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A Critical Look at a Classic Paper: Fama's "The Behavior of Stock Prices"

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In 1965 Eugene Fama published "The behavior of stock market prices", Journal of Business, vol. 38, 34-105. That paper consists of basically two parts. In the first part Fama argued that the distribution of the rate of return is Pareto-stable with characteristic exponent less than 2, therefore having infinite variance. In the second part he argued that the daily returns of individual stocks were serially independent. The issues, however, are somewhat more complicated than two parts I mentioned would imply.

This presentation begins with a discussion of the analysis of the characteristic exponent and pointing out some of the shortcomings, then turns to the analysis of serial correlation and point out some of the shortcomings in that section. Neither of the claims is well supported, even if we neglect the fact that recorded prices for transactions are not continuous. After that, an important interaction is considered: one of the methods of estimating the characteristic exponents is, according to Fama, biased if the sample has serial autocorrelation in the sample, but Fama's conclusion that there is no significant autocorrelation is based, in part, on his assessment that if the sample has infinite variance then the usual tests for autocorrelation fail. Results presented in the paper suggest that the sample autocorrelation is actually biasing the estimates of characteristic exponent downward, at least for that one method of estimation.

Finally I will deal with an issue on which Fama presents very little information but one that is crucial to the whole paper: are the series of rates of return stationary? The little evidence on stationarity presented in the paper suggests rather strongly the one series on which data are presented was not stationary. Fama presented this as a representative example, so that suggests that a basic assumption in the analysis, that the series are stationary, does not hold over the period of time represented in Fama's data.





An Empirical Study of the Real Estate Prices with Spatial Correlation of Shopping District

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the difference of the prices of real estate in the three groups. There are 256 data chose form Taichung city and 121 data chose form Kaohsiung city. The classification depends on (1) the distance from shopping district is 500m. (2) the distance from shopping district is 500m to 1000m. (3) the distance from shopping district is 1000m to 1500m. The data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by rank, Wilcoxon rank sum test and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Our results show that (1) the prices of real estate in Taichung city is significantly different among the three classification and the rank sum test in statistic also significantly in two groups of three classification. (2) the prices of real estate in Kaohsiung city is not significantly among three classification. (3) the spatial correlation exists in Kaohsiung city and Taichung city.

Keywords: Shopping District, Spatial Correlation, Rank Test, The Price of Real Estate

1. Introduction

According to the report of Business Week (2010), average monthly salary of Taiwan's employees of non-governmental enterprises is NT43, 000 in 2008. Contrasting to 1999, average monthly salary only raises 5.4%. In this decade, the real wage rate have decreased -4.3% after deducting inflation rate. In the 31 main enterprises which employees exceed 50K, almost 80% real wage rate decreased. Figure 1 shows nominal and real wage rates in the U.S.A. between 1982 and 2006. The real wage rate remained steady as the nominal wage rate increased because the nominal wage rate grew at a rate almost equal to the inflation rate (Bade and Parkin, 2009).



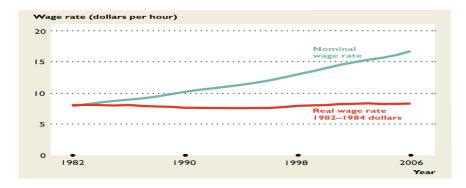


Figure 1 nominal and real wage rates in the U.S.A.: 1982-2006

However, Taiwan's nominal GDP have increased 29.4%, real GDP is still 17.5% after deducting inflation rate. Like America, there is a big distance between real GDP and real wage. In the past ten years, we found that the economy grew but real wage decreased. Therefore, in this era age, an ordinary office worker depend on their salary to pay the cost of living, it is not enough to let them improve standard of living. Generally speaking, there are two ways to change this situation: the first choice is start a business. According to 104 website, in the "Survey of intention to start a business in 2010", we found that there are 82.8% interviewee would like to establish a business, but not everyone can afford the risk of fail in business.

Hence, there is an opportunity to be rich is to learn investing, but in this elaboration was not said that the investment all does not have the risk. If they invest in bond, it only needed several thousand dollar costs, the risk is relatively small. The target of our research is to focus on big amount investment in real estates. Location is one of the important issues to decide the value of real estate, and this research's key point is the place which the real estate sets. We will study the distance between every real estate and shopping district, then applies the non-parametric test and multiple regression model to inspect that the distance of real estate and shopping district whether to affect its prices.

2. Literature review

In the retailing management, market place is an essential issue how it becomes rise or decline in future. Therefore, there will be more effective and efficient if we choose a right place. So, before discussing the research of right place, the first job is to understand the definition of shopping district and classify main shopping district. This chapter is sorted out the past literate's reference about this definition and classification.

2.1 Shopping district and characteristics

General speaking, shopping district refers to the metropolis of a country, and the trade activity is more centralized in business street. The definition and explanation will be different because of the



different scholars.

2.1.1 Definition of shopping district

The American Marketing Association (2011) defines shopping district as a district the size of which is usually determined by the boundaries within which it is economical in terms of volume and cost for a marketing unit or group to sell and/or deliver products. It is also referred to as shopping radius. The store street counseling development center, department commerce, ministry of economic affairs, R.O.C. (2011) defines shopping district as many shop set together in a place, e.g. Ximen shopping district, Kaoshiung President shopping district and so on.

