

行政院國家科學委員會專題研究計畫 成果報告

職場性別組成對以性別為劃分基礎之內外團體互動之影響 - 在台灣的研究 (WR43)(第2年) 研究成果報告(完整版)

計畫類別：個別型
計畫編號：NSC 96-2629-H-018-001-MY2
執行期間：97年08月01日至98年10月31日
執行單位：國立彰化師範大學企業管理學系

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報告附件：出席國際會議研究心得報告及發表論文

處理方式：本計畫涉及專利或其他智慧財產權，2年後可公開查詢

中華民國 99年01月31日

職場性別組成對以性別為劃分基礎之內外團體互動之影響-在台灣的 研究

The Effects of Gender Demography in the Workplace on The Dynamics between In-Groups and Out-Groups Differentiated Based on Gender – A Study in Taiwan (WR43)

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本研究在執行期間，發展為三個研究方向，如下分別敘述：

1. 職場性別組成對以性別為劃分基礎之內外團體互動之影響：本研究在探討職場中女性的性別組成對於女性性別認同的影響。進一步言，本研究探究製造業女性擔任高階主管對於公司內低階女性在性別認同形成的影像，在此性別認同指涉女性如何將自身與女性特質與工作績效及生涯發展進行聯結，女性會向同性或異性尋求建立認同以期提高工作績效及生涯發展潛勢，尋求認同的過程中將改變女性對自身以及女性這一群體的認知與看法。本研究針對 18 家製造公司共 72 位女性進行訪談，搭配共 6 位男性高階主管的訪談。訪談結果進行內容分析（包含質化與量化），初步發現女性在公司中是否擔任高階主管，對於低階女性形塑性別認同的歷程與結果並不相同。公司中女性擔任高階主管，低階女性認為自身的生涯發展有較佳的展望，女性特質與工作績效之間呈現正向關係；反之公司中無女性擔任高階主管，女性對於自身在公司中的生涯發展抱持較悲觀的看法，女性特質僅被視為在工作執行中特定範疇裡所需之投入，這樣的公司傾向將男女的特質兩極化，女性展現男性特質與行為不僅被接受，也是升遷的唯一方法。本研究將持續自不同角度分析女性的性別認同，也將發展量表，進一步探究相關現象。在以下之完整報告中，將呈現這方向的部分研究成果。
2. 職場性別多元與組織績效關聯性探討：本研究屬跨國性研究，旨在研究組織中性別多元是否能提升組織績效，本研究已先後針對台灣與韓國的科技產業進行分析，兩國並呈現出不同的分析結果。值得一提的是，韓國在經理人與專業層級的性別多元對於組織績效無任何影響，反之在台灣則是正向影響，過去文獻常將台韓視為同屬於一個國家文化群體，本研究則指陳必須進一步從機構觀點(institutionalism)檢視此研究發現的差異。本研究與美國學者 John Lawler (School of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign)進行合作，部分成果已經投稿於一第一級 SSCI 期刊。今年並延攬加拿大學者 Chris Zatzick 加入(Faculty of Business Administration, Simon Fraser University)，以便納入加拿大資料庫，使本研究的成果更為豐碩。
3. 職場肯定性行動(positive action)之跨國比較研究：針對職場肯定性行動的立法，近年來已成為各國的共識與趨勢，旨在提昇婦女、少數族群與身心障礙者的就業機會，台灣近幾年來的立法也使得台灣在此領域成為先驅。檢視各國的肯定性行動立法，在哲學、範疇、面向、標準、執行歷程與目標等層面

皆有不同，提供了進行跨國比較的機會。參與本研究之學者來自歐、美、非、亞四大洲，兩年來已經成長為 30 餘位研究者分屬十多個國家，台灣由本作者為代表。兩年來除電腦網路上的討論，也已先後於 2008 與 2009 年的 Academy of Management Annual Meeting 進行研討，並發展出內容分析的 coding scheme，先了解各國在肯定性行動立法的側重點，以進一步探討造成這些不同側重點的歷史脈絡與後果。預計將於 2010 年的 Academy of Management Annual Meeting 召開另一次的會議，商討分析方法與進一步確立後續的研究主題。

GENDER DEMOGRAPHY IN THE UPPER ECHELON AND WOMEN'S GENDER IDENTITY – PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

ABSTRACT

The effect of female representation in senior positions on the dynamics between gender differentiated in-groups and out-groups has been important but neglected issues. Differentiated representation across levels of the organizational hierarchy has been argued to be theoretically important, but relevant studies are few (Joshi, Liao, & Jackson, 2006; Konrad & Gutek, 1987; Ridgeway, 1988). This study moves beyond prior demographic studies on female representation in occupations, jobs, or workgroups and investigates the effect of female representation in senior positions on the dynamics between members of in-groups composed of women in workgroups and those of out-groups composed of men. Interviews of a total of 72 women managers and employees drawn from 18 manufacturing companies were conducted for further analysis. Data analysis suggests that in sex-integrated companies, women's qualities were valued, and women were given more opportunities to exploit and develop their potentials. Women were able to perform well and advance their careers as their male counterparts. On the contrary, in male-dominated companies, as opposed to men, women were seen as disadvantageous in performance and career advancement. Gender differences were polarized. The findings have theoretical and practical implications.

Keywords: Female Representation, Senior Positions, In-group, Out-group, Gender Identity, Gender-based Differences

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, diversity in the workplace has posed a challenge for human resource managers and top-level decision makers (Richard, Kochan, & McMillan-Capehart, 2002). Concurrent with this growing challenge, in the past decade an increasing body of research has focused on various individual attributes that are used to draw distinctions between sub-groups within an interdependent work unit (see Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003 for a review). Among these attributes, issues surrounding gender demography (Frink, Robinson, Reithel, Arthur, Ammeter, Ferris, Kaplan, & Morrisette, 2003) and gender diversity (Dwyer, Richard, & Chadwick, 2003) have not been thoroughly investigated.

Previous research has focused on gender and sex as an objective attribute of each individual conterminous with anatomical sex (Ely, 1995). The studies that consider gender demography have sought to investigate women's proportional representation in the workplace and subsequent performance outcomes (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2003; Frink et al., 2003). A balanced representation of men and women within organizations (Frink et al., 2003) or workgroups (Knouse & Dansby, 1999) has been found to be associated with the best possible performance outcomes, while an imbalanced representation has not. However, some researchers have criticized the underlying methodology as unsubstantiated, raising concerns about propagating balanced representation as a strategy to eradicate gender discrimination (Blum & Smith, 1988; Yoder, 1991). Studies employing this methodology have not yet addressed organizational hierarchy as the root cause of balanced or imbalanced representation in the workplace; thus, we cannot really eliminate gender discrimination simply by presenting positive outcomes of balanced representation (Ely, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006). Thus, although female representation in senior positions (Ely, 1994, 1995) plays important roles in determining women's workplace experiences, exactly how it takes effect is not well understood and requires investigation.

