Conclusions (1)

8.0.   Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first two sections draw some appropriate conclusions with respect to the implications of this research and in particular the findings reported in the preceding chapters for both the theory of HRM and HRM polices and practices in Taiwan. These findings and conclusions enable the development of a revised framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan, which is presented in the second section of this chapter. The final section outlines limitations of the current study and identifies some of the areas in which further research is required.

8.1.   Implications for HRM Practice

8.1.1. Contributions of Personnel/HR Managers to the Organizations

The research results showed that around 73 per cent of the responding firms in Taiwan have a Personnel/HR management department/manager to deal with Personnel functions. However, only 33 per cent of the responding firms have a written HRM policy, with 59 per cent of companies claiming to have an unwritten HRM policy or have no HRM policy at all. The implication of the findings for practice is that Personnel/HR managers who would like to make positive contributions to their organizational performance could help to formulate *written* HR policies and practices, according to their firms' overall organizational objectives and business plans.

However, in some cases, for example, in smaller firms, there may not be much of a need for formalized and detailed HRM policies due to the simple nature

of tasks and limited organizational functions. But in large companies, there usually involves high structuring of organizational activities and complex tasks. In order to ensure the proper accomplishment of tasks, it may be important to establish formal rules and procedures, as well as explicit HRM policies and practices, so that they can be communicated to employees at all levels and followed by them.

8.1.2. The Proactive and Strategic Role of HR Managers

As the research evidence has shown, HR managers of the responding firms felt that it is important to have HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy, and that it is important to fully integrate HRM policy with corporate strategy. If HR managers in these responding firms would like to pursue and achieve 'strategic integration', they may need to play a proactive role by being members of the senior management team and by participating in the development of corporate/business strategy. It has been suggested that, only by being involved at this stage, HR managers would be in a much better position to develop an effective HR strategy which could integrate with the business strategy and to institute coherent and consistent HRM policies which could directly support the achievement of strategic goals (Armstrong, 1992).

8.1.3. Recruitment Practices

The research results showed that internal recruitment methods such as "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" are commonly used by the responding firms in Taiwan. The implication for practice is that the good use of the internal recruitment methods may not only motivate current Taiwanese employees to perform better and increase their commitment toward the

organization, but may also improve their job security through upward or lateral career opportunities (potentially desired HRM outcomes). Using internal personnel sources effectively may also allow management to observe and assess the abilities of employees accurately given the accrued knowledge gathered over the employment relationship (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.1).

Moreover, when using "employee transfers" and "job rotations", Personnel/HR managers in Taiwan should be aware of the strengths and limitations of these methods. On the one hand, both types of internal recruitment may provide current employees with opportunities to experience different aspects of organizational life; and employees may be more widely skilled. On the other hand, the organization's use of these methods to pursue functional flexibility (e.g., for cost reasons) may reduce its employees' competence levels because they are likely to have less opportunities to develop specialized knowledge of the work process over time (Legge, 1989, 1995). In this situation, the current employees may become generalists rather than specialists (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.2).

Furthermore, the use of "employee transfers" and "job rotations" may also influence employees' commitment to the job and to the organization because they may have to adapt to the new working conditions and atmosphere and try to get on with different types of people who they work with, and some of the current employees may not like the ideas of being mobile between departments and/or organizations (see Chapter 2, Section 2.7). Therefore, selecting the right people who can take up the challenges and possess the right attitudes, behaviour, and motivation may become a very important task to Personnel/HR managers.

Although the findings showed that "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" (the external recruitment methods) have not yet been commonly used in Taiwan, a small number of the responding firms (including local, Japanese-owned, and western-owned) are turning to such firms to look for potential candidates with specialist knowledge, technical, or managerial skills for the most senior posts. As an HR manager/specialist, it may be important to bear in mind that using a search firm to recruit a senior executive or a manager with rare technical skills should be considered as important as planning the career development of a company's existing high-potential managers and should be handled with the same careful planning and attention to detail (Adshead, 1990). Appointing an executive search firm may not necessarily relieve the HR manager of responsibility for the success of the recruitment project. While the search firm is assisting with recruitment, the HR manager may need to retain responsibility and accountability for the overall success of the service. This means that he or she should be able to act as the in-company project manager monitoring and guiding the work of the consultant at every stage of the assignment. The combination of a well-connected and professional search consultant working closely with an involved and fully accountable company HR manager may minimize the risk of failure and achieve the desired results (Adshead, 1990).

Moreover, in the work environment reflecting the cultural characteristics of Individualism and Masculinity as identified in the research, it seems likely that there may be an increase in the use of "recruitment consultants" and "executive search consultants" in the future, even though these recruitment methods have not yet been used widely by the survey firms at present.

8.1.4. Selection Practices

Among the selection techniques, the research evidence showed that "application forms", "knowledge or skill tests", and "one-to-one and panel interviews" appear to be used most frequently by the survey firms in Taiwan. "Psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" seem to be used least. This may be because such western-oriented selection instruments are still new to local Taiwanese firms and hence may not be used as widely in Taiwan as in the USA and/or in Europe. It should be noted that although the use of a psychological or psychometric test may have a positive effect on an organizational effectiveness (e.g., reduce employee turnover rates), this technique can be quite costly if the organization (e.g., small firm) does not have trained and qualified staff and require the help of professional psychologists from outside of the firm to administer and interpret the test results.

Further, in the work environment reflecting the cultural characteristics of Individualism and Masculinity as identified in the research, it seems likely that there may be an increase in the use of "psychometric tests" and "assessment centres" in the future, even though these selection techniques have not yet been used commonly by the survey firms at present.

Personnel/HR managers should recognize that the types of selection technique they utilized to select the right employees for the jobs are critical to their firms' success. Because the misuse of any kinds of instrument may be costly to the organization and may also consequently be demoralizing to the employee who may find himself or herself in the wrong job and de-motivating to the rest of the workforce (undesired HRM outcomes) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.10). Moreover, when making the final hiring or selection decisions, HR managers/specialists in

Taiwan should look for potential candidates whose qualifications, characteristics, and work-related values and attitudes most closely conform to the requirements of the open positions and who can fit well with the organization's current needs and culture, and can effectively carry out required tasks and collaborate well with other colleagues.

On the whole, HR managers/specialists need to ensure that the type of recruitment and selection practices they adopted is coherent and consistent with their firms' business strategies and with other associated functions of HRM such as HR planning, training and development, pay and benefits, etc.. In other words, recruitment and selection need to be considered as an integrated process rather than a marginal, *ad hoc* activity. Since recruitment and selection are the first stages of a dialogue between applicants and the organization that form the employment relationship, HR managers/specialists in Taiwan may need to realize the importance of the formation of expectations during the recruitment and selection processes. If they fail to do so, it may result in the loss of high quality applicants and set the initial level of the employment relationship at such a low level as to make the achievement of potentially desired HRM outcomes (e.g., increasing employee performance and commitment, etc.) most difficult (Gold, 1994).

8.2. Implications for HRM Theory

8.2.1. Strategic Approach to HRM

The results of the present survey showed that HR managers of the responding firms in Taiwan generally felt that it is important to have HR managers on the board participating in the development of corporate strategy and that it is important to fully integrate the HRM policy with the corporate strategy. As is

indicated in Chapter 2, Sections 2.4 and 2.6, at the conceptual or theoretical level, HRM tends to be seen as a strategic approach because it focuses on the importance of 'strategic integration (or fit)', where HR polices and practices are closely linked to the strategic objectives of the firms (external integration/fit) and are coherent and consistent among themselves (internal integration/fit) (Guest, 1989; Brewster and Bournois, 1991; Storey, 1992; Armstrong, 1992; Legge, 1989, 1995).