Huff (1964) describes shopping district as a statistical and more extended concept, "a geographically delineated region containing potential customers for whom there exists a probability greater than zero of their purchasing a given class of products or services offered for sale by a particular firm or by a particular agglomeration of firms". Research method can use the inspection method or mathematics method to define for it. Definition which can be obtained by the inspection method:

- 1. The proportion of consumers patronizing in a given shopping district varies with distance from the shopping district.
- 2. The proportion of consumers patronizing in various shopping districts varies with the breadth and depth of merchandise offered by each shopping district.
- 3. The distances that consumers travel to various shopping districts varies for different types of product purchases.
- 4. The "pull" of any given shopping district is influenced by the proximity of competing shopping district.

We use mathematical model to explain proportion of region retailing affected by nearby city, this mathematical model is:

$$\frac{B_a}{B_b} = \left(\frac{P_a}{P_b}\right)^2 \times \left(\frac{D_b}{D_a}\right)^2 - \dots$$
 (1)

B_a: Attracted by City a then set up shop at central trading area's proportion

B_b: Attracted by City B then set up shop at central trading area's proportion

Pa: Population of City A

P_b: Population of City B

Da: Distance between central shopping district and City A

D_b: Distance between central shopping district and City B



From the right way of equation (1), we can use the population, shopping district and distances between city A and B to estimates the left way of equation (1). The value of right way namely represents the proportion value received that comes to set a shop by the city A and city B attraction.

Applebaum(1966)defines that shopping district is a sequence space, store have period business time in this structure. Besides that, it also evaluate the formation of shopping district's specification, the factors include convenient (e.g. transportation, communication, public facilities), population (e.g. population composition, population density, population growth, standard of living, consuming standard and the buying habit), competition situation (competitiveness standard and speed of quality increased between trade union. Levy and Weitz (1995) defines that" a store's sales volume and the geographical region of customer, which can divide into main shopping district, the secondary shopping district and edge business.

We can combined all the definition of shopping district above, we found that "consumer", "store" and "geographical region" are three essential to make a shopping district. Hence, in the certain region will attract the potential consumer and make profit.

2.1.2 Types of shopping district

In the aspect of classification shopping district, store is form by group of store. We can not use easily by single classification to distinguish. Scholar accord to different viewpoint came up with various type of shopping district. This way will help retailer find their trading area's character, scope and competitive situation.

2.2 Definition of real estate

Real estate, average people will think about house and land combination, include three significations: "House" which means house building, "Ground" which mean land, and "Property" which means right of property. If we need to invest one commodity, before taking action, firstly we must understand this commodity's feature and reduce the investment's risk of real estate.

2.2.1 Factors that affect real estate value

There are four factors will affect real estate: house structure, environment, traffic accessible, politics and economics. Different country, different region, different culture and different life habit will affect real estate property. When the time change, every factor that affect level also will be adjusted (court, 1939; Lancaster, 1966; Ridker & Henning, 1967; Griliches, 1971; Rosen, 1974; Li & Brown, 1980; Thibodeau, 1989; Clapp, et al., 1991; Pace, 1995; Anglin & Gencay, 1996; Thorsnes & McMillen,

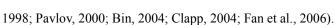




Table 1: The factors that affect real estate

Structure	Environment	Transport Accessible	Economic and Politic
Floor space Quantity of room Quantity of bathroom Safety system Light and ventilation Framework Design Parking facility Quality of building material Direction Type of building Years of house Total storey Construction company	Zone Width of road Using District Public security situation Hospital and clinic Market Public recreation facility Cemetery and cinerarium Crematory Nursing home Garbage Dump Noise Quality of air	Distance to the town center Distance to the public vehicle station sign Distance to the school Distance to the market Distance to the park	Supply of real estate Supply amount of money Rate of unemployment Share index Interest rate Loan quotation Loan period Public construction Politic stable

The Real estate can divide to private user and public facilities. In the public facilities can divide again to large public facilities and small public facilities. Large public facilities are all the community can share public facilities, such as park, parking lot, social hall and so on. As far as small public facilities are residents in same building using and sharing a mutual lift lobby, stairway and corridor.

Now, many family own two car and above, so car park is necessary condition. If real estate do not have car park will be more difficult for sale. Car park can divide into plane type and mechanical type. Plane type will more convenient and safe, the price is also higher than mechanical type. Highest-level garage certainly is located within the real estate. Generally woman will feel fear when enters alone the underground car park, so some safe convenience's parking facility is the modern female biggest expectation. Therefore, the good parking facility can enhance the real estate value moreover easily to hand over.

In conclusion, all the factors above, we can find that location is an important factor that will decide the price of real estate. While the real estate is located at the city center, around various type of shopping district, transportation convenience and beside the MRT, the price will relatively high. In this research we emphasize on trade area's distance will affect its price.

3. Research Methods

This chapter carries on the synopsis to the object of study, and then elaborates this article in the analytic hypothesis. Finally the third part is to introduce statistical method of this research.



3.1 Information describes

Our research's information, the most is provided by Sinyi House property online system, emphasize on Taichung and Kaohsiung cities, below will make description to shopping district of department store, specify their opening time, location and region zone.

After refer to literature review, there are no rule for shopping district's range, therefore this research's information will use common real estate company which is 500m per limit, take 3 range, is real estate away from shopping district of department store less than 500m, is real estate away from shopping district of department store in range 500m to 1000m and is real estate away from shopping district of department store in range 1000m to 1500m. It will take the information to make the single factor rank variance analysis examination and regression analysis.