This report investigates the effects of female representation in senior positions on the dynamics between in-groups and out-groups differentiated on the basis of gender ("in-group/out-group dynamics" for short) in manufacturing companies in Taiwan. Taiwan as one of the four Asian Tigers has experienced explosive economic growth in the last few decades. Rapid economic development and industrialization in Taiwan has led to rising female participation in the workplace. The female workforce participation rate in 2005 was 48.12%, a rise of almost 9% from 39.13% in 1978 (Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting & Statistics, Taiwan, 2005). Changes in gender demography in the workplace in Taiwan should have affected women's work experiences. In particular, manufacturing industries in Taiwan have been for a long time male-dominated. How would women seek their identity and relate themselves

with career advancement in the workplace in such industries? Adopting prior researchers' perspectives (Ely, 1994, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006; Kanter, 1977a, b), this report seeks to investigate if and how female representation in senior positions in manufacturing companies affects the work experiences of women lower down on the organizational hierarchy. The work experiences are exemplified by whom women seek identity with and how women relate themselves with job performance and career advancement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Importance of Gender Demography in Organizational Research

This section discusses the importance of gender demography in organizational research. Given the amount of attention this topic has received from prior researchers, the importance of gender demography seems well justified. In the following sections, both theoretical underpinnings for research on gender demography and a review of prior studies will be introduced.

An organizational demography approach has been commonly adopted in research on the dynamics between gender differentiated in-groups and out-groups (cf. Joshi et al., 2006). More than 30 years ago, Kanter (1977a) called for a study of the relationship between the proportion of women in organizations and organizational outcomes. Pfeffer (1983) echoed Kanter's call by arguing that organizational demography is an important explanatory variable in organizational research, and that the demographical attributes should include gender. Kanter's (1977b) seminal study of a large organization revealed that the proportion of members of each gender in a workgroup predisposes the exhibition of characteristics within the group. In a group containing both majority and minority members differentiated by an attribute ("skewed group"), the majority would very likely become sensitized to their own characteristics and thereby define social boundaries. The majority also tend to interact significantly among themselves while avoiding contact with minority others.

Blau (1977a, b) argued that the size of the proportion of members in a group affects interaction among these members, and between these members (the in-group) and other members (out-groups). He further argued that social differentiation pertains to not just the proportionate size of a categorizable social group, but also hierarchically arranged social differentials. Similarly, Ely (1994, 1995) examined how female representation at senior levels of law firms affected the self perception and social identity of lower-level females. The findings support a view of gender as an ongoing process of social construction. The meaning, implication, and outcomes of this social construction differed on the basis of the power differences reflected in the gender demography across differing levels of organizational hierarchy. Specifically, female associates in sex-integrated law firms, as opposed to male-dominated firms,

tended to develop positive perceptions toward female partners and consider them supportive toward their peers. Ely concluded that having more females at the top level of an organization lead to more optimistic evaluations on the possibility of career advancement in the organization. Gender as a positive basis for identification with other women was enhanced, and women tended to believe that expressing their individuality contributed to their success in the organization. Thus, gender roles are subjected to the social construction of an organization, which is affected by the proportion of women at the partner level.

In a similar vein, gender demography serves as a basis for research on gender diversity, i.e., balanced representation of men and women in organizational settings (e.g., Frink et al., 2003; Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004). In the past few decades many academic domains such as psychology, economics, sociology, and education have studied the effects of diversity, including diversity based on gender, on group process and performance (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Empirical studies focused on gender diversity at the group level have produced mixed findings. For example, gender diversity may produce negative impacts on group performance when the group is male-dominated and may have no impact when the group is female-dominated (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Pelled (1997) discovered that gender diversity leads to emotional conflict and decreased performance outcomes in terms of productivity. O'Reilly, Williams, and Barsade (1997), however, did not find any significant relationship between gender diversity and group performance when studying female-dominated groups. Despite these inconsistent findings, the importance of gender demography and gender diversity has been recognized and evident in prior literature.

Theoretical Underpinnings for Research on Gender Demography

Prior gender demography research is rooted mainly in three theoretical perspectives (Frink et al., 2003; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998); namely, social categorization/identification theory, the similarity/attraction perspective, and the "value-in-diversity" hypothesis. A literature review also suggests that the status-based perspective emerging from studies on organizational demography serves to complement social categorization/identification theory (Ely, 1994, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006). Finally, the resource-based view of the firm has recently emerged as another theoretical perspective in guiding research on gender demography (Richard, 2000). Each of these will be elaborated on below.

The social categorization theory (Tajfel, 1981; Turner, 1987) or social identification theory (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Turner, 1982) argues that individuals tend to initiate a social categorization process based on salient attributes such as race and gender in order to define their social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The social

categorization process leads to in-group/out-group distinctions (Kramer, 1991), and members of out-groups are inclined to be seen as less trustworthy, honest, and cooperative than are in-group members (Brewer, 1979; Tajfel, 1982). Further, research has shown that heterogeneity in a group can result in member dissatisfaction, high turnover, reduced within-group cohesiveness, communication and cooperation, as well as intensified within-group conflict (Crocker & Major, 1989; Moreland, 1985; Triandis, Kurowski, & Gelfand, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Studies also show that group heterogeneity is associated with negative performance (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992).

The status-based perspective argues that the social categorization process commonly observed in organizational settings can be strengthened when power differences between sub-groups are present. For example, studies in the U.S. have shown that overrepresentation of white men in higher level positions in an organization can lead to differential treatment of women and people of color (Konrad & Gutek, 1987; Pfeffer, 1989), including lower performance evaluations and lower pay for both groups (Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004). On the contrary, lower status in-group members may accept their "inferiority", and are less likely to treat higher status out-group members in a discriminatory way (Jost & Burgess, 2000), but may polarize the differences in psychological and behavioral traits between the in-group members and higher status out-group members (Alderfer, 1987; Ridgeway, 1988). Thus, the formal arrangement of power differences in the organization, i.e., organizational hierarchy, can reinforce social categorization processes that have been taking place.

The similarity/attraction perspective emphasizes the effect of similarity on mutual likings of in-group members in a setting of workgroup diversity. Similarity in terms of personal attributes is a source of interpersonal attraction (Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966). Members of homogeneous groups tend to rate highly in terms of satisfaction and cooperation, and exhibit low levels of emotional conflicts (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Positive social interaction and communication between members are easily developed.

The "value-in-diversity" hypothesis holds heterogeneity in a group in high regard (Gruenfeld, Mannix, Williams, & Neale, 1996; Richard, 2000). Human beings tend to communicate more with those similar to themselves. However, in a group of heterogeneity, extra information networks are brought to group members from outside the group. Heterogeneity in a workgroup also provides a mixture of differing knowledge, skills and capabilities that can benefit group outcomes (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1997).

The resource-based view of the firm also appreciates the value that exists in a

workforce of diversity and considers workforce diversity a source of firm competitive advantage. According to this view, resources that contribute to the competitive advantages of a firm should be valuable, inimitable, and rare, and some researchers argued that human resources are just that type of resources (Pfeffer, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994) because human resources possess knowledge, skills and capabilities that are capable of creating performance differentials for an organization (e.g., Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997; Wright et al., 1994). Workforce diversity increases the configuration of knowledge, skills, and capabilities of a firm that create performance differentials through socially complex and causally ambiguous processes.

Despite all the theoretical underpinnings above, social categorization/identification theory, the status-based perspective, and the similarity/attraction perspective all reinforce and complement each other in explaining and predicting how in-groups and out-groups are formed, how in-group identity is developed, and how in-group favoring and discriminatory behaviors against out-groups take place. They are suitable to serve as the theoretical underpinnings for an investigation of how female representation in senior positions affects the dynamics of gender differentiated in-groups and out-groups.