According to Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988), the integration of HRM with business strategy has four advantages: (1) it provides a broader range of solutions for solving complex organizational problems; (2) it ensures that human, financial, and technological resources are given consideration in setting goals and assessing implementation capabilities; (3) organizations explicitly consider the individuals who comprise them and who implement polices; and it ensures that human resource considerations contribute to, rather than are subordinate to, strategic decisions. In response of Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall's last point, Legge (1995) also makes a similar comment that HRM policies should not passively integrated with business strategy, in the sense of flowing from it, but should be seen as an integral part of strategy, in the sense that they underlie and facilitate the pursuit of a desired strategy.

This however seems to stand in opposition to the view generally held by a group of researchers that HRM should in some sense 'follow' corporate or business strategy (Devenna, et al., 1982, 1984; Ackermann, 1986; Miller, 1987). For example, as Devenna et al. note, "...human resource management has been largely missing from the general strategic management process...the critical managerial task is to align the formal structure and the HR systems so that they drive the strategic objectives of the organization" (1982: 47) (see the matching

model in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.4). Purcell and Ahlstrand (1994) also argue that HRM policies are not developed and implemented independently of corporate strategy. Rather, they constitute 'third-order' decisions that follow from decisions on strategy (first-order) and structure (second-order), and should be closely linked to them. This implies that HRM is the dependent variable and the corporate strategy the independent variable in this relationship. The underlying assumption of this view is that HRM in some sense becomes strategic only when it follows closely the corporate strategy.

However, in the context of the present findings and as far as 'strategic integration' is concerned, it would appear that HR managers of the responding firms in Taiwan would prefer or desire a tight fit between HRM policy and corporate strategy, although this research is not able to produce empirical evidence on the extent to which strategic integration taken place.

Another point which should be noted here again is the problematic nature of strategic integration (Armstrong, 1992; Miller, 1987; Kamoche, 1991; Hyman, 1987; Legge, 1989, 1995; see Chapter 2, Section 2.7.1). As Brewster (1994) perceptively points out, theoretically it seems likely that a closely integrated, strategic approach to HRM would involve almost all the specific HRM policies and practices and thus drive all aspects of the way human resources are managed. However, it seems equally possible that in reality the close integration of HRM with corporate strategy could lead to a strong emphasis on cost-reduction, eliminating all 'people frills' (such as training or employee benefits) and making extensive use of outsourcing. This contradiction is best illustrated by the examples of IBM and Hewlett Packard. As is indicated in Chapter 2, Section 2.7.1, these two multinational companies were famous for adopting the soft HRM models with

a range of practices including lifetime employment. However, the response to their deteriorating market position at the time was extensive redundancies, the need for achieving a lower headcount. On the whole, the implication of this argument is that researchers should identify and address the problematic nature of strategic integration when they conceptually or practically seek to integrate HRM with corporate strategy.

8.2.2. Responsibilities of Line Management

In the majority of the areas of HR activity included in the survey, HR managers indicated that they shared responsibility with line management rather than having sole responsibility. The area in which they seem to have the greater incidence of sole responsibility being "health and safety". Line involvement seems to be stronger in the areas of "recruitment and selection", "training and development", and "workforce expansion/reduction". Line managers also appear to have a particularly significant role in "final hiring decisions". The findings to some extent appear to be consistent with the point made by Armstrong (1992) who emphasizes that the performance and delivery of HRM is a management responsibility, shared among line (operational) managers and those responsible for running service or staff (related) functions (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2).

The decentralization of responsibilities to the line has also been viewed by a group of researchers (Krulis-Randa, 1990; Sisson, 1990; Kirkpatrick et al., 1992; Armstrong, 1992; Legge, 1989, 1995) as one of the key characteristics of HRM that differs from conventional personnel management (see Chapter 2, Sections 2.3 and 2.4). Given the research results presented earlier, it could be argued that line managers in the survey firms indeed have some substantial responsibilities for HR

issues, particularly in the areas of recruitment and selection, training and development, and workforce expansion/reduction.

8.2.3. Developing a Framework for Examining HRM in Organizations in Taiwan

These implications for HRM theory and practice and the findings concerning culture reported in Chapter 7 enable the development of a revised framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan. As is shown in Figure 8, this framework has a number of significant features, which are highlighted in the following paragraphs.

The first feature is that this framework is partially based on empirical evidence; and most of the models of HRM examined in Chapter 2, Section 2.6 were not. The second feature is that, at the macro-level outer context, Figure 8 takes into account the current external environmental contexts of organizations in Taiwan (see Chapter 1). The third distinctive feature of Figure 8 is that, unlike the Harvard model, Guest model, the matching model, and the European model, the framework in Figure 8 incorporates the composition of the workforce (gender, age, and educational level of non-managerial employees) as part of the micro-level inner context. The research results indicated that gender, age, and educational level are the factors that influence attitudes on the part of employees, besides firm size and ownership pattern (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.4).

The fourth feature, perhaps the most striking one, is that unlike any models of HRM exhibited in Chapter 2, Section 2.6, Figure 8 encompasses the work-related values of Taiwanese non-managerial employees as part of the internal environment, for example, employees' attitudes towards leadership style

(paternalist or consultative), security, challenge, recognition, and earnings, as well as their attitudes towards traditional Chinese/Confucian work values such as harmony, industry, and perseverance, etc.. This framework acknowledges that the values and wishes expressed by the current employees in this survey may have some important influences and/or constraints upon an organization's HRM policies and practices and may also have some potentially important implications for recruitment and selection practices. For example, employees' emphasis on "security of employment", "job advancement", "high earnings", "challenging tasks", "full use of skills and abilities", and "job recognition" imply that the organizations' focus on the internal labour market and the effective use of "promotion-from-within", "transfers", and "job rotations" (the in-group recruitment practices) and "performance" and "competence" based promotion may be able to fulfil the wishes and values of their current employees. Moreover, given the findings of this research which emphasize the importance of Chinese/Confucian work-related values such as harmony, industry, co-operation, perseverance, etc., the implication may be that the traits, attributes, and work-related values of potential employees should be taken into consideration in selection/hiring decisions. Although the Harvard model also includes employees as stakeholders, it does not seem to take their work values and attitudes into consideration.

The fifth feature of Figure 8 is that, given the combination of the moderately high scores on the Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance dimensions, an appropriate organizational structure for firms in Taiwan would appear to be the 'pyramid of people'. This implicit form of organization, as Hofstede points out, illustrates a moderately centralized decision-making,

moderately high degree of acceptance of inequality and hierarchy with a desire for order, security, rules and regulations, and expert advice (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.5). In addition, the 'family' form is also common among organizations in Taiwan because the empirical evidence showed that most of the responding firms are family-owned businesses and are small to medium in size (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2). Other previous studies (Whitley, 1990; Hwang, 1990; Chen, 1995) also showed that the authoritarian or paternalist type of leadership style tends to be adopted most by the owners or managers of family firms. In smaller companies, there usually lacks of formal rules and procedures and impersonal written communications due to the simple nature of tasks or limited organizational functions (see Chapter 1, Section 1.7). This, in some respect, may be consistent with organizations' 'high context culture' as Hall and Hall (1990, 1995) suggest; and this form of organization may be more consistent with Hofstede's 'family' model (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.5).

It should be noted that although the current dominant ownership pattern is of the Taiwanese family, there is some evidence of variation in recruitment and selection practices with foreign ownership, e.g., the Japanese firms' more frequent hiring of graduates directly from universities/colleges in Taiwan and therefore some evidence of an ethnocentric approach.