Taichung Area: Taichung Zhong-You shopping district, Taichung Zhong-GangRoad shopping district. Taichung 7th shopping district

Kaohsiung Area: Kaohsiung Arena · Wu-Fu shopping district · Sanduo shopping district

3.2 Descriptive of variables

Because this research's statistical method divides into two kind of test, respectively be non-parametric test and multiple regression model, therefore in the information variable's reorganization, will divide into two patterns. the goal of non-parametric test is, whether the price per meter square will be different due to the difference of interval distance among 3 kind of interval distance. As the basis of mainly examined is distance, therefore the setting of the variable is shown as table 2:

Table 2: Introduction of non-parametric test's variable

Variable name	Meaning	The setting of the Research	
X_{ij}	Distance	$X_{ij} = 0$, under 500m; $X_{ij} = 1$, between 500m and 1000m; $X_{ij} = 2$,	
		between 1000m and 1500m	
Y_{ij}	Price per	Total Price ÷ meter square	
	meter square		

For the second part, we introduce the variable of multiple regression analysis. The setting is as below:

- 1. Area X_0 : Taichung area, express $X_{i0} = 0$; Kaohsiung area, express $X_{i0} = 1$
- 2. Distance 1: distance with shopping district of department store in 500 meters, express X_{i1} = 1; with distance out of 500m, which express X_{i1} = 0.
- 3. Distance 2 : distance with shopping district of department store in 500m to 1000m, express $X_{i2}=1$; distance out of 500 m to 1000m, which express $X_{i2}=0$ °
- 4. Floor space: the measure of area is the real estate's floor space, general speaking, the floor area is larger, the price of house is higher.
- 5. Years of house: From the year of real estate is built to present.



- 6. Parking lot: Variable X_{i5} is express whether it has parking lot, if it has express $X_{i5}=1$; if not, express in $X_{i5}=0$ \circ
- 7. Distance 1×the floor space: Interaction of distance 1 and the floor space.
- 8. Distance 1×year of house: Interaction of distance 1 and years of house.
- 9. Distance 1 × parking lot: Interaction of distance 1 and parking lot.
- 10. Distance $2 \times$ the floor space: Interaction of distance 2 and the floor space.
- 11. Distance 2 × year of house: Interaction of distance 2 and year of house.
- 12. Distance 2 × parking lot: Interaction of distance 2 and parking lot.
- 13. Parking lot × the floor space: Interaction of parking lot and the floor space.
- 14. Parking lot × years of house: Interaction of parking lot and years of house.

3.3 Research method

We assumed that the model include spatial correlation and shown below:

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{c} + \beta_{0}X_{i0} + \beta_{1}X_{i1} + \beta_{2}X_{i2} + \beta_{3}X_{i3} + \beta_{4}X_{i4} + \beta_{5}X_{i5} + \beta_{6}X_{i1}X_{i3} + \beta_{7}X_{i1}X_{i4} + \beta_{8}X_{i1}X_{i5} + \beta_{9}X_{i2}$$

$$X_{i3} + \beta_{10}X_{i2}X_{i4} + \beta_{11}X_{i2}X_{i5} + \beta_{12}X_{i3}X_{i5} + \beta_{13}X_{i4}X_{i5} - (2)$$

3.3.1 Kruskal-Wallis H test

The Kruskal-Wallis H test is the non-parametric alternative to a one-way between-group analysis of variance. It is used to compare population location parameters (mean, median) among two or more groups based on independent samples (Pallant, 2007).

Null hypothesis $H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = ... = \theta_k$

Alternative hypothesis $H_1: \theta_i \neq \theta_j$ for at least one pair (I, j)

Test statistic $h = \frac{h^*}{\left[1 - \frac{c}{N(N^2 - 1)}\right]}$ (3)

Decision rule reject H_0 if $h > x_{k-1}^2(\alpha)$

Where
$$h^* = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \left[\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{R_i^2}{n_i} \right] - 3(N+1)$$

$$R_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} r_{ij}$$
, for i=1,2,...,k

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and $j=1,2,...,n_i$, $r_{ij}=$ rank of y_{ij} over the k combined samples.

In this research, is used to examine whether three medians of independent samples are equal,

examines whether three data of independent samples have the same probability assignment. This

examination does not need to know the random variable beforehand the assignment. In this research,

the material grouping's basis is distance, divides into three groups according to the distance with

shopping district of department store. Y is the price of real estate per meter square, and therefore

 $Y_{11} \cdot Y_{12}$...express grouping data.

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way rank analysis of variances (ANOVA) are sometimes known as

assumption-free tests, meanwhile most of these tests are suitable for the principle of ranking the data.

That is, finding the lowest score (under 500m) and giving it a rank 1, then finding the next highest

score (between 500m and 1000m) and giving it a rank of 2, and so on. In this research's grouping basis

is distance, three intervals distance to the sector for the first interval in 500 meters; the second group is

500 meters to 1000 meters; the third group is 1000 meters to 1500 meters. So the null hypothesis states

that the three medians (η) of rank are equal, the expression is as follows:

 $H_0: \eta_1 = \eta_2 = \eta_3$

H₁: At least one of the medians is different from the others

3.3.2 The Wilcoxon rank-sum test and Mann-Whitney rank-sum test

The Mann-Whitney rank-sum test (Mann and Whitney, 1947; Field, 2009; Kremelberg, 2011) is

used for testing whether two groups differ from each other based on ranked scores. This test is the

non-parametric equivalent of the independent samples t-test. It does not assume a normal distribution.

The rank sum test is used to test the null hypothesis that the two population distribution functions

corresponding to the two random samples are identical against the alternative hypothesis that they

differ by location. The Wilcoxon rank sum test is equivalent to the Mann-Whitney U test (Walker, 2002;

Field, 2009).