Prior Empirical Studies on Gender Demography

The literature review reveals two main streams of studies on gender demography in the workplace. The first stream focuses on the relationship between gender demography and performance outcomes with a primary aim of investigating if a balanced representation between men and women results in the best possible performance outcomes. Frink et al. (2003) investigated the relationship between gender demography and organizational performance and found that an inverted U-shaped relationship existed between the proportion of women in the organization and organizational performance in service/wholesale/retail industries, but not in others, i.e., heavy and light manufacturing, financial and utility industries. When the percentage of women was nearly 50%, the companies in the service/wholesale/retail industries had the best possible performance outcomes. When that percentage was below or above 50%, the performance declined. Knouse and Dansby (1999) found that a curvilinear (an inverted U-shaped) relationship existed between the proportionate size of women in workgroups and group effectiveness. The relationship between the proportionate size of women and group effectiveness showed a positive relationship when the percentage of women ranged between 10% and 50%. Group effectiveness reached the highest level when the percentage of women ranged between 30% and 50%. Percentages beyond 50% saw declining group effectiveness.

However, many other studies have not found any direct relationship between

gender diversity and firm performance, including Dwyer et al. (2003), Kochan, Bezrukova, Ely, Jackson, Joshi, Jehn, Leonard, Levine, and Thomas (2003), and Richard et al. (2004). Similarly, findings from empirical studies that focused on gender diversity at the group level have been mixed. The relationship between gender diversity and group performance has been found to be positive or negative across differing research settings. Sometimes the direct relationship was not found (see Williams & O'Reilly, 1998 for a review). One notable study is Wright, Ferris, Hiller, and Kroll (1995), which investigated the effects of U.S. Department of Labor award announcements for exemplary affirmative action programs on the stock price valuation of a firm. The announcements were found to be associated with significant and positive excess returns, which led to the conclusion that quality affirmative action programs can help improve firm competitive advantages and are valued by the market. Wright et al. (1995) seem to have pointed out a promising direction for research when they suggested that diversity practices that provide integration between the sexes and differing ethnic groups may improve the relationships between men and women, as well as between men and ethnic minorities. In this way, firms may find themselves better able to utilize their employees of diverse attributes. Thus, instead of number balancing in the workplace, predominant emphasis should be on support for women and ethnic minorities, as well as integration between men and women, and between men and ethnic minorities.

The second stream of studies focuses on processes and outcomes, i.e., in-group/out-group dynamics, of gender demography in workgroups. As noted earlier, in terms of women's dynamics with male out-group members, Kanter's (1977a, b) studies of workgroups revealed that in a skewed group in which women accounted for a small percentage, men were inclined to form social boundaries and interact significantly among themselves while rendering the women to a socially isolated and disadvantageous position. Men also pressured women to demonstrate their loyalty to the group. It appears that a comparatively small proportion of women triggered the salience of gender as a basis for comparisons between men and women in the group. Men's self-esteem increased and, by devaluing women, they sought to maintain their identification with the group (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004; Randel, 2002). Ely's (1994, 1995) studies extended and cross-validated Kanter's. For example, women's attributes and roles were more subject to prejudice and stereotype in male-dominated firms than in sex-integrated firms. Women's situations in the workplace only seemed to improve when their proportionate number increases. Sackett, DuBois, and Noe (1991) presented supportive evidence of this finding: in their study, women's performance ratings were low when their proportional representation was low, while their performance ratings were found to be higher than

those for men when their proportional representation reached more than 50%.

Still, the evidence has not been unequivocal. For example, Wharton and Baron (1991) found that women in number-balancing work situations are more satisfied than women in female-dominated situations, and women actually were found to have the highest satisfaction when in male-dominated situations. Further, in workgroups where women predominate, they display egalitarian attitudes toward male colleagues (Konrad, Winter, & Gutek, 1992; Schreiber, 1979), so men tend not to experience prejudice and differential treatment imposed from women. Also, the proportional representation of women has a significant bearing on their workplace experiences. A low proportional representation is often associated with increased performance pressures, alienation from informal social and professional circles, and biases and prejudices in role stereotyping. These negative consequences are usually eliminated when the proportional representation of women is increased (for reviews, see Konrad & Gutek, 1987; Yoder, 1991; Wharton, 1992).

In terms of in-group dynamics, the similarity/attraction perspective has been used to predict women's relationships with same-sex peers in the workplace. For example, similarity was presumed to facilitate communication and foster trust and reciprocity between women (Lincoln & Miller, 1979; McPherson & Smith-Lovin, 1987). However, empirical studies have presented inconsistent evidence of this (Ely, 1994). Some results suggested that women lacked confidence, were overcontrolling, and were unable to engage in teamwork (e.g., Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Briles, 1987). Same-sex relationships concerning women in the workplace were described as competitive and problematic (Ely, 1994). Other studies found women to be cooperative (Nicholson, 2000), stressing harmony, willing to share power and information, (Hurst, Rush, & White, 1989) and egalitarian (Rosener, 1990). Women were able to build and maintain solidarity and mutual support among themselves.

Prior research on women's same-sex work relationships largely ignored the socio-cultural contexts in which women work (Ely, 1994, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006), thereby ignoring the social categorization processes women undertake in the workplace and the dynamics between in-groups and out-groups differentiated on the basis of gender. The major contribution of Ely's studies (1994, 1995) lies in the inclusion of female representation in senior positions to explain the social and gender identity of junior women in law firms. Gender as a positive basis for identification with other senior women could only be found when women had representation in senior positions (sex-integrated firms). Further, in-group size, i.e., the proportional representation of women in workgroups, affected the amount of prejudice and stereotyping women experienced in the workplace (Ibarra & Smith-Lovin, 1997; Joshi et al., 2006; Kanter, 1977a, b), which also affected women's identification with their

in-groups. Thus, women's gender identity appears to be influenced by their proportional representation in workgroups. Joshi et al. (2006) considered both female representation in managerial positions of a sales unit and the proportional representation of women in a sales team while investigating pay levels of individual sales employees of both sexes in a large company in the U.S. Although they did not find a significant relationship between the proportion of women in a sales team and individual pay levels, they did find gender-based earnings differentials were smaller when the proportion of female managers increased.

This report proposes that future research follow the approach of Ely (1994, 1995; Joshi et al. (2006) by including female representation in senior positions to explain in-group/out-group dynamics. A synthesis of prior work (Ely, 1994, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006) also leads to the use of gender identity to reflect the in-group/out-group dynamics. This approach can be significant even in terms of revealing the causal mechanism underlying the relationship between gender demography in organizations and organizational performance. As noted above, studies in the first stream may or may not uncover a significant relationship between balanced representation of members of both sexes (gender diversity) and organizational performance. The key may lie in the process by which gender diversity in organizations is capitalized on for their benefits (Kochan et al., 2003). The line of enquiry adopted in the future research should tap into this very process as power differences between men and women are taken into account and women's work experiences are investigated. If junior women have role models of the same sex for them to identify with, and receive support from these role models, they may develop greater ambition in the work (Ely, 1994, 1995), which may eventually lead to improved job performance. Companies can thereby make good use of women's talents and capabilities, which in turn can complement the talents and capabilities of men (Krishnan & Park, 2005; Sargent & Stupak, 1989; Orlitzky & Benjamin, 2003). By contrast, if women's talents and capabilities are not appreciated and women are rendered to disadvantageous positions in organizations, good performance is unlikely to follow and earnings differentials will remain. In this way, companies will lose the chance to capitalize on their diverse human resources.