As far as the organization is concerned and given the present findings that emphasize strategic integration, a range of HRM policies/activities outlined in Figure 8 are placed closely with corporate strategy. These HRM policies/activities were identified on the basis of the current findings. Like the Harvard model, Guest model, the European model, and Hendry and Pettigrew's model, Figure 8 also incorporates the assumption that HRM policies/activities should be designed to

achieve certain desired HR and organizational outcomes. Except 'strategic integration', the present study is not able to specify what these desirable outcomes are because of the lack of empirical evidence. However, this could be pursued in future research.

External Environment
Economy (high growth), Labour Market (low unemployment and high quality labour supply), Foreign Direct Investment, Education and Training Systems (vocational/occupational oriented), National Culture (Confucianism and family-based culture), Western Management Theories, Practices, and Techniques (e.g., HRM, motivation theory), Technology, Law and Regulations (labour standards law and equal opportunity legislation, etc.)

Organization

Corporate Strategy	HRM Policies/Activities	Desired HR and
	HR Planning	Organizational
	Recruitment and Selection	Outcomes
	Training and Development	
	Pay and Benefits	
	Health and Safety	
	Industrial Relations	

Internal Environment
Sector of Industry (manufacturing), Organization Form (pyramid of people and/or family) and Structure (moderately centralized decision-making, moderately high degree of acceptance of inequality and hierarchy), Organization's high Context Culture, Leadership Style (paternalist or consultative), Employee Values and Preferences (attitudes towards management style, security, challenge, recognition, and earning, and attitudes towards traditional Chinese/Confucian values, e.g., industry, perseverance, harmony, etc.), Company Size (small, medium, and large), Ownership Pattern (family-owned businesses), Composition of the Workforce (gender, age, and educational level)

Figure 8 A framework for examining HRM in organizations in Taiwan

The last feature which is worth mentioning is that Figure 8 provides a dual-way feedback loop to each and between the components. "↔" indicates a

continuously interactive flow of communications, planning, adjustments, and/or evaluations. This dual-way feedback loop seems to be neglected in those models of HRM examined in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.

As is indicated in Chapter 1, Section 1.6, a number of relevant studies on HRM practices among employing organizations in Taiwan have been conducted by a group of researchers (Yeh, 1991; Chu, 1990; He, 1993; Chin, 1993; Kao, 1993; Hsu, 1993; Tsai, 1995; Huang, 1997; Lin, 1997). However, none of these Taiwanese researchers who carried out the research have actually developed an analytical framework of HRM to facilitate our understanding of the concept of HRM in the Taiwan context. They seem to have adopted the western models of HRM without critical evaluation of their suitability or transferability. The framework in Figure 8, the contribution of the study, could form a base for a more comprehensive study of HRM in Taiwan and for further international and comparative studies.

8.3. Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

The limitations stated below could provide directions for future research.

1. As the research results have shown, HR managers/specialists in the responding firms generally felt that it is important to have Personnel/HR representation on the board participating in the development of corporate/business strategy, and that it is important to fully integrate HRM policies with corporate strategy. Future research would be to develop more specific, complex, and in-depth questions regarding whether those Personnel/HR managers who do have a place on the board are actually involved in the development of corporate strategy from the outset, at a consultative or implementation stage, or not consulted at all and

whether the 'strategic fit' or 'strategic integration' is actually obtainable between those business strategies and those relating to HRM issues. This may require longitudinal research through the combinations of case study, personal interview, questionnaire survey, and document study.

2. As indicated earlier, due to the limitations of data, the current study is not able to specify what desirable HR and organizational outcomes are except 'strategic integration' and therefore may require further investigation. Areas such as the relationships between HRM policies and practices and desired HR and organizational outcomes could also be examined in future research.

3. In addition to ownership pattern and company size, other contingent (organizational) variables such as organizational culture and structure, Personnel/HR management policies, and types of business or activity, etc. may probably have some significant effects upon the policies and practices actually pursued by organizations. These areas may be worthy of further exploration and discussion.

4. The framework of HRM and the models of recruitment and selection proposed in this study may require further examination to see if they could actually be adopted by manufacturing organizations in Taiwan.

5. The current study was centred on in-depth single industry analysis (manufacturing). Therefore, the findings should not be generalized to outside the manufacturing sector covered in this research. However, future study of HRM policies and practices could be extended to cross-industry comparisons (e.g., public vs. private sectors or manufacturing vs. service sectors).

6. As is noted in Chapter 6, Section 6.3.11, areas such as flexible working practices (e.g., part-time work, job sharing, flexible working hours, etc.) that

may facilitate recruitment efforts and the recruitment of older people, women, and disable people, etc. for employment, although not discussed in depth in this research, may well be worth further exploring.

Chapter 9   Conclusions (2)

9.0. Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section discusses the implications of the survey findings for leadership style, motivation, job design, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices. The second section outlines the limitations of the study and proposes avenues for future research.

9.1. Implications of the Work-Related Values for HRM Practices

As is indicated in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1, the index scores obtained in this study showed that the culture of Taiwan now demonstrates moderately high ratings on the Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance and high ratings on the Individualism and Masculinity dimensions. This combination of scores has a number of potentially important implications for motivation, job design, leadership style, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices, which are discussed in the following.

9.1.1. Power Distance

Hofstede suggests that the Power Distance dimension has implications for leadership style (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3). Given a moderately high Power Distance Index score in Taiwan, it could be expected that most of the non-managerial employees would prefer to work for managers with either a paternalist or consultative type of leadership style. The results also showed that, in subordinates' eyes, most of their current superiors tend to adopt either a consultative or paternalist type of leadership style. The paternalist style that the

Taiwanese managers assumed seems to fit with the Confucian work value emphasized upon "ordering relationships by status (e.g., employer-employee) and observing this order". Taiwanese HR managers consider this value to be more important than do non-managerial employees (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.5).

The implication of the findings may be that, in the areas of recruiting and hiring for a managerial position, the candidate who most closely matches the paternalist or consultative type of leadership style should be selected and hired if companies seek to match employee preference and management style. Moreover, since the findings imply that Taiwanese employees tend to be motivated by seeking self-actualization (given the high Individualism and Masculinity index scores), managers who adopt a consultative or democratic leadership style might be more willing to get them involved in making decisions about their own work and have the responsibility to do so. Tayeb (1996) suggests that this type of management style can allow employees further down the hierarchy to express their views and to respond quickly to the events or react to customer needs if need be without having to refer matters to the managers higher up.

Another implication is that, to show concern for their employees in a moderate degree of Power Distance work environment, employers or managers in Taiwan can try to close the distance between management and subordinates by walking about on the shopfloor and talking to them personally and getting to know their needs and requirements.

9.1.2. Uncertainty Avoidance

Given the moderately high scores on Uncertainty Avoidance, it could be anticipated that most of the non-managerial employees would have a desire for

long careers in the same business and regard "security of employment" as an important work goal. The implication of the findings may be that HR managers/specialists in Taiwan can put the focus on the internal labour market by using "promotion-from-within", the internal recruiting method, more effectively to increase employee job security. Examination of the findings from the two studies suggests that the use of "promotion-from-within" appears to be consistent with the wishes and values of employees, who have indicated in the study concerning culture, that work-related goals such as "opportunities for job advancement", "high earnings", and "security of employment" are important to them.