The hypothesis of equal medians would be supposed by similar average ranks between the two

groups. The test statistic, using a 0.5 continuity correction, is based on an approximate normal

distribution, summarized as follows:

Null hypothesis

 $H_0: \eta_1 = \eta_2$

Alternative hypothesis

 $H_1: \eta_1 \neq \eta_2$

10



$$Z = \frac{|R_1 - \mu_{R_1}| - 0.5}{\sigma_{R_1}}$$
 (4)

where η_1 and η_2 represent the median or other location parameters for the two population.

 μ_{R_1} is the expected value of R_1 under H_0

$$\mu_{R_1} = \left[\frac{n_1}{N}\right] \left[\frac{N(N+1)}{2}\right] = \frac{n_1(N+1)}{2}$$

Additionally, σ_{R_1} is the variance of R_1

$$\sigma_{R_1}^2 = \frac{n_1 \times n_2}{12} (N+1)$$

3.3.3 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho)

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is a standardized measured of the strength of relationship between two variables that does not rely on the assumptions of a parametric test. It is performed on data that have been converted into ranked scores (Spearman, 1910; Kremelberg, 2011).

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient takes on values between -1 and 1 inclusive:

$$-1 \le r_s \le 1$$

Spearman's rho (Kutner et al., 2005) is defined as

$$r_s = \frac{\sum (R_{i1} - \overline{R}_1)(R_{i2} - \overline{R}_2)}{\left[\sum (R_{i1} - \overline{R}_1)^2 \sum (R_{i2} - \overline{R}_2)^2\right]^{1/2}}$$
 (5)

Null hypothesis H_0 : There is no association between Y_1 and Y_2

Alternative hypothesis H_1 : There is an association between Y_1 and Y_2

3.3.4 Multiple linear regression

Multiple linear regression analysis is used when several quantitative factors $(x_1, x_2,...,x_n)$ affect a criterion variable (Yockey, 2008). Establishes a relationship for a criterion variable and two or more predictor variables, we assumed the multiple linear regression model.



$$Y = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + \dots + b_i X_i$$
 (6)

The examination of null hypothesis correlation coefficient b_i are all 0, indicated by H_0 ; The opposition supposition any b_i is bigger than 0, indicated by H_1 ; The expression is as follows:

 $H_0: b_1 = b_2 = = b_i = 0$

 $H_1: b_1=0$, or $b_2=0$, ..., or $b_i=0$

Chapter 4 Analytical Results

This article studies the data of real estate which provides by the Xinyi Real Estate on-line system, period was in 2009 August to 2010 February, Taichung city material total is 256, and Kaohsiung city material total is 121. The research refers to Taichung area and Kaohsiung area, the analysis process carried on the one-way non-parametric rank test. If we find at least one of the medians is different from the others on the results of Kruskal-Wallis H test, it will carry on the test of rank and the multiple comparisons between two groups of the examination of independent samples. The third part will carry on Spearman's rank correlation to find the strength of relationship between two variables. Finally, we use multiple linear regression analysis to find which quantitative factors $(x_1, x_2,...,x_n)$ affect a criterion variable the material.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Before carrying on the statistical analysis, we need to calculate a number of descriptive statistics, including its frequencies, maximum, minimum value, measures of central tendency, and measures of variability. Measures of central tendency consist of the mean, median, and the mode. Measures of variability contain the standard deviation and variance. There are 256 cases in Taichung city and 121 cases in Kaohsiung city.

4.2 Taichung shopping district

4.2.1 The Kruskal-Wallis H test of Taichung shopping district

The Kruskal-Wallis H test is used to examine whether two or more groups affect the dependent variable. This research divides the distance between the real estate and shopping district into three groups, and we want to test if there is a difference in price per meter square across three kinds of distances. In Table 3, the significant level was 0.000. This value is less than the alpha level of 0.05, so these results suggest that there is a difference in price across the different distances between the real estate and Taichung shopping district.



Table 3 The Kruskal-Wallis H test statistics for price of house

kinds	Price of house (Y)
Chi-square	37.818
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

- a. based on 256sampled tables
- b. kruskal-Wallis Test

4.2.2 The Mann-Whitney rank-sum test for Taichung shopping district

Though this test tells us only that a difference exists; it doesn't tell us exactly where the differences lie. We use the Mann-Whitney rank-sum test to examine whether two groups differ from each other based on ranked scores.

(1) Distance A versus distance B

For this data, Table 4 shows the output for the Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests. In this Table, the Z value is -4.455 with a significant level of p=0.000. The probability value (P) is less than to 0.05, so the result is significant for price between two distances. That is, these results suggest that there is a significant difference in price across the distances A and distance B between the real estate and Taichung shopping district.

Table 4 The Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests for distance A versus distance B

tests	Price of house (Y)
Mann-Whitney U	1914
Wilcoxon W	6964
Z	-4.455
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a.0(distance A small than 500 meters); 1(distance B between 500 and 1000 meters)

b. based on 165 sampled tables

(2) Distance A versus distance C

Table 5 shows the output for the Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests. In this Table, the Z value is -5.786 with a significant level of p=0.000. The probability value (P) is less than to 0.05, so the result is significant for price between distance A and distance C. That is, these results suggest that there is a significant difference in price across the distances A and distance C between the real estate and Taichung shopping district.



Table 5 The Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests for distance A versus distance C

tests	Price of house (Y)
Mann-Whitney U	1348
Wilcoxon W	5534
Z	-5.786
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a.0(distance A small than 500 meters); 2(distance B between 1000 and 1500 meters)

(3) Distance B versus distance C

Table 6 shows the output for the Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests. In this Table, the Z value is -2.511 with a significant level of p=0.012. The probability value (P) is less than to 0.05, so the result is significant for price between distance B and distance C. That is, these results suggest that there is a significant difference in price across the distances B and distance C between the real estate and Taichung shopping district.