Significance of this Research in Taiwan

The relationship between gender demography and in-group/out-group dynamics has received little attention from academics in East Asia, including Taiwan. Taiwan has national cultural values that stress male supremacy (Chang & Huang, 2005) and hierarchy (Hofstede, 1997). Power differences between men and women still exist, and may explain the men-women relationships in the workplace. Chinese people also tend to distinguish a group of intimate individuals (an in-group) from distant others (out-groups)(Triandis, 1989). The social categorization process based on salient

attributes such as gender constantly takes place. All these offer a platform for the proposed research and a nurturing ground for potentially interesting findings to emerge.

As noted in the introduction, the female labor force participation rate in Taiwan has been increasing. Several driving forces have brought about such an increase. The first pertains to the non-discriminatory education policy of the Taiwanese government. According to a government report (Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Taiwan, 2000), in 1999 females accounted for 48.8% of the population in Taiwan, but accounted for 51.4 % of the students studying toward a higher degree, an increase from 47.4% in 1989. In 1989, the number of females studying toward a postgraduate degree was about 5,000. In 1999, the number had skyrocketed to about 40,000.

The second pertains to the enactment of laws against gender discrimination. In 1984, the Labor Standards Act mandated pay equality between the sexes. In 2002, the Gender Equality in Employment Law mandated that no discrimination based on gender be allowed in the workplace, including the recruitment process. While questions surrounding how the law should be enforced have incited much debate in the legislature and in society (Wu & Lin, 2002), the law seems certain to affect business practices in Taiwan.

The governmental industrialization policy and Taiwan's participation in the global economy also gave rise to opportunities for female employment. Modern management systems are implemented to address work autonomy and female participation (e.g., Bae, Chen, Wan, Lawler, & Walumbwa, 2003).

Despite the above observations, women still encounter discriminatory practices in the workplace with respect to pay raises, work arrangements, promotions, and performance evaluations (Council of Labor Affairs, Taiwan, 2000). The same government report details that 65% of reported sexual harassment incidents against women in the workplace were not dealt with. Also, work-family conflict is an important challenge female employees must face for them to produce satisfactory job outcomes (Hsu & Hsiao, 2000).

Thus, the increasing female representation in the workplace juxtaposed against the persisting discrimination that they face gives rise to a need to examine women's workplace experiences in Taiwan. There are many issues to consider: How do women perceive themselves relative to men in their work? How will they perceive their feminine qualities? Are these feminine qualities positively or negatively associated with women's job performance and career advancement? Under what conditions will masculine and feminine qualities be polarized? With whom will women seek identity with for job performance and career advancement? From the perspective of business

organizations, concerns regarding women's workplace experiences are necessary as the experiences may be associated with how organizations can best utilize the knowledge and capabilities of women as an important aspect of their human resources. This research will shed light on women's workplace experiences and their coping processes.

Hypotheses

Female Representation in Senior Positions and In-Group/Out-Group

Dynamics. Gender identity is an important dimension of women's social identity. "It is the meaning women attach to their membership in the category 'female'" (Ely, 1995, p. 591). Thus, women's gender identity is achieved by drawing comparisons with out-group members, namely, men. Social categorization/identification theory argues that social identity obtains significance via comparisons between the in-group and out-groups when power differences between the two sub-groups exist. How a member of an in-group perceives his/her membership within that in-group relative to other relevant out-groups affects the adequacy of his/her social identity in a given context. In a context where the in-group is perceived to be low in status, its members will tend to polarize and exemplify psychological and behavioral differences between themselves and members in the out-group (Turner, 1982). Through this psychological process, members of the in-group will increase the salience of their group membership (Deschamps, 1982), and this has implications for women's gender identity.

When in an organization men occupy and predominate in positions of authority while women fill in lower level positions, such a hierarchical group membership communicates to women that membership in their in-group is incompatible with membership in the out-group (men's group) that is in power (Ely, 1994). Women thus see themselves as a distinct group in the organization (Reskin, 1988) and exaggerate their differences from men alongside men's stereotypic perceptions of women (Ely, 1995). By contrast, when the career ladder is open for women such that they can be promoted to positions of authority, women's gender identity is less likely to be problematic. Female gender is no longer seen as incompatible with promotion and career success, and lower-level women are provided with an opportunity to identify themselves with senior women as role models (Ely, 1994). Moreover, when women are promoted to positions of authority, they obtain a vantage position to monitor apparent gender-related inequalities such as pay differentials, in the organization and may be willing to reduce them (Joshi et al., 2006). Thus, female representation in senior positions should be able to create conditions that dispose equitable allocations of organizational resources, including pay. Female representation in senior positions should also lead to attributions of gender identity of women different from those of gender identity when men make up the total representation in senior positions. In this

research companies with female representation in senior positions are defined as sex-integrated companies, while companies without female representation in senior positions are defined as male-dominated companies.

Hypothesis 1. In Taiwan, gender identity of female employees will differ between male-dominated companies and sex-integrated companies.

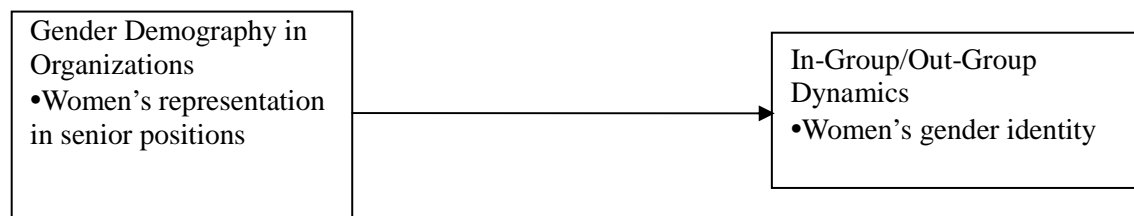
Hypothesis 1a. In sex-integrated companies, female employees will tend to see senior women as sources of support and validation for their career advancement.

Hypothesis 1b. In male-dominated companies, female employees will tend to see their gender as incompatible with performance and career advancement relative to those in sex-integrated companies.

Hypothesis 2. In Taiwan, perceptions of gender differences will be more distinct in male-dominated companies than in sex-integrated counterparts.

As noted above, the investigation in Taiwan should be important as traditionally women have had lower status than men and men have tended to occupy senior positions in companies. However, in recent years we have started to see more and more women in these positions, exerting influences in strategic decision making of companies. Given the hierarchical mindset of Chinese people, it may prove interesting to uncover whether or not female employees look upon senior women in the company as sources of gender identity. Chinese managers are also known for their paternalistic style of management (Chang, 1985; Redding, 1993). Will senior women also exhibit a similar managerial style and thereby look after subordinates of the same sex so that apparent inequalities between men and women are reduced? These are questions worthy of investigation. Figure 1 presents the research framework.