Furthermore, to minimize uncertainty, ambiguity, and/or anxiety in the moderately strong Uncertainty Avoidance work environment in Taiwan, there should be an emphasis on experts and expertise; and organizations can establish a formal organizational structure and detailed rules and procedures, which may include the following activities:

- developing explicit employment or personnel/HR policies (in a written form);
- designing job descriptions and specifications according to HR planning and job analysis;
- establishing a set of explicit criteria for promotion, selection, and job evaluation;
- developing open communication channels, and
- clearly defining the authority and duty for every post within the organization so that each individual can be rewarded in proportion to their contribution to the organization.

Hwang (1990) and Chen (1995) suggest that only in an institutionalized organization with a clear-cut organizational structure and with explicit regulations

and rules would professionals and ordinary employees be able to identify themselves with the company and give their effort and creativity for the benefit not just of themselves, but of the organization that employs them.

It should be noted that "the security of employment", although considered by Taiwanese employees as an important work goal, might be difficult for them to pursue particularly in today's global marketplace where downsizing and insecurity appear to have become commonplace.

9.1.3. Individualism vs. Collectivism and Femininity vs. Masculinity

The combination of the high Individualism and Masculinity Index scores indicates that work-related values commonly accepted and prevalent in the USA, Great Britain, and Australia, etc. have been greatly emphasized and perceived as important by non-managerial employees in Taiwan and this has a number of implications for motivation, job design, HRM, and recruitment and selection policies and practices. For example, the research evidence showed that Taiwanese non-managerial employees regard "get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job" as an important work goal. The implication of this finding is that "performance" and "technical competence" based promotion (currently considered by HR managers of the responding firms as important) may be able to fulfil their wishes and values. Furthermore, since employees found "challenging tasks" and "full use of their skills and abilities" important, the internal recruitment methods such as "transfers" and "job rotations" (currently used by the responding firms) might be able to meet their needs and desires (Note: these work goals appear to be consistent with Maslow's (1943) notions of self-actualization and recognition

which he suggests are in some sense higher order needs in the context of his pyramid or hierarchy of needs and its relevance for motivation and work design).

In addition, employees also felt that "opportunities for training" and "caring and nurturing" are important to them. Under such circumstances, it may be more advisable for HR managers/specialists in Taiwan to establish effective education and training programmes to improve employees' skills continuously, both to suit their jobs and to fit the company's future requirements. The provision of a comprehensive career development system may also help employees to realize their career goals. By providing a development path for everyone, organizations may increase their chances of keeping their employees. In this research, HR managers of the responding firms also felt that "training" is an important factor in facilitating recruitment and considered "caring and nurturing" as an important work value. This again appears to be consistent with the wishes and values of their employees.

Moreover, Taiwanese non-managerial employees tend to not only appreciate the stereotypically males values such as "competitiveness" and "self-advancement/initiative", but also consider "have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach" as an important work goal. The managerial implications of these findings may include the following:

1 management by objectives (MBOs) can be used to fulfil the wishes and values of employees (Note: a system of MBO means that instead of employees being told exactly how to do with their work, they are given definite tasks and results to be achieved. In other words, within agreed limits and the polices of the organization, employees may be given freedom of action to decide how best to achieve the results; and measurement of performance is in terms of the

employees' degree of accomplishment rather than the ability to follow instructions on how to undertake their work (Mullins, 1992));

2 the notions of job enrichment (including job enlargement) can be applied by organizations to meet employees' personal work goals and to increase their intrinsic satisfaction since this type of job design aims to give employees greater autonomy, freedom, and authority over the planning, execution, and control of their own work; and

3 to improve their commitment and job satisfaction, HR managers/specialists can seek to provide them with monetary rewards or link their performance in some way to the incentive-based payment systems such as individual bonus schemes (e.g., performance-related pay (PRP) and payment by results (PBRs)) or collective bonus schemes based on either output, sales, or productivity of a group, section, department, and the entire organization.

It should be noted that these management theories, techniques, and HRM practices that originated in the USA might work well or might prove to be successful in American organizations. Yet their underlying assumptions and prescriptions given certain sets of circumstances and values might not necessarily be appropriate in a different cultural context (in this case Taiwan). However, these management theories and practices could perhaps be appropriately applied or adopted by these survey firms given the wishes and values expressed by their current employees in this survey.

9.1.4. Traditional Chinese/Confucian Work-Related Values

In addition to the work values that are associated with the characteristics of Individualism and Masculinity, Taiwanese non-managerial employees also

consider the traditional Chinese values such as "co-operation", "harmony", "trust", "industry", and "perseverance" as important factors that may contribute to organizational success. The implication of these findings may be that, when making hiring/selection decisions, the applications' traits, attitudes, and work-related values may need to be taken into consideration. It may be important for HR managers/specialists in Taiwan to ensure that the applicants' overall qualifications and characteristics (including their work values and attitudes) can fit and/or are compatible with the organization's needs and prevailing culture, and that once they are hired, they are able to effectively carry out required tasks and collaborate well with their colleagues.

9.1.5. Conclusions

Since the findings of this study imply that Taiwanese employees now seem to be motivated by seeking self-actualization, to meet their wishes and work values, employers and/or HR managers in Taiwan can try to create a climate and a 'blame-free' culture in which employees are able to take responsibility for their own work. Encouraging responsibility also needs tolerance of genuine mistakes (Crouch, 1997). Purcell (1997) also suggests that, in addition to the provision of welfare benefits, the employer (or HR manager/specialist) can design jobs to give employees more say in their working lives and develop a set of HRM policies and processes that may encourage and empower employees to deliver a high level of performance. This may not be easy and is often time-consuming. Expenditure on getting these policies and processes right should be seen as an investment rather than merely a cost.

Moreover, employers or senior managers in Taiwan could share the planning of the business and provide as much information as possible and communicate them effectively with their employees, so that everyone fully understands where top management is trying to take the business and the part they need to play in it. By working in partnership with their employees, constantly assessing and re-assessing their performance and development along their career paths and frequently linking this in some way to rewards, employers or senior managers may be able to increase their employees' motivation and job satisfaction and to boost their operational effectiveness (Ryan, 1995; Herriot and Pemberton, 1995; Crouch, 1997). After all, success not only depends primarily on the size of the budget, the intrinsic worth of the products, and the supporting technologies, but also depends on their employees' work attitudes and values, competencies, and skills. Their commitment and trust may be critical to the long-term success of the businesses (Gratton, 1997).

9.2. Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

1. The current study primarily focuses on the work-related values of non-managerial employees in manufacturing industry in Taiwan. Cross-industry comparisons of work-related values of Taiwanese respondents could be conducted in future research (e.g., public vs. private sectors or service vs. manufacturing sectors).

2. Future research could also be extended to the analysis and comparison of work-related values of matched respondents from different national cultural contexts, e.g., Taiwan, Japan, and UK, or Taiwan, UK, and USA.

3. This research has established some of the implications of work-related values for HRM policies and practices in Taiwan. However, the current study is not able to provide empirical evidence concerning whether these value based dimensions of national culture have direct and significant impacts/effects upon the policies and practices actually pursued by organizations. In future research, areas such as the relationships between the cultural dimensions and HRM policies and practices could be examined.

4. As is indicated in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.4.3, employees who received diploma (junior colleges) or first/masters degree tend to see "security of employment", "co-operation", "loyalty", and "industry" to be less important than do employees who were graduated from high school or vocational high school. This seems to imply that people who have received higher education in Taiwan or have absorbed western values and management (e.g., HRM or motivation theory) are more likely to de-emphasize these Chinese work values. However, the finding may warrant further investigation.

5. In addition to company size and ownership pattern (organizational variables), and individual gender, age, educational level, and job position (demographic variables), other sub-cultural variables such as occupations, life style, religions, and family background, etc. may probably have some important effects on the work-related values that Taiwanese employees held and therefore may be worthy of further exploration and discussion.