Table 6 The Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests for distance B versus distance C

tests	Price of house (Y)
Mann-Whitney U	3592
Wilcoxon W	7778
Z	-2.511
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.012

a.1(distance B between 500 and 1000 meters); 2(distance C between 1000 and 1500 meters)

We summarize the results above and show in Table 7, the house price exist difference in three intervals.

b. based on 156 sampled tables

b. based on 191 sampled tables



Table 7 summaries of three examinations

Group	p-value	Sig.
distance A versus distance B	.000	significant difference
distance A versus distance C	.000	significant difference
distance B versus distance C	.012	significant difference

4.2.3 Spearman correlation analysis of Taichung shopping district

Table 8 provides a result of the Spearman correlation coefficients for three variables with price. Price of house is negatively related to distance of Taichung shopping district with a Pearson correlation coefficient of r = -0.372 and the significance value is less than 0.001. The significance value tells us that the probability of getting a correlation coefficient if the null hypothesis were true is very low. Hence, we can gain confidence that there is a real relationship between price of house and distance. The table also shows that price of house is positively related to the area of house, with a coefficient of 0.435, which is also significant at p<0.001. Finally, price of house appears to be negatively related to the years of house, r=-0.761, p<0.001.

Table 8 Spearman correlation analysis of Taichung

	ı v	
Name of	Price of house (Y)	Results
Variables		
distance	Correlation Coefficient: -0.372,	Price of house is negatively related to distance of
	Sig.: .000	Taichung shopping district
Area of	Correlation Coefficient: 0.435,	price of house is positively related to the area of house
house	Sig.: .000	
Years of	Correlation Coefficient: -0.761,	price of house appears to be negatively related to the
house	Sig.: .000	years of house

4.3 Kaohsiung shopping district

4.3.1 The Kruskal-Wallis H test of Kaohsiung shopping district

In Table 9, the chi-square is 1.809, with a significant level of 0.405. This value is large than the alpha level of 0.05, so these results suggest that there is no significant difference in price of house across the different distances between the real estate and Kaohsiung shopping district.

Table 9 The Kruskal-Wallis H test statistics for price of house

kinds	Price of house
Chi-square	1.809
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.405

- c. based on 121 sampled tables
- d. kruskal-Wallis Test



4.3.2 Spearman correlation analysis of Kaohsiung shopping district

Table 10 provides a result of the Spearman correlation coefficients for three variables with price of house. Because the significance value is large than 0.001, there is no significant evidence that the correlation between the price and distance. The table also shows that price of house is positively related to the area of house, with a coefficient of 0.243, which is also significant at p<0.001. Finally, price of house appears to be negatively related to the years of house, r=-0.731, p<0.001.

Table 10 Spearman correlation analysis of Kaohsiung

Name of	Price of house (Y)	Result
Variables		
distance	Correlation coefficient: -0.118,	Because the significance value is large than
	Significant: .199	0.001, there is no significant evidence that the
		correlation between the price and distance.
floor space	Correlation coefficient: 0.243,	Because the significance value is less than
	Significant: .007	0.001, there is a significant evidence that price
		of house is positively related to the area of
		house.
years of house	Correlation coefficient: -0.731,	Because the significance value is less than
	Significant: .000	0.001, there is a significant evidence that price
		of house appears to be negatively related to the
		years of house.

4.4 Multiple linear regression analysis

In the previous tests, we find that there is significant difference between Taichung and Kaohsiung. We gain confidence that there is a real relationship between price of house and distance in Taichung's real estate, but there is no significant evidence that the correlation between the price and distance in Kaohsiung's real estate. The previous tests also shows that price of house is positively related to the area of house both in Taichung and Kaohsiung. The large the floor space of house, the higher the price of house.

In multiple linear regressions, there are separate null and alternative hypotheses for each predictor variable. So, each predictor variable has its own coefficient, and the outcome variable is predicted form a combination of all the variables multiplied by their respective coefficient plus a residual term. The table 11 provides the necessary values to construct a regression equation and to test each of the predictors for significance. In this simple multiple linear regression, only parking lot is not significant



predictor of price of house. An equation is created in the form of

$$y = 12.29 - 2.09x_{\text{regioon}} + 2.62x_{\text{distance1}} + 0.67x_{\text{distance2}} + 0.04x_{\text{floor space}} - 0.29x_{\text{house age}} - \dots (7)$$

Table 11 List of simple multiple regression analysis

Variables	Coefficients	Sig.	results
Constant	12.29	0.00	Significant
Region	-2.09	0.00	Significant
Distance1	2.62	0.00	Significant
Distance2	0.67	0.049	Significant
Floor space	0.04	0.00	Significant
House age	-0.29	0.00	Significant
Parking lot	0.16	0.669	Not Significant

a. Significance α is $0.05\,$

In table 12, we consider the interaction of two predictors. A new equation is created in the form of

$$y = 12.5 - 1.86x_{\text{regioon}} - 0.19x_{\text{house age}} + 0.04x_{\text{parking lot*floor space}} - 0.02x_{\text{parking lot*house age}} - \cdots (8)$$

b. Total data 377



Table 12 Total coefficient of multiple regression analysis

Variables	Estimate Value	Sig.	results
Constant	12.5	0.000	Significant
Region	-1.86	0.000	Significant
Distance 1	1.1	0.406	Not Significant
Distance 2	1.01	0.386	Not Significant
Floor space	-0.01	0.639	Not Significant
House Age	-0.19	0.000	Significant
Parking lot	1.3	0.214	Not Significant
Distance 1 x Floor space	0.034	0.09	Not Significant
Distance 1 x House Age	-0.07	0.223	Not Significant
Distance 1 x Parking lot	0.39	0.686	Not Significant
Distance 2 x Parking lot	0.03	0.866	Not Significant
Distance 2 x House Age	-0.02	0.704	Not Significant
Distance 2 x Parking lot	-0.53	0.523	Not Significant
Parking lot x Floor space	0.04	0.028	Significant
Parking lot x House age	-0.2	0.000	Significant

a. Significance α is $0.05\,$

Chapter 5 Conclusions

This article examines whether the distance between real estate and shopping district affect the price of house in Taichung and Kaohsiung city. We summarize in table 13 and table 14.