Figure 1 Research Framework



RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample and Procedures

Manufacturing companies were accessed for interviews of informants. In each company, the informants for interviews were the highest-ranking female manager and

at least three female employees (non-managerial level). The researcher approached senior managers of the sample companies to request an interview of the above mentioned informants. A total of 18 companies allowed the researcher to conduct the interviews on-site. Apart from the highest-ranking female manager that was previously designated, in principal three non-managerial, female employees were selected randomly at the time of interview. This makes up a total of 4 interviewees per company with the exception of company no. 2 and 4. Company no. 2 has only 1 employee available for interview, in addition to its Finance Manager. Company no. 4 designated its Finance Manager and 4 other employees for interview, in addition to its Chief of Staff. Six corporate CEOs or senior managers (all male) were interviewed to corroborate the interviews of corporate women. Table 1 presents company profiles. Table 2 presents the number of informants and the highest ranking women manager interviewed for each company.

Among the 18 companies, the highest-ranking female manager identified was a Vice General Manager (company no. 5). We also observed women serving as Chief of Staff (company no. 4), Director of the Management Division (company no. 13), and Management Representative (company no. 14). These companies are defined as sex-integrated as women were included in top management teams. The remaining companies were designated male-dominated. These companies may have female managers, specially finance managers. However, they may or may not be able to have their voices heard in corporate major decisions. Also their positions were highly protected by the functional roles they play and their influence did not stretch beyond the functional area. These companies were still qualified as male-dominated.

The interview of each informant lasted between 45 minutes to 2 hours. The researcher conducted all the interviews with one or two additional investigators taking notes and tape-recording the sessions. The researcher's notes and investigators' notes were corroborated immediately after the interviews. The notes were used as a guide to transcribe the recorded interviews verbatim. The transcribed protocols were than used for subsequent analysis.

Table 1. Profiles of Company

Code	Major Products	No. of Employees
1	Production automation equipment	400
2	Plastic valves	170
3	Ductile iron and gray iron castings and machined parts	200
4	Cooling products and solutions	250
5	Amusement Machine	120
6	Autolamps	2000
7	Plastic and steel tool box	180
8	Personal hygiene product	80
9	Metal printing	80
10	Metal parts and components for bicycles	80
11	Art glass lighting product	3000
12	PET, PP, PE bottle	700
13	Office product and lead frame	880
14	Bonded ring and oil seal	150
15	Fireplace accessories, office supplies, and bath safety product	65
16	Plastic injection and molding (cosmetics container)	220
17	Car and consumer electronics (phone set)	350
18	Semiconductor manufacturing	400

Table 2. No. of Informants and the Highest Ranking Women Manager Interviewed

Code	No. of Informants	The Highest Ranking Women Manager Interviewed
1	4	Finance Manager
2	2	Finance Manager
3	4	Finance Assistant Manager
4	6	Chief of Staff
5	4	Administration Vice Manager
6	4	No women manager available, only Accounting Supervisor
7	4	Vice General Manager
8	4	Administration Assistant Manager
9	4	No women manager available
10	4	No women manager available, only Accounting Supervisor
11	4	Special Assistant (Finance) to the Chairman of the Board
12	4	Finance Director
13	4	Director of the Management Division
14	4	Management Representative
15	4	Finance Manager
16	4	Finance Manager
17	4	HR Director
18	4	Sales Section Manager

Data Analysis

With in-depth interviews as the data collection methods, qualitative analysis is adequate in that it provides a “holistic and contextual portrayal” (Jick, 1979, 603) of women’s gender identity in the workplace. The analysis of data starts from differentiating between sex-integrated and male-dominated companies, followed by comparing perceptions of women’s qualities on job performance and career advancement and perceptions of gender differences between the two types of companies. The comparison was achieved by inspecting protocols denoting relationships between feminine qualities and women’s job performance and/or career advancement and semantics denoting masculine and feminine qualities.

Qualitative analysis was complemented by quantitative analysis. Each of the semantics denoting masculine or feminine qualities was coded. The number of coded masculine or feminine qualities that have implications on job performance and career advancement can be arrived at for both male-dominated and sex-integrated companies. This further serves as a basis for inspecting how feminine qualities were related to job performance and career advancement, and delineating the polarization of masculine and feminine qualities.

FINDINGS

Women’s Qualities on Job Performance and Career Advancement

Semantic differences can be observed between sex-integrated and male-dominated companies regarding how women’s qualities are perceived in terms of job performance and career advancement. In the male-dominated companies, women’s voices were neglected. One informant even described her observation that “women’s voices were intentionally neglected because their male superiors do not want women to be visible in the company.” Women work hard, but did not receive equal return in terms of pay raises and promotion. Women have to be satisfied with the status quo and should not express their desire for career advancement. Women were given job security in the company, and they still receive training for their work. However, their prospect for career advancement is limited.

In male-dominated companies, to advance a woman’s career is for her to be tough and aggressive like men. After their promotion, women managers still had to behave tough and aggressive so that they had a better chance to let their values and principles be heard and accepted in the company. This suggests that to advance in the career in manufacturing companies means to act like men. What is difficult for women is that as women were not given opportunities to grow in their knowledge, skills and capabilities, simply to act like men does not advance women’s careers. Women should spend time and efforts on self-learning. Women were only appreciated

when men see them as qualified – having the necessary capabilities, and are capable of contribute to what is valued by men in business.

In sex-integrated companies, women were given equal opportunities for training and development. Women's qualities were appreciated. In such companies, informants confidently expressed their contributions to the companies. Women were said to have better capabilities in carrying out a plan, and were logically consistent in their thinking. Women were also seen as better in their communication skills and more skillful in social interactions. Moreover, women were more able than men to come down off their high horses to negotiate, a quality important in business situations. Likewise, women were less egocentric than men so women were able to dedicate themselves fully to their work. Finally, women had a stronger desire to learn and to develop themselves than men.

Thus, in sex-integrated companies, women's qualities can be geared toward job performance and career advancement. In fact, women with their feminine qualities, along with their training and development received, can even outperform men. This positively reinforces the opportunities they can obtain for career advancement, and the companies are willing to train and develop their human resources, regardless of their gender.

Perceptions of Gender Differences

In the male-dominated companies, gender differences are polarized. Women were seen as lacking vision, and difficult to maintain relationships that are useful for organizational performance. Certain women qualities were appreciated, such as being careful. However, women play supportive roles in the company. This definition of women's roles coincides with the division of sex roles in a traditional sense in Taiwan – Men are breadwinners, while women are homemakers. Men should be responsible for the development of the whole company, while women are supportive only to help men attend to details.

In the male-dominated companies, women were seen as a group that needs protection. What is striking is in the assimilation process of sex roles, “women can be more tough and aggressive” than men and so much so that the informants said they even saw women fighting in the workplace. It has seemed that the message is clear: In male-dominated companies, to succeed in one's career is to exhibit men's qualities. In order for women to achieve high performance in their jobs and to advance their careers, women should identify themselves with men. Thus, women were a disadvantageous group in the company in terms of job performance and career advancement.

Some of the male-dominated companies have women serving as finance

managers. Through time they gained respect in their expertise. They expressed gaining trust from company CEOs by hard work, expertise that matches men and persistence. However, they did not see it as particularly necessary to help women lower down in the organizational hierarchy to advance their careers. Some of them maintained that it all comes down to one's abilities in terms of promotions. Partly, this may reflect the fact that women are less competitive in male-dominated companies. Partly these functional managers may start to see themselves indispensable in the companies and do not want their position replaced by other women.