6. As is mentioned in Chapter 7, Section 7.4.3, if there has been cultural change, there are many possible influences and explanations which may include the following:

- the process of industrialization;

- the influences of foreign direct investment (FDI) from e.g., the USA and Japan;

- domestic organizations' engagement in joint ventures with foreign multinational companies;

- the prevailing western management theories, practices, and techniques (e.g., HRM), many of which have been accepted by the local and foreign-owned companies and are taught in universities and colleges in Taiwan and;

- the prevalence of western media in Taiwan;

- the academic exchange activities (including exchange students) arranged by universities and colleges in Taiwan and in the USA and/or in the UK; and

- the opportunities of travelling and receiving further education abroad, particularly in the West.

This study has not examined the causes of cultural change and further research might usefully examine some of these influences and interrelationships between them and work-related values. A further investigation may enable the research to determine if there is a relationship between the current external environmental contexts of Taiwan and the change of work-related values of Taiwanese people. This may also facilitate an understanding of similar development in other countries and thus help to develop a predictive model and identify what are the most possible factors that cause cultural change.

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APPENDIX A

Cover Letter and Questionnaire

(Answers by Personnel/Human Resource Manager)

To whom it may concern,

In recent years, the concept of human resource management (HRM) has received considerable attention in the academic and practitioner literature in Taiwan. There are numerous models of human resource management, most of them are American or European in origin and tend to reflect the particular cultural characteristics of their country of origin. Whatever model or perspective of HRM used, effective recruitment and selection policies and practices are perceived as integral.

The purpose of the enclosed questionnaire is to facilitate the development of models of HRM and recruitment and selection policies and practices in manufacturing industry in Taiwan. The models proposed in this study can then be used as exploratory frameworks for further international comparative studies.

Any information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence and used exclusively to support academic research. No name will be revealed in any future publication. Please return the complete questionnaire with the enclosed envelope as soon as possible (postage prepaid). Thank you for your support of this research effort.

Yours Sincerely,

Research Student: Yu-Ru, Hsu   **Correspondence Address:**
Supervisor: Mike Leat   To: Ms Yu-Ru, Hsu
Human Resource Studies Group   6th Floor, Lin Nan Street,
Plymouth Business School   Kaohsiung, Taiwan, ROC
University of Plymouth   Tel: 07- 2411894
UK   Fax: 07-2519603

Human Resource Management and Recruitment and Selection

Please tick one only in each question and/ or each line across.

(Note: "**HR**" stands for "**human resource**")

1. Does your company have a personnel/HR management department and/ or manager? (If Yes, please go to question 3)	**Yes** ☐1	**No** ☐2

2. If you do not have a personnel/HR management department and/ or manager, **who** on the board or equivalent has responsibility for personnel issues?	(1) Managing director	☐1
	(2) Assistant manager	☐2
	(3) Finance director	☐3
	(4) Production director	☐4
	(5) Company secretary	☐5
	(6) Other, please specify:	☐6

3. How important (in terms of contributing to corporate strategy formulation) is it that the head of personnel or the person responsible for personnel issues is a member of the senior management team?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

4. Does your company have a:

	Yes, written	Yes, unwritten	No	Don't Know
(1) Corporate strategy	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4
(2) Personnel/HR management policy	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4

5. How important do you think it is that the personnel/HR management policy is fully integrated with the corporate strategy?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

6. With whom does the primary responsibility lie for the following HRM functions/activities? (Please tick one box for each issue)

Functions/Activities	HR dept	HR dept in consultation with line management	Line management	Line management in consultation with HR dept	Other	Don't know
(1) Pay & benefits	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(2) Recruitment & selection	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(3) Training & development	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(4) Industrial relations	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(5) Health & safety	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(6) Workforce expansion/reduction	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6

7a Please indicate how important human resource planning is in identifying **present** staff requirement?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

7b Please indicate how important human resource planning is in identifying **future** staff requirement?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
8. In the context of recruitment and selection, please indicate how important **job analysis** is.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
9. In the context of recruitment and selection, how important is a **job description**? (e.g., *the purpose, the major duties and responsibilities contained in a job*)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
10. In the context of recruitment and selection, how important is the **job specification**? (e.g., *the required attributes and qualities of applicants*)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

Recruitment

11.Among the various personnel or HR management functions, how important are the **recruitment** policies and practices?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

12.How important is the **realistic job preview (RJP)** technique in the recruitment process? (e.g., in *the form of case studies of employees and their work, or job sampling and videos, which may better allow applicants to select whether a particular job is suited to their needs, and enable the expectations of applicants to become more realistic*)	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

13.How frequently do you specifically target the following groups of people in the recruitment process?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) The long-term unemployed	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Older people	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) People with disabilities	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Women	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) School leavers	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) People with work experience	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Friends or relatives	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

14. Please indicate how frequently each of the following recruitment methods are used for filling vacancies at **managerial** level. **(Please tick one box for each method)**

Recruitment Methods	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Promotion from within	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Transfers	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Job rotation	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Employee referrals (e.g., friends or relatives)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) Schools or colleges/universities	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Private employment agencies	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Public employment agencies	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) Recruitment consultants	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Executive search consultants	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10) Direct applications (e.g., walk-ins or write-ins)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(11) Advertisements in the media (newspapers, specialist magazines)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

15. Please indicate how frequently each of the following recruitment methods are used for filling vacancies at **technical/professional** level.

(Please tick one box for each method)

Recruitment Methods	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Promotion from within	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Transfers	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Job rotation	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Employee referrals (e.g., friends or relatives)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) Schools or colleges/universities	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Private employment agencies	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Public employment agencies	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) Recruitment consultants	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Executive search consultants	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10) Direct applications (e.g., walk-ins or write-ins)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(11) Advertisements in the media (newspapers, specialist magazines)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

16.Please indicate how frequently each of the following recruitment methods are used for filling vacancies at **entry level. (Please tick one box for each method)**

Recruitment Methods	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Promotion from within	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(2) Transfers	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(3) Job rotation	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(4) Employee referrals (e.g., friends or relatives)	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(5) Schools or colleges/universities	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(6) Private employment agencies	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(7) Public employment agencies	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(8) Recruitment consultants	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(9) Executive search consultants	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(10) Direct applications (e.g., walk-ins or write-ins)	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(11) Advertisements in the media (newspapers, specialist magazines)	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅

17.Please indicate the degree of importance of each of the following promotion criteria. **(Please tick one box for each criteria)**

Promotion Criteria	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
(1) Past performance	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(2) Technical competence	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(3) Loyalty	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(4) Seniority	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(5) Leadership	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(6) Sociability	☐₁	☐₂	☐₃	☐₄	☐₅
(7) Other, please specify:					

18. Please indicate how important each of the following are in facilitating recruitment. **(Please tick one box for each practice)**

Factors	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
(1) Flexible working hours	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Recruiting abroad	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Relaxed age requirements	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Relaxed qualifications requirements	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) Relocation of the company	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Retraining existing employees	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Training for new employees	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) Part-time work	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Job sharing	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10) Increase pay/benefits	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(11) Marketing the company's image	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

Selection

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
19. Among the various personnel/HR management functions, how important are the **selection** policies and practices?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

20. Please indicate how frequently each of the following selection techniques are used for filling vacancies at **managerial** level. **(Please tick one box for each method)**

Selection Techniques	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Application forms (e.g., resumes, biodata)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Aptitude tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Psychometric tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Skill or knowledge tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) One-to-one interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Panel interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Assessment centres	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) References	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Medical examinations	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

21.Please indicate how frequently each of the following selection techniques are used for filling vacancies at **technical/professional** level.