Table 13 The results of ranking test and post-test in Taichung area

Taichung area	Research of Result and Analysis		
1. The Kruskal-Wallis H test	These results find that there is a difference in price of house across		
	the different distances between the real estate and Taichung		
	shopping district.		
2. The Mann-Whitney rank-sum	There are significant difference in price across the distances A and		
test	B, the distances A and C, and the distances B and C between the real		
	estate and Taichung shopping district.		
3. Spearman correlation	There are significant evidences that the prices of houses are		
analysis	negatively related to distance of Taichung shopping district and the		
	years of house. We also find that price of house is positively related		
	to the floor space of house.		

b. Total data 377



Table 14 the results of ranking test and post-test in Kaohsiung area

Kaohsiung area	Research of Result and Analysis
1. The Kruskal-Wallis H test	There is no significant difference in price of house across the different distances between the real estate and Kaohsiung shopping district.
2. Spearman correlation analysis	Because the significance value is large than 0.001, there is no significant evidence that the correlation between the price and distance.
	There is significant evidences that the price of house is negatively related to the years of house. We also find that price of house is positively related to the floor space of house.

For Spearman correlation test, we compared the price of house with distance, floor space of house and Years of house in Taichung's data and Kaohsiung's data. The results of tests show as table 15.

Table 15 Taichung and Kaohsiung Data's Spearman correlation test

Variables	Taichung's data	Kaohsiung 's data
Distance	Negatively relevant	No evidence show that is relevant
Floor space	positively relevant	positively relevant
Years of house	Negatively relevant	Negatively relevant

In this simple multiple linear regression, only parking lot is not significant predictor of price of house. An equation is created in the form of

$$y = 12.29 - 2.09x_{\rm regioon} + 2.62x_{\rm distance1} + 0.67x_{\rm distance2} + 0.04x_{\rm floor\ space} - 0.29x_{\rm house\ age}$$

If we consider the interaction of two predictors, a new equation is created in the form of

$$y = 12.5 - 1.86x_{\rm regioon} - 0.19x_{\rm house~age} + 0.04x_{\rm parking~lot*floor~space} - 0.02x_{\rm parking~lot*house~age}$$

Finally, we show and explain simple multiple regression analysis as Table 16

Table 16 Simple regression variable table

Two to simple regression	
Variables	Test Result
Region X _{i0}	The price of Taichung's house is higher than Kaohsiung's house.
Distance $1(X_{\square 1}=1)$	The price of house is highest in 500m.
Distance $2(X_{\square 2}=1)$	The price of house is second high between 500m to 1000m.
Distance $3(X_{\square 1} = 0, X_{\square 2} = 0)$	The price of house is lowest between 1000m to 1500m.
Floor space	The larger the Floor space of house, the higher the price of house.
Years of house	The higher of house age, the lower the price of house.



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Forecast Future Economic Growth: Evidence from the Taiwan Stock Market

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ABSTRACT

We try to examine whether the four-factor model proposed by Carhart (1997) i.e., market premium (MKT), book-to-market premium (HML), and size premium (SMB) and momentum factor (WML) is able to forecast future economic conditions. Using data in Taiwan, we show that only WML has a significant ability in predicting future economic growth, and its predictive ability is not subsumed by business cycle variables. Overall, our results do not support a risk-based explanation for the performance of HML and SMB, suggesting that HML and SMB are not proxies for investment opportunities.

Keywords: Risk Factor, Economic Growth, Book-to-Market, Size, Momentum

1. Introduction

Fama and French (1993) suggest that the factors associated with market premium (MKT), size (SMB), and book-to-market ratio (HML) can explain more than 90% of the time-series variation in portfolio returns in the U.S. market. And Carhart(1997) suggest that there is the fourth important factor, the momentum factor. The four- factor model can explain better than three-factor model proposed by Fama and French (1993). More importantly, Fama and French (1996) suggest that HML and SMB might proxy for state variables that depict time variation in the investment opportunity set. This risk based explanation is in the context of Merton's (1973) Intertemporal Capital Asset Pricing Model (ICAPM).

Many studies have indicated the existence of correlation between value premium and innovations in investment opportunities (Campbell and Vuolteenaho, 2004; Brennan, Wang and Xia, 2004; Hahn and Lee, 2006; Petkova, 2006; Guo, Savickas, Wang, and Yang, 2009). They document that there are strongly countercyclical variations in the expected premiums of HML and SMB. Although the evidence that firms with a high book-to-market ratio (BM), small market capitalization, and higher prior short-run returns tend to have high future returns has been documented worldwide, there are some exceptions. For example, Chui and Wei (1998) observe that BM and size fail to explain the



cross-sectional stock returns in the markets of Thailand and Taiwan. Chen and Zhang (1998) further conclude that high average returns on high BM and small size stocks tend to persist in the developed market of the United States, are less persistent in the growth markets of Japan, Hong Kong, and Malaysia, and are virtually nonexistent in the high-growth markets of Thailand and Taiwan. They argue that value stocks in both markets do not behave like "fallen angels" at all. Rather, they have yielded positive excess returns in the past and can be expected to behave similarly in the future.¹

It is plausible to conjecture that if size and BM ratio are not able to explain cross-sectional stock returns, then HML and SMB in the Taiwan stock market might not be risk factors. That is, the HML and SMB might not be related to future growth in the real economy. This paper attempts to examine the risk-based hypothesis behind the performance of HML and SMB by relating the risk factors to macroeconomic variables and business cycle fluctuations in a market in which the value effect is absent.