In the sex-integrated companies, gender differences are less distinct. Women's qualities can be emphasized. Women are able to contribute to revenues and organizational expansion as men, whereas in the male-dominated companies, women were seen only able to contribute to saving costs. As in sex-integrated companies gender differences are less distinct, gender roles can be switched. For example, one informant judged that women had a better emotional quotient (EQ), which is good for career advancement. When approached with a question whom she would learn from to improve her EQ, the reply was her direct superior, who was male and had good EQ. This suggests women in the sex-integrated companies do not necessarily identify themselves with men's qualities for career advancement. They focus more on qualities that is not gender-biased and that is judged necessary for career advancement.

In sex-integrated companies, the senior women expressed their willingness to help lower-level women to advance their careers. Or at least they expressed opportunities for the companies to promote women. The mindset of "protectionism" observed among female managers in male-dominated companies is not salient in sex-integrated companies.

By counting the number of masculine and feminine qualities deemed necessary for career advancement in each company, differences were found between sex-integrated and male-dominated companies. Table 3 presents the analysis of 6 companies. As portrayed in Table 3, in sex-integrated companies, feminine qualities are much more valued than in male-dominated companies. By contrast, masculine qualities are more valued in male-dominated companies than in sex-integrated companies. This table supports the fact that the value of feminine qualities is perceived differently in sex-integrated and male-dominated companies.

Consistency was found between sex-integrated and male-dominated companies. Men are generally seen to have better physical strength while women are seen as able to attend to details. However, indeterminacy is also observed with regard to the definition of feminine qualities. For example, women are seen as having better communication skills and dedication to work than men in sex-integrated companies, while in male-dominated companies men are seen as better in communication and

dedication to work. This does portray that differences in social contexts may have led to different interpretations of masculine and feminine qualities.

Table 3. Qualities for Career Advancement

	No. of Masculine Qualities	No. of Feminine Qualities
Company 1	4	11
Company 2	2	7
Company 3	4	9
Company 4	5	0
Company 5	4	3
Company 6	8	1

Note: Companies 1-3 were sex-integrated. The remaining companies were male-dominated.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This report investigates the effect of female representation in senior positions on gender identity of women lower down in the organizational hierarchy. Interesting patterns of results were uncovered between male-dominated and sex-integrated manufacturing companies. In the male-dominated companies, feminine qualities were not favorable in job performance and career advancement. To advance in their careers, women had to engage in a process of assimilation so that they equip with masculine qualities. In such companies, gender differences were polarized. In sex-integrated companies, feminine qualities were valued for job performance and career advancement. The qualities pertinent to job performance and career advancement were less gender-biased. Inter-gender assimilation in terms of personal qualities and attributes can be observed. Women obtained better opportunities in developing their careers.

The differences of results between male-dominated and sex-integrated companies demonstrate the importance of inspecting gender-based in-group/out-group dynamics from a social point of view, rather than biological one (Ely, 1994, 1995). In male-dominated companies, the polarization of masculine and feminine qualities is tightly associated with the division of labor between men and women in the family, based on a biological view of sexuality. By contrast, in sex-integrated companies, women were more flexible in their roles played in their companies. They seem to have a better range of behavioral mode and qualities to choose from. Their qualities can

either be masculine or feminine. Feminine qualities do not carry a derogatory meaning. This social construction view of gender should be helpful in examining gender identity in the workplace in Taiwan.

This study has the following theoretical implications. First, prior research tends to focus on the effect of gender demography on group outcomes (e.g., Pelled, 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1997). This study suggests that change in gender demography in senior positions changes women's gender identity and their job satisfaction. Further, prior research may study the relationship between gender demography and group processes (e.g., Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). However, such research has not proposed a mechanism by which certain processes may emerge. This study addresses this drawback.

Second, the conception of manufacturing companies in Taiwan has been presumed to be predominantly male-dominated. This study challenges this prevailing conviction. Rather, gender in the workplace has been changing through time. With changes in female representation in the upper echelon, power differences between men and women starts to change. Subsequently gender identity and women's work experiences have been changing. This study also echoes Ely (1994, 1995) in the claims that gender demography should be examined from a view of social construction with the meaning, implications and impacts changing all the time. The findings should contribute to the establishment of a theory of gender demography in manufacturing companies in Taiwan.

Third, the key may be on how to initiate change in female representation at the higher level. The lower status individuals in the minority may or may not succeed in challenging the dominant cultural paradigm established and maintained by the majority group. Moreover, when confronted with the dominant view, some women may choose to be accommodating. Existing theories have been lacking in explaining when challenges will take place and when accommodation will be used. The differing coping strategies will lead to differing process and outcomes. This study has addressed some of the processes and outcomes.

This study also has practical implications. First, manufacturing companies in Taiwan are encouraged to accommodate and develop more women, specially for the higher level in the organizational hierarchy. Second, government policy should also pay attention to issues concerning utilizing and developing women. Balanced gender demography, or gender diversity, represents human resources with a gestalt of knowledge, skills and capabilities that should lead to improved organizational performance.

As a research implication, future studies should investigate the social contexts that lead to different interpretations of masculine and feminine qualities. Future

studies may also adopt a quantitative approach in investigating perceptions of masculine and feminine qualities necessary for job performance and career development. Finally, as this study mainly focuses on women's perceptions on masculine and feminine qualities, future studies can incorporate men's perceptions to gain a comprehensive view on the changing nature of gender-based differences.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This study has the following limitations. Future directions are also proposed. First, although this study focuses on manufacturing companies, bias may exist in the selection of companies and informants. Future research is encouraged with a design that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data collection. The number of company and informant can increase. Second, as mentioned above, this study has addressed some of the processes and outcomes differing coping strategies women can use in facing dominant cultural paradigms maintained by men. However, exactly what strategy will be used under what contexts has not yet uncovered. Future research is encouraged to address this issue. Third, this research focuses on women's perspectives. Although six male CEOs are interviewed to support the claims of female informants, future research following this line of enquiry should adopt a design that includes men's perspectives. Finally, this report has not investigated the effect of the size of in-group on the dynamics between in-group and out-group members. A relatively big size of an in-group is argued to benefit its members. Members of the in-group are better able to gain access to and controls over information, tangible and intangible resources, and social support than out-groups composed of the numerical minorities. This advantage can be strengthened by the tendency of human beings to favor their in-groups and discriminate against out-groups in resource allocations (see Hewstone, Rubin, & Willis, 2002 for a review). Thus, future research could investigate the effect of the size of in-group on the dynamics between in-group and out-group members. Such investigation should take place in the workgroup contexts.