(Please tick one box for each method)

Selection Techniques	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Application forms (e.g., resumes, biodata)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Aptitude tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Psychometric tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Skill or knowledge tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) One-to-one interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Panel interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Assessment centres	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) References	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Medical examinations	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

22.Please indicate how frequently each of the following selection techniques are used for filling vacancies at **entry level. (Please tick one box for each method)**

Selection Techniques	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
(1) Application forms (e.g., resumes, biodata)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Aptitude tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Psychometric tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Skill or knowledge tests	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) One-to-one interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Panel interview	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Assessment centres	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) References	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Medical examinations	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

23.How is the final hiring decision normally made? **(Please tick one only)**	(1) Only by personnel/HR department ☐1
	(2) By personnel/HR department in consultation with line management ☐2
	(3) Only by line management ☐3
	(4) By line management in consultation with personnel/HRdepartment ☐4
	(5) Other, please specify: ☐5

24. How important is it that you need to report to your superiors and seek their approval before you make the job offer to applicants?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

Work-Related Values

25. Please indicate how important you think each of the following work-related values are in contributing to organizational success. (**Please tick one box for each value**)

Work-related Values	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
(1) Co-operation	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Loyalty to superiors	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Industry/working hard	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Harmony with others	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) Self-advancement/ initiative	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Caring and nurturing	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Competitiveness/ aggressiveness	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) Persistence/perseverance	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Trust	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10) Ordering relationships by status and observing this order	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

Organizational Details

26. How many people were employed by your company in December, 1995?...............................

27. Please indicate which category your company belongs to:(**could tick more than one**)

(1) Family-owned business	☐1
[A family firm is an organization in which decisions regarding its ownership or management are influenced by a relationship to a family (or families) (Dyer, 1986)]	
(2) Non family-owned business	☐2
(3) Foreign subsidiary (e.g., American, Japanese, or Hong Kong, etc.), please specify:	☐3
(4) Local-foreign joint venture (e.g., American, Japanese, or Hong Kong, etc.), please specify:	☐4
(5) Other, please specify:	☐5

Respondents Details

28. Are you male or female?	Male	Female
	☐1	☐2

29.How old are you?		
	(1) 20-29	☐1
	(2) 30-39	☐2
	(3) 40-49	☐3
	(4) 50-59	☐4

30.What is the highest level of educational qualifications you have attained?		
	(1) Junior high or high school	☐1
	(2) Junior college	☐2
	(3) First or master degree	☐3

APPENDIX B

Cover Letter and Questionnaire

(Answers by Non-Managerial Employee)

**University of Plymouth
Business School**

Drake Circus
Plymouth
Devon PL4 8AA
United Kingdom

Tel 01752 232800
Fax 01752 232853

Professor Peter Jones BSc MSc PhD
Dean

To whom it may concern,

In recent years, there has been much greater attention paid to the influence of national culture and cultural diversity upon management and in particular management of human resources.

The purpose of the enclosed questionnaire is to examine the key work-related dimensions of national culture and by using these value orientations as a framework to provide some potentially important implications for human resource management and recruitment and selection policies and practices in manufacturing companies in Taiwan.

Any information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence and used exclusively to support academic research. No name will be revealed in any future publication. Please return the complete questionnaire with the enclosed envelope as soon as possible (postage prepaid). Thank you for you support of this research effort.

Yours Sincerely,

Research Student: Yu-Ru, Hsu
Supervisor: Mike Leat
Human Resource Studies Group
Plymouth Business School
University of Plymouth
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Work-Related Values of National Culture

Power Distance

1. How frequently, in your work environment, are you afraid to express disagreement with your superiors? **(Please tick one only)**	Never $\square_1$	Seldom $\square_2$	Sometimes $\square_3$	Frequently $\square_4$	Always $\square_5$

The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions.

Leadership style and decision-making

* Manager 1: usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.
* Manager 2: usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.
* Manager 3: usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decision. He/she expects them all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.
* Manager 4: usually calls a meeting of his/hers subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

2. For the above types of manager, please tick the **one** which you would prefer to work under.	Manager 1 $\square_1$	Manager 2 $\square_2$	Manager 3 $\square_3$	Manager 4 $\square_4$
3. To which **one** of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior most closely corresponds?	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$

Uncertainty Avoidance

4. How frequently do you feel nervous or tense at work? **(Please tick one only)**	Never $\square_1$	Seldom $\square_2$	Sometimes $\square_3$	Frequently $\square_4$	Always $\square_5$

5. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statement.

A company's rules should not be broken - even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests. **(Please tick one only)**	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

6. How long do you expect to continue working for this company? **(Please tick one only)**	(1) Two years at the most	☐1
	(2) From two to five years	☐2
	(3) More than five years (but I probably will leave before I retire)	☐3
	(4) Until I retire	☐4

Collectivism/Individualism & Masculinity/Femininity

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to **(please tick one only in each line across)**:

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
7. Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
8. Have freedom to adopt your own approach to the job?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
9. Have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
10. Training opportunities to improve your skills or learn new skills?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
11. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
12. Fully use your skills and abilities on the job?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
13. Have opportunities for high earnings?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
14. Get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
15. Have opportunities for advancement to higher level jobs?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
16. Have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
17. Have a good working relationship with your superior?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
18. Work with people who co-operate well with one another?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
19. Live in an area desirable to you and your family?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
20. Have security of employment?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

21.Please indicate how important you think each of the following work-related values are in contributing to organizational success.(**Please tick one box for each value**)

Work-related Values	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important
(1) Co-operation	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) Loyalty to superiors	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) Industry/working hard	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) Harmony with others	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) Self-advancement/ initiative	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) Caring and nurturing	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) Competitiveness/ aggressiveness	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) Persistence/perseverance	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) Trust	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10)Ordering relationships by status and observing this order	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

Organizational Details

22.How many people were employed by your company in December, 1995?...............................

23.Please indicate which category your company belongs to: (**could tick more than one**)

(1) Family-owned business	☐1
[*A family firm is an organization in which decisions regarding its ownership or management are influenced by a relationship to a family (or families) (Dyer, 1986)*]	
(2) Non family-owned business	☐2
(3) Foreign subsidiary (e.g., American, Japanese, or Hong Kong, etc.), please specify:	☐3
(4) Local - foreign joint venture (e.g., American, Japanese, or Hong Kong, etc.), please specify:	☐4
(5) Other, please specify:	☐5

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Respondents Details

24.Are you male or female?	Male	Female
	☐1	☐2

25.How old are you?		
	(1) 20-29	☐1
	(2) 30-39	☐2
	(3) 40-49	☐3
	(4) 50-59	☐4

26.What is the highest level of educational qualifications you have attained?		
	(1) Junior high or high school	☐1
	(2) Junior college	☐2
	(3) First or master degree	☐3

APPENDIX A1

問卷

(請人力資源管理經理/主任回答)

University of Plymouth Business School

Drake Circus
Plymouth
Devon PL4 8AA
United Kingdom

Tel 01752 232800
Fax 01752 232853

Professor Peter Jones BSc MSc PhD
Dean

敬啓者:

　　人力資源管理觀念近幾年來受到學術界及業界相當地重視.人力資源管理具有許多種模式,大部份源於美國及歐洲,且反應了這些西方國家文化上的特質.不論 貴公司使用何種人力資源管理模式,有效的招募與甄選政策及實務可視爲其整體的一部分.

　　這是一份學術性研究問卷,目地在發展一套能反應中國文化背景特色之人力資源管理及招募與甄選模式,並提供作爲與其他國家比較之基礎.