Following Liew and Vassalou (2000) and Fama and French (1993), we construct return-based factors in the Taiwan stock market. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding the book-to-market ratio constant. In a different manner from Liew and Vassalou (2000), we construct the returns on the WML (winner minus loser) factor as long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant, since the number of stocks in the Taiwan stock exchange is relatively small compared to

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¹ Chiang, Qian and Sherman (2010) document that Taiwan has one of the most active stock markets in the world. By the end of year 2000, there were 531 companies listed on the Taiwan Stock Exchange (TSE) with a total market capitalization of 8.2 trillion New Taiwan Dollars (NT\$), and the TSE ranked No. 11 in the world according to the World Federation of Exchanges website. In the year 2000, the total trading volume of the TSE was NT\$ 30.5 trillion, and the TSE ranked No. 16 in the world. In the same year, the Over the Counter (OTC) market in Taiwan listed 300 companies with a total market capitalization of NT\$ 1.1 trillion and had a total trading volume of NT\$ 4.5 trillion. By the end of year 2009, the total market capitalization of the Taiwan Stock Exchange (TSE) was 21.0 trillion New Taiwan Dollars (NT\$) according to the World Federation of Exchanges website.



some developed markets, such as the U.S. and Japan stock markets

Collectively, our findings do not support Fama and French's (1993 and 1996) risk hypothesis. They suggest that size and BM related factors, SMB and HML, are state variables in Merton's ICAPM, since these two risk factors can predict future changes in the investment opportunity set. However, at least in Taiwan, this is not the case. However, WML have a significant ability in predicting future economic growth. That is, the future economic growth is positively associated with past WML premium.

Moreover, the business cycle variables do not subsume WML's predictive ability. By contrast, the predictive power of HML and SMB in future economic growth is poor, and this evidence is inconsistent with the findings of Liew and Vassalou (2000). The countercyclical variation in future economic growth is unrelated to the past performance of these two factors. In sum, our results do not support a risk-based explanation for the performance of HML and SMB.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes our data and methodologies. In Section 3 we discuss the empirical evidence and Section 4 concludes the paper.

2. Data descriptions and risk factor construction

2.1 data

Monthly stock returns and accounting information of listed non-financial firms are extracted from the Taiwan Economic Journal (TEJ) databank. Annual accounting data are collected from 1998 to 2009, totaling 6,934 firm-year observations. Monthly stock returns are available from July 1999 to December 2010, providing a maximum of 138 monthly observations for each stock.²

In order to avoid the so-called look-ahead bias, we match accounting data at the fiscal year-end in calendar year t-1 to stock returns for the period between July of year t to June of year t+1. Firm size is measured by market value of equity, defined in turn as the product of stock price and the number of shares outstanding at the end of June in year t. The book-to-market equity is computed as the book equity of the firm for the fiscal year ending in year t-1 divided by its market equity in December of year t-1.

2.2 Risk factors

MKT is the excess monthly market return. SMB, HML, and WML are the monthly returns on the

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² The TEJ dataset is widely used by finance and accounting studies, many of which have been published in important journals, e.g., Chiang, Hirshleifer, Qian, and Sherman (2011), Chiang, Qian, and Sherman (2010), Lee, Liu and Zhu (2008), and Lee, Liu, Roll, and Subrahmanyan (2004). For more information, see the website: www.tej.com.tw.



factor-mimicking portfolios, and reflect premiums on size, BM, and momentum effects, respectively. Following Fama and French (1993), HML and SMB are constructed as follows. At the beginning of each July from 1999 to 2009, all stocks are allocated to two size groups (small and big, S and B) based on whether their June market equity is below or above the median market equity. Then, all stocks are independently allocated to three BM groups (low, medium, and high; L, M, and H) based on the breakpoints for the bottom 30 per cent, middle 40 per cent, and top 30 per cent of the values of BM. Six size/BM portfolios (S/L, S/M, S/H, B/L, B/M, and B/H) are constructed from the intersections of the two size and the three BM groups. The value-weighted returns on them are calculated from July to the next June, the first 12 months after formation. The portfolio return HML is the difference between the average returns on the S/H and the B/H portfolios and the average returns on the S/L and the B/L portfolios. Similarly, the SMB is the difference between the average returns on the S/L, S/M, and S/H portfolios and the average returns on the B/L, B/M, and B/H portfolios.

In a different manner from Liew and Vassalou (2000), we construct the returns on WML (winner minus loser) as long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant. This is to reflect the small number of stocks in the Taiwan stock exchange. WML is constructed as follows. At the beginning of each July from 1999 to 2009, each stock in a given sample is assigned to one of five portfolios based on its prior 12-month cumulative returns. Portfolio "Loser" ("Winner") refers to the portfolio with the lowest (highest) prior 12-month cumulative returns. WML denotes the zero-investment portfolio formed by buying the past winner portfolio and short selling the past loser portfolio. The portfolio returns are value-weighted.