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行政院國家科學委員會補助國內專家學者出席國際學術會議報告

2010 年 1 月 30 日

報告人姓名	許壹傑	服務機構 及職稱	彰化師範大學企業管理學系(所)
時間 會議 地點	2009 年 8 月 7 日至 8 月 11 日(參與日期為 8 月 9 日與 10 日)於美國伊利諾州芝加哥(Chicago)市	本會核定 補助文號	補助編號 NSC 96-2629-H-018 -001 -MY2
會議 名稱	(中文) 美國管理學會 2009 年會 (英文) 2009 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management		
發表 論文 題目	無發表(受邀參加)		
<p>報告內容應包括下列各項：下列各項相關內容請見次頁。</p> <p>一、參加會議經過</p> <p>二、與會心得</p> <p>三、考察參觀活動(無是項活動者省略)</p> <p>四、建議</p> <p>五、攜回資料名稱及內容</p> <p>六、其他</p>			

一、參加會議經過

此次 AOM 2009 年會，後學非常榮幸，受到 Dr. Ed Ng (Assistant Professor, Management & Human Resources California State Polytechnic University, Pomona, U.S.)之邀請而參加(邀請函請見附件一)，參加之場次為“Public Policy on Equal Treatment: A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study”，該場次之日期與時間為 2009 年 8 月 10 日 11:00-13:00，地點在 Hyatt Regency, Skyway 269。

後學先前應 Dr. Charles Wankel (Associate Professor of Management, St. John's University, New York)的邀請，參加一管理學教科書撰寫計畫，該教科書融入全球之觀點，使完成之教科書能流通世界各國，後學參與 diversity chapter 之撰寫，該章節之 team leader 便是 Dr. Ed Ng。經過一年多的合作，本章節之參與學者(加上 Journal of Organizational Change Management 的主編 Professor Slawomir Magala)的合作關係，由原先的教科書共同撰寫，昇華為共同研究與知識交流，期望在相關研究議題上有所貢獻。

“Public Policy on Equal Treatment: A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study”是一個研究會議，這個場次的目的，在於邀集並確認參與此研究計畫之學者，同時商討與規劃本研究計畫的進行方式。進一步言，本次會議初步達成下列共識：

1. 與會學者將彼此合作，撰寫出 4-6 篇文章，探討各國在促進就業平等政策上之比較，這 4-6 篇文章加上一篇總論式文章，將構成一期期刊之 special issue。然而該 4-6 篇文章尚未成型，因此必須等待成型之後，始能訂定該特刊之標題。
2. 與會中尚有學者建議為使該特刊具有公信力，該特刊尚需要有 Call for papers，涵蓋其他學者的作品。
3. 本會議結束後與會學者將持續進行討論，以進一步確立特刊之主題與發展分析與比較各國促進就業平等政策的 coding scheme。
4. 關於特刊的 proposal 預計於 2010 年春天提出。相關知會議議程與紀錄提供於附件二。

此次 AOM 年會，除了參與上述場次之外，尚參與兩場重要場次：

1. “Multidisciplinary teaching perspectives”：本場次之日期與時間為 8 月 9 日下午 4-6 時。有鑑於過去人類的經濟發展帶來地球可能的浩劫，本場次針對如何在企管教育中提升同學對於 sustainability issues 的認知進行座談，首先學者提出吾人需要針對 sustainability 這個名詞進行反思，何謂 sustainability? Sustainability 代表的是 economic success? Environmental stewardship? 抑或是 social stewardship? 透過討論，與會學者同意，基於時代的演進，sustainability 應該包含這三個面向，同時學者建議在同學的學習過程中，使用實驗活動 (experiential exercises)，例如將同學分組，針對目前世界上發生的 sustainability 相關議題，讓學生融入這些問題情境，並使其嘗試發展解決這些問題的策略規劃，如此將能使同學感同身受相關的議題，未來在職涯發展過程中，遇到相同的問題，學生將會把建立起來的思考模式加以運用，以有效處理 sustainability 的議題。
2. “Knowledge exchange and knowledge acquisition and innovation”：本場次之日期與時間為 8 月 10 日上午 8:00 至 9:30。簡要記述較重要的 papers 如下。首先，一篇以巴西公司為研究

對象的 paper 指出 performance-based pay/promotion 能正向影響 firm innovativeness, 本篇是西方激勵理論在拉丁美洲世界的驗證與延伸。再者, 製藥業透過合作進行醫藥發展的過程中, 常使參與合作的廠商陷入兩難, 為了獲取對方的知識以獲利, 我方也必須揭露自身的知識, 在一來一往的過程中, 結果變得難以預測, 對於這樣的現象, 英國學者透過進行 knowledge brokering organizations 的研究發現, 藉由 knowledge brokering organizations 的 selective brokering, 進行知識分享的廠商雙方都能夠在知識交換過程中, 保留所需保留的知識, 毋須進行過度的知識揭露, 於是皆大歡喜。最後, 中國大陸的學者嘗試探討資源基礎理論在大陸地區的適用性。本研究以大陸地區科技產業作為樣本, 了解智慧財產權的投資對於公司績效的影響, 結果出乎意料之外, 一反資源基礎理論的預測, 亦即廠商針對智慧財產權的投資, 非但不正向影響公司績效, 反而負向影響公司績效; 學者探究其原因, 大致上推估智慧財產權的立法環境對於負向關係具有舉足輕重的地位, 亦即中國大陸因欠缺良好的智慧財產權法, 足以保護投資智財權開發廠商的權益, 務使其不受非法廠商盜版與剽竊之損害, 一旦有新的智財權的申請, 該智慧財產便馬上遭到剽竊, 等於投資開發相關智財權的公司, 僅有成本的支出, 沒有實質之回收, 因此智財權投資與公司績效便呈現負向相關。

在此次會議中, 後學亦數度與 Dr. Aparna Joshi (School of Labor and Employment Relations, University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign) 會議, 就後學正在執行的性別科技研究計畫「職場性別組成對以性別為劃分基礎之內外團體互動之影響 – 在台灣的研究」進行探討, 就既有的實證資料的分析以及後續資料的蒐集等皆有所著墨。由於 Aparna Joshi 在相關領域的研究已累積數年, 對於相關文獻也熟悉, 因此在本研究計畫的執行上, 她能提供相當不錯的建議, 後學進一步邀請她持續與後學保持互動, 以利後學本計劃成果的累積。

值得一提的是, 在本次會議之前, 後學也前往 College of Business Administration, University of Missouri – St. Louis (UMSL) 與 Prof. Rajiv Sabherwal 進行研究討論, 後學停留於 St. Louis 的期間為 8 月 1 日至 8 月 8 日。此次會議的重點在於針對後學執行「台灣智慧資本整合型研究子計畫三: 組織知識管理模型之建構 – 人力資本之觀點(1/2)」(Toward a Model of Organizational Knowledge Management – A Human Capital Perspective; 計畫編號: NSC94-2416-H-018-007) 以及「台灣智慧資本整合型研究子計畫三: 組織知識管理模型之建構 – 人力資本之觀點(2/2)」(Toward a Model of Organizational Knowledge Management – A Human Capital Perspective; 計畫編號: NSC95-2416-H-018-001) 所蒐集到的實證資料進一步分析, 精進統計分析方法, 同時不斷修正以下兩篇文章, 務期能發表於知名之國際期刊:

Hsu, I.-C., & Sabherwal, R. 200X. Intellectual capital and knowledge management: An empirical study of their bi-directional relationship and effects on dynamic capabilities. Working paper.

Hsu, I.-C., & Sabherwal, R. 200X. Capabilities for knowledge enhancement and knowledge utilization: Relationships with dynamic capabilities and human, social, and organizational capital. Working paper.