　　有關 貴公司之個別資料僅作爲學術性研究上總體統計分析之用,內容絕對保密,且絕不對外發表,敬請寬心塡答,並請惠予提供所有問題之答案.懇請將塡妥之問卷於本(八十五)年七月二十日以前寄回(回郵信封已附上);承蒙您的熱心協助,不勝感激.

　　　　順祝

萬事如意　鴻圖大展

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　晚學
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　徐郁茹 敬上
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　85年　　月　　日

回函地址:　　　　　　　　　　　　　英國普利茅斯大學
高雄市苓雅區林南街16號6樓　　　　　人力資源管理組
Tel:(07)2411894　　　　　　　　　　博士班研究生:徐郁茹
Fax:(07)2519603　　　　　　　　　　指導教授: Mike Leat

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說明:下列題目,請在適當的答案欄「☐」內打勾「√」(單選),或填寫數字、文字。

一、有關 貴公司「人事/人力資源管理」方面的一般性資料:

1. 貴公司是否有人事/人力資源部門及主管(經理/主任)?	是 ☐1	否 ☐2
	(請跳至第3題繼續回答)	

2. 假如 貴公司沒有人事/人力資源部門,負責 貴公司人事業務的主管之職位為何?	(1)總經理 ☐1 (2)副總經理 ☐2 (3)財務主任/經理 ☐3 (4)生產主任/經理 ☐4 (5)公司秘書 ☐5 (6)其他,請說明:

3. 在企業策略規劃之貢獻度上,您認為人事/人力資源主任或負責人事業務的主管在 貴公司之高級主管中其重要程度為何?	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

4. 貴公司是否有:

	是,已編訂成書面	是,未編訂成書面	否	不知道
(1) 企業策略	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4
(2) 人事/人力資源管理政策	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4

5. 您認為人事/人力資源管理政策與企業策略互相整合的重要性為何?	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

6. 請問下列各項政策是由 貴公司哪一部門所負責決定？（請單選）

（註："直線部" 係指行銷，財務，或生產部門等）

	人事部	人事部；但會先與直線部商議	直線部	直線部；但會先與人事部商議	其他	不知道
(1) 薪資和福利	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
2) 招募和甄選	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(3) 訓練和發展	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(4) 勞資關係	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(5) 工作安全與健康保險	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6
(6) 勞工擴張或減縮	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
7a. 在鑑定目前之人力需求時，貴公司認為人力資源規劃之重要性為何？	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
7b. 在鑑定未來之人力需求時，貴公司認為人力資源規劃之重要性為何？	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
8. 貴公司在進行招募和甄選時，您認為工作分析之重要性為何？	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
9. 貴公司在進行招募和甄選時，您認為工作說明書之重要性為何？（例如工作之性質，主要職務及責任等）	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
10. 貴公司在進行招募和甄選時，您認為工作規範之重要性為？（例如工作所需的個人特性：敎育，經驗，或技能等）.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

二.有關 貴公司「招募」方面之資料：

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
11. 您認為「招募」之政策與實務在各項人力資源活動中之重要程度為何？	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

12. 您認爲「實際工作介紹/回顧」在招募的過程中之重要性爲何?(例如以實際員工個案研究,或播放錄影帶等視聽方法讓應徵者實際瞭解其工作性質)	非常不重要 $\square_1$	不重要 $\square_2$	中等重要 $\square_3$	重要 $\square_4$	非常重要 $\square_5$

13. 請問 貴公司在進行招募時,是否經常針對下列人員爲招募之對象?

	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 長期失業者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 年長者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 殘障者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 婦女	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 休學者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 有工作經驗者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 員工的朋友或親戚	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

14. 請問 貴公司在徵招高級主管人員時,是否經常使用下列各項招募方法來塡補空缺?
(請單選)

招募方法	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 現職人員晉升(內升)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 調任	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 工作輪換(替)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 企業內員工的推薦	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 學校的畢業生	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 私人就業服務機構	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 政府就業服務機關	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 人才招募顧問公司	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 高級主管人才招募公司(獵人頭公司)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(10) 直接申請應徵者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(11) 由廣告公開招募(報紙或專業雜誌)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

15. 請問 貴公司在徵招特殊技術/專業人員時,是否經常使用下列各項招募方法來塡補空缺?(請單選)

招募方法	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 現職人員晉升(內升)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 調任	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 工作輪換(替)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 企業內員工的推薦	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 學校的畢業生	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 私人就業服務機構	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 政府就業服務機關	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 人才招募顧問公司	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 高級主管人才招募公司(獵人頭公司)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(10) 直接申請應徵者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(11) 由廣告公開招募(報紙或專業雜誌)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

16. 請問 貴公司在徵招基層工作人員時,是否經常使用下列各項招募方法來塡補空缺?(請單選)

招募方法	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 現職人員晉升(內升)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 調任	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 工作輪換(替)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 企業內員工的推薦	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 學校的畢業生	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 私人就業服務機構	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 政府就業服務機關	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 人才招募顧問公司	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 高級主管人才招募公司(獵人頭公司)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(10) 直接申請應徵者	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(11) 由廣告公開招募(報紙或專業雜誌)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

17. 您認為下列各項升遷標準之重要性為何?（請單選）

升遷標準	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
(1) 考績	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(2) 技術/專業能力	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(3) 忠誠度	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(4) 服務年資	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(5) 領導能力	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(6) 社交能力	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(7) 其他,請說明:					

18. 為了便利於招募,您認為下列各項因素之重要性為何?（請單選）

因素	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
(1) 彈性工作時數	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(2) 引進外勞	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(3) 放寬年齡的要求	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(4) 放寬資格的要求	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(5) 公司遷移	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(6) 在職訓練	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(7) 新進人員訓練	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(8) 兼職制	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(9) 工作分擔	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(10) 增加薪資/福利	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5
(11) 推銷公司的形象	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5

三.有關 貴公司「甄選」方面之資料:

19. 您認為「甄選」之政策與實務在各項人力資源活動中之重要程度為何?	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
	❏1	❏2	❏3	❏4	❏5

20. 請問 貴公司在甄選高級主管人員之過程中,是否經常使用下列甄選工具?(請單選)

甄選工具	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 申請表(履歷表及自傳等)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 性向測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 心理測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 知識或技能測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 一對一面談	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 集體面談(二人或二人以上之面談者)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 評鑑中心-小組	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 推薦信函	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 健康檢查	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

21. 請問 貴公司在甄選特殊技術/專業人員之過程中,是否經常使用下列甄選工具?

甄選工具	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 申請表(履歷表及自傳等)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 性向測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 心理測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 知識或技能測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 一對一面談	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 集體面談(二人或二人以上之面談者)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 評鑑中心-小組	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 推薦信函	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 健康檢查	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

22. 請問 貴公司在甄選基層工作人員之過程中,是否經常使用下列甄選工具?(請單選)

甄選工具	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
(1) 申請表(履歷表及自傳等)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(2) 性向測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(3) 心理測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(4) 知識或技能測驗	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(5) 一對一面談	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(6) 集體面談(二人或二人以上之面談者)	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(7) 評鑑中心-小組	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(8) 推薦信函	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$
(9) 健康檢查	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\square_4$	$\square_5$

23.	在最後人選(甄選)的決定上,請問 貴公司哪一部門有決定權?	(1)人事/人力資源部門 ☐1
		(2)人事/人力資源部門;但會先與直線部門商議 ☐2
		(3) 直線部門 ☐3
		(4) 直線部門;但會先與人事/人力資源部門商議 ☐4
		(5) 其他,請說明:

| 24. | 請問您在決定錄用應徵者前,須先徵求上司同意或向上級報告之看法為何? | 非常不重要 | 不重要 | 中等重要 | 重要 | 非常重要 |
| | | ☐1 | ☐2 | ☐3 | ☐4 | ☐5 |

25. 您認為下列各項與工作有關之「價值觀」對「企業成功」之貢獻程度為何?