2.2 Economic variables

Following prior studies (Petkova and Zhang, 2005; Liew and Vassalou, 2000), the following variables are used to proxy for business cycle fluctuations. We use market return (MKT), dividend yield (DY), short-run interest rate (TB), term spread (TERM), and growth in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and the Industrial Production (IDP). All economic variables are also extracted from TEJ.

DY is the aggregate dividend yield for the market. We use the three-month Treasury bill (TB) as the short-run interest rate. TERM is the difference between the ten-year government bond yield and the TB.

All GDP and IDP are seasonally adjusted by TEJ. All returns and growth rates in this paper are continuously compounded. The macroeconomic variables cover the period from 2000:Q1 to 2010:Q4.

As reported in Table 1, the number of firms increases from 351 to 730 over the sample period. The total market value of all the firms in our sample increases from \$5,552 NTD billion to \$18,287 NTD billion. The economic growth rates are all positive except in years 2001 and 2008. The Gross Domestic



Product (GDP) increases from \$ 2,338 NTD billion to \$ 3,240 NTD billion. The average annual returns on four types of risk factors, MKT, HML, SMB, and WML, are 3.28%, 8.18%, 2.77%, and 1.59%, respectively, and are all insignificantly different from zero. Table 2 presents summary statistics of business cycle variables.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

This table presents summary statistics of our sample over time from the end of 1998 through the end of 2009. The variables include the number of stocks, median book-to-market ratio (BM), aggregate market value (MV in millions NTD) of all stocks, Gross Domestic Product (GDP in millions NTD), the growth rate of GDP (g_{GDP}), and annual returns on MKT, HML, SMB, and WML. MKT is the excess monthly market return. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding book-to-market ratio constant. The returns on WML (winner minus loser) are long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant.

Yea	r # of firm	Median BM	MV	GDP	g _{GDP} (%)	MKT(%)	HML(%)	SMB(%)	WML(%)
1998	351	0.60	5,552,606	2,338,405	4.27	-26.25	-6.79	-7.79	-6.48
1999	9 416	0.75	9,102,916	2,438,502	4.28	26.02	-30.11	-39.04	19.97
2000) 470	1.25	6,794,778	2,571,886	5.47	-46.45	-1.11	4.84	-18.79
200	511	1.05	8,579,477	2,516,138	-2.17	13.23	-42.61	24.84	16.42
2002	572	0.93	7,119,831	2,632,064	4.61	-21.28	102.91	17.75	7.99
2003	610	0.79	10,340,341	2,763,783	5.00	30.87	14.19	-5.59	-4.00
2004	4 624	0.86	10,792,817	2,822,098	2.11	3.12	37.03	-9.72	7.07
2003	5 641	0.87	12,597,452	3,042,402	7.81	5.24	-24.77	2.71	18.48
2006	654	0.72	16,075,257	3,133,285	2.99	17.60	23.25	14.10	-11.18
2007	7 672	0.76	18,457,626	3,320,222	5.97	6.68	-5.64	0.85	-6.24
2008	683	1.42	9,859,891	3,034,954	-8.59	-47.15	8.17	2.64	0.70
2009	730	0.67	18,287,393	3,240,526	6.77	77.69	23.64	27.59	-4.92
Mear	n 578	0.89	11,130,032	2,821,189	3.21	3.28	8.18	2.77	1.59
Std	. 117	0.24	4,374,294	329,009	4.51	35.19	38.07	17.96	12.41



Table 2: Summary Statistics of Business Cycle Variables

This table presents statistics of business cycle variables. The period is from 2000:Q1 to 2010:Q4. DY is aggregate dividend yield; TB is short-run interest rate; TERM is term spread between a ten-year government bond yield and TB, and g_{IDP} is the growth rate of Industrial Production. All variables are in percentage.

	Mean	Median	Std.	Q1	Q3	Min	Max
DY	4.37	4.17	1.45	3.42	5.22	2.28	9.83
TERM	1.00	0.99	0.60	0.44	1.59	-0.10	2.23
g_{IDP}	0.02	0.02	0.09	0.00	0.09	-0.23	0.20
TB	2.05	1.66	1.34	1.02	2.37	0.29	4.40

3. Empirical results

3.1 Characteristics of the HML, SMB, and WML strategies

At the beginning, we examine the performance of MKT, HML, SMB, and WML in the Taiwan stock market during our sample period. Table 3 presents the returns on the different strategies in monthly and quarterly frequencies. All strategies are rebalanced annually. Consistent with Chui and Wei (1998) and Chen and Zhang (1998), we find that returns on these strategies are not significantly different from zero in the Taiwan stock market for monthly and quarterly frequencies, implying that the value strategy does not work in the Taiwan stock market. The predictive powers of these four factors for stock returns seem to be limited. In the following sections, we examine the question of whether factors that fail to explain stock returns are capable of predicting future economic growth.



Table 3: Performance of MKT, HML, SMB, and WML

This table presents the average monthly and quarterly performance of MKT, HML, SMB, and WML over the period from July 1999 to December 2012. MKT is the excess monthly market return. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding book-to-market ratio constant. The returns on WML (winner minus loser) are long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant. The t-ratios are reported in parentheses. All variables are in percentage.

	MKT	HML	SMB	WML
Monthly returns				
Mean	0.29	0.72	0.38	0.42
t-ratio	(0.44)	(1.17)	(1.12)	(0.81)
Quarterly returns				
Mean	0.85	2.73	1.87	0.85
t-ratio	(0.36)	(1.33)	(1.57)	(0.46)

3.2 The relationship between the HML, SMB, and WML and future economic growth

This section investigates a possible relation between the return on HML, SMB, and WML and future economic growth. Specifically, we examine the performance of these three factors at different stages of future economic growth. For each