除針對上述兩篇文章進行修改之外, 後學與 Prof. Sabherwal 亦以同樣的實證資料, 經由統計分析與驗證, 構思第三篇論文, 探究不同的知識管理活動對於不同的組織績效構面之間

的關係。本篇完成後，也將投稿知名之國際期刊，務使前述兩年期的研究計畫得以獲得最佳的成果。

二、與會收穫與心得

1. 針對後學於 2008 年參加 “Making a Large International Book Project Virtual Collaboration a Great Success” 一會議，後學得以結識相關學者，尤其是研究 diversity 議題的學者；透過此次 AOM annual meeting 參加 “Public Policy on Equal Treatment: A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study” 研究會議，後學得以進一步鞏固與相關領域的研究學者，產生一個互動良好的研究社群。
2. 針對後學在 2009AOM 年會中所參與的場次，後學得到了在相關議題啟動研究計劃的啟發與構想，例如性別多元與知識管理等兩大後學從事多年的研究議題，未來將逐步規劃與實施。
3. 與 Dr. Aparna Joshi 的討論，激發後學在既有性別科技研究計畫的靈感，後學將付諸實施，並且持續與之進行知識上的互動與交流，進一步確保本計劃的成果。
4. 後學參與 “Multidisciplinary teaching perspectives”，除了獲得教學與研究上之啟發之外，也是為了與一位先前於政治大學結識之學者進行進一步之互動，該學者為 Carolyn Egri (Faculty of Business Administration, Simon Fraser University, Canada)。Prof. Egri 引介後學認識其同事 Dr. Chris Zatsick，共同針對組織性別組成議題進行討論，也發展合作關係。
5. 訪問 Prof. Rajiv Sabherwal 期間，進一步深化後學與其的合作關係，更重要的是，具體的資料分析成果已經產生，論文也逐步撰寫。另外，後學也與 Prof. Sabherwal 規劃未來共同合作的研究議題，這個議題已經落實到後學目前執行之三年期研究計畫：「建構並驗證一個透過團隊知識分享效能以達成團隊績效的模型 – 一個縱貫性實驗與兩個實地研究」(NSC 98-2410-H-018 -018 -MY3)。
6. 整體收穫與感想：此次研討會以及國外研究行程，使個人有機會認識諸多相關領域學者，對於個人研究有最直接之助益者便是研究社群的產生 (policy research on equal treatment)，以及與過去結識的國際知名學者 (例如 Aparna Joshi、Rajiv Sabherwal 等人) 的進一步互動與合作，整體來說，此次的行程收穫頗豐，也是非常難得的學習經驗。

三、建議與結語

感謝國科會提供個人補助參與盛會，收穫豐富，切盼未來個人得以略盡微薄之力，使研究成果得以對我國管理學術發展產生實質上的助益。而後學在會後前往 St. Louis 與 Prof. Sabherwal 進行研究討論，共謀研究產出，規劃未來方向，也是後學在學術研究上持之以恆努力的具體展現。誠然，國際期刊的發表是當今考核一位學者的重點，但是後學深信嚴謹的過程始能有好的產出。

最後，後學先前曾建議國科會對於學者至國外進行合作研究多予以鼓勵，以協助學者多建立國際合作關係，提升研究質量。後學已經得到回應，就目前正在執行之國科會三年期計畫「建構並驗證一個透過團隊知識分享效能以達成團隊績效的模型 – 一個縱貫性實驗與兩個實地研究」，後學也獲得至國外進行合作研究之補助，在此由衷感謝，後學唯有持續努力與精

進, 貢獻一己微薄之心力。

四、攜回資料

1. 2009 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management 議程;
2. 多篇此次會議發表之論文;
3. 組織知識管理相關文獻;
4. Structural Equation Modelling 相關文獻。

附件一、2009 年 AOM Meeting 邀請函

From: "Dr. Eddy S. Ng" <esng@csupomona.edu>
Sent: Wednesday, July 08, 2009 11:21 PM
To: "Tui McKeown" <Tui.McKeown@buseco.monash.edu.au>; <MPABANGA@mopipi.ub.bw>;
"Rana Haq" <RaHaq@laurentian.ca>; "Booyesen, Lize" <BOOYSAE@unisa.ac.za>; "Nkomo,
Stella" <Nkomosm@unisa.ac.za>; "Susaeta, Lourdes" <LSusaeta@iese.edu>; "Corwin Hsu"
<fbhsu@cc.ncue.edu.tw>; <lillevik@tcnj.edu>; "Ferrante, Claudia J Dr. Civ USAFA/DFM"
<Claudia.Ferrante@usafa.edu>; "Regine" <Regine.Bendl@wu-wien.ac.at>; "Slawek Magala"
<SMagala@rsm.nl>; "Tae-Yeol" <bestkty@cityu.edu.hk>; "regine bendl"
<reginebendl@gmail.com>
Cc: "Dr. Eddy S. Ng" <esng@csupomona.edu>
Subject: Public Policy and Equal Treatment Caucus - 2009 AOM Chicago

Hello everyone:

I hope all is well with you. I just want to send out a reminder for our caucus, on Monday, Aug 10th at 11:00am, at the Hyatt Skyway 269. Given that we only have 90 minutes, I have prepared an agenda to guide our meeting. I have appended a copy of our original caucus proposal, as well as the agenda (page 3) here for your convenience.

I have also included a template country table which you should complete prior to the meeting. Rana Haq has created the table using a Canadian example. Given the diversity in the development of national legislations, feel free to omit or add to it. We will work out how best to categorize the differences in Chicago.

In case I have missed anyone, please feel free forward this on.

I am looking forward to our caucus meeting very much.

Safe travels and see you in Chicago!

Ed Ng
Ed Ng, PhD
Assistant Professor, Management & Human Resources
California State Polytechnic University, Pomona
www.csupomona.edu/~esng

附件二、「Public Policy on Equal Treatment: A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study」 Meeting
Agenda and Minutes

**Public Policy on Equal Treatment:
A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study**

Monday, August 10th, 2009

11:30am-1:00pm

Hyatt Regency, Skyway 269

Agenda:

1. Confirmation of Participants
2. Scope of Project
3. Completion of Country Tables
4. Proposal for Special Issue
5. Research Team; Abstracts
6. Timeline

**Academy of Management
Chicago 2009**

**Public Policy on Equal Treatment:
A Cross-Cultural, Multi-National Study**

**Monday, August 10th, 2009
11:00am-1:00pm
Hyatt Regency, Skyway 269**

Minutes of Meeting

1. Attendance – Regine Bendl (Vienna U.), Claudia Ferrante (U.S. Air Force Academy), Rana Haq (Laurentian U.), Corwin I-Chieh Hsu (National Changhua U.), Waheeda Lillevik (C. of New Jersey), Tae-Yeol Kim (City U. Hong Kong), Slawek Magala (Erasmus U.), Eddy Ng (California State Polytechnic U.)
2. Ed proposed that we put together a special issue based on a collection of 4-6 papers written by research group. Suggestions include a comparison of the public policies among different countries, and a lead article based on the development of an index or continuum. The topic or theme has not been decided but should not replicate the book projects.
3. Claudia and Regine had experiences putting together special issues and indicated that there should be a call for papers. One alternative is to have a pre-determined set of articles and a call for add'l papers.
4. The choice of journals will be determined after the topic or theme has been decided. Everyone agreed to extend the discussions online (see next item), after the meeting.
5. The agreed upon timeline for a proposal is Spring 2010. Ed suggested March 2010.
6. Ed will set up Bb at his campus to facilitate discussions and moving the project forward.

Meeting was adjourned around 1:00pm.