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
(1) 合作	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(2) 忠於上司	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(3) 工作勤勞	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(4) 與人和睦相處	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(5) 自我提升/進取主動	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(6) 關心與照顧	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(7) 競爭,果斷,或激進	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(8) 毅力	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(9) 信任/信賴	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
(10) 尊卑有序(工作倫理)	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

四．貴公司之基本資料:

26. 請問 貴公司在民國84年12底時,總員工人數:................人

27. 貴公司屬於(可複選):

☐(1)家族企業〔註:家族企業係指企業之所有權及管理權的決定受到一或一個家庭以上關係的影響,(戴爾,1986)〕
☐(2)非家族企業
☐(3)外商公司(如日商,美商,或港商等),請說明:
☐(4)與外商合資企業(如日商,美商,或港商等),請說明:
☐(5)其他,請說明:

五.個人之基本資料:

28. 請問您的性別?	男 ☐1 女 ☐2

29. 請問您的年齡?	(1)20-29 ☐1
	(2)30-39 ☐2
	(3)40-49 ☐3
	(4)50-59 ☐4

30. 請問您的最高學歷是:	(1)國中高中畢業 ☐1
	(2)專科畢業 ☐2
	(3)大學或碩士畢業 ☐3

APPENDIX B1

**University of Plymouth
Business School**

Drake Circus
Plymouth
Devon PL4 8AA
United Kingdom

Tel 01752 232800
Fax 01752 232853

Professor Peter Jones BSc MSc PhD
Dean

問卷

（請非主管級工作人員回答）

敬啓者：

　　近幾年來國家文化及文化多樣性對人力資源管理的影響已逐漸受到相當地重視．這是一份學術性研究問卷，目地在探討與工作有關之國家文化上的幾項重要界面，及其對本國公司與外商公司之人力資源管理，特別是對招募與甄選政策及實務的影響．

　　有關 貴公司之個別資料僅作爲學術性研究上總體統計分析之用，內容絕對保密，且絕不對外發表，敬請寬心塡答，並請惠予提供所有問題之答案．懇請將塡妥之問卷於本（八十五）年七月二十日以前寄回（回郵信封已附上）；承蒙您的熱心協助，不勝感激．

　　　　順祝

萬事如意　鴻圖大展

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　晚學
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　徐郁茹 敬上
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　85年　　月　　日

回函地址：　　　　　　　　　　　英國普利茅斯大學
高雄市苓雅區林南街16號6樓　　　人力資源管理組
Tel:(07)2411894　　　　　　　　博士班研究生:徐郁茹
Fax:(07)2519603　　　　　　　　指導教授: Mike Leat

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說明:下列題目,請在適當的答案欄「☐」內打勾「√」(單選),或填寫數字、文字。

一.國家文化

有關 貴公司「**權力距離**」方面的資料:

	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
1. 請問您在工作中是否經常畏懼向您的上司表達不同的意見?	☐$_1$	☐$_2$	☐$_3$	☐$_4$	☐$_5$

以下是描述四種不同類型的經理,請仔細閱讀下列各項之敘述.

決策及領導方式:

- **經理 1** 經常很快地下決定,然後很清楚、堅定地告訴屬下,希望屬下能忠誠且毫無意見地執行該決定.

- **經理 2** 經常很快地下決定,但要屬下執行該決定前,會向屬下充分解釋他決定的理由,並回答屬下提出的疑問.

- **經理 3** 經常在做決定之前會先與屬下諮商,然後才宣佈他的決定;但不論該決定是否符合屬下先前提出的意見, 他希望屬下能忠誠地執行.

- **經理 4** 當有重要決策時,經常召集屬下開會一同討論問題,然後以大多數的意見為最後的決定.

	經理 1	經理 2	經理 3	經理 4
2. 根據上列敘述,您比較喜歡為哪一位經理工作?	☐$_1$	☐$_2$	☐$_3$	☐$_4$
3. 根據上列敘述,您現在的上司比較接近哪一種類型?	☐$_1$	☐$_2$	☐$_3$	☐$_4$

有關 貴公司「**逃避不確定性傾向**」方面的資料:

	從未	很少	有時候	經常	總是
4. 請問您在工作中經常感覺緊張嗎?	☐$_1$	☐$_2$	☐$_3$	☐$_4$	☐$_5$

5. 請指出您對於下列敘述之看法：

一個公司的法規、慣例不應該被打破，即使員工認為是為了公司整體的利益．	非常不同意 $\Box_1$	不同意 $\Box_2$	未決定的 $\Box_3$	同意 $\Box_4$	非常同意 $\Box_5$

6. 您希望再為 貴公司服務多久？	(1)最多2年	$\Box_1$
	(2)2至5年	$\Box_2$
	(3)超過5年，但我也許會在退休之前離開公司	$\Box_3$
	(4)直到我退休	$\Box_4$

有關 貴公司「集體主義/個人主義 & 男性化/女性化傾向」方面的資料：

撇開您目前的工作不談，在選擇一份理想的工作時，請指出下列各項情況對您的重要程度．

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
7. 有充裕的時間留給自己或家庭生活．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$
8. 有充份的自由以自己的方式處理工作．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$
9. 有一份挑戰性的職務並從中可獲得成就感．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$
10. 有訓練的機會來增進自己的技能及學習新的技能．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$
11. 有一個良好的工作環境，例如良好的通風設備及燈光、足夠的工作空間等．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$
12. 在工作崗位上能充份發揮自己的技能．	$\Box_1$	$\Box_2$	$\Box_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
13. 有一份高薪職務的機會.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
14. 當你做好一件工作時能得到應有的認可.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
15. 有晉升到較高階層工作的機會.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
16. 有一份挑戰性的職務並從中可獲得成就感.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
17. 和你的直屬上司保持良好的工作關係.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
18. 能與合作性高的人一起工作.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
19. 居住於你和你家人甚為渴望的區域.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
20. 有一份有保障的職業.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5

21. 您認為下列各項與工作有關之「價值觀」對「企業成功」之貢獻程度為何?

	非常不重要	不重要	中等重要	重要	非常重要
(1) 合作	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(2) 忠於上司	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(3) 工作勤勞	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(4) 與人和睦相處	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(5) 自我提升/進取主動	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(6) 關心與照顧	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(7) 競爭,果斷,或激進	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(8) 毅力	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(9) 信任/信賴	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
(10) 尊卑有序(工作倫理)	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5

二. 貴公司之基本資料:

22. 請問 貴公司在民國84年12月底時,總員工人數:..............人

23. 貴公司屬於(可複選):

- ☐(1)家族企業〔註:家族企業係指企業之所有權及管理權的決定受到一或一個家庭以上關係的影響,(戴爾,1986)〕
- ☐(2)非家族企業
- ☐(3)外商公司(如日商,美商,或港商等),請說明:
- ☐(4)與外商合資企業(如日商,美商,或港商等),請說明:
- ☐(5)其他,請說明:

三.個人之基本資料:

24. 請問您的性別?	男 ☐1	女 ☐2

25. 請問您的年齡?	(1)20-29 ☐1
	(2)30-39 ☐2
	(3)40-49 ☐3
	(4)50-59 ☐4

26. 請問您的最高學歷是:	(1)國中或高中畢業 ☐1
	(2)專科畢業 ☐2
	(3)大學或碩士畢業 ☐3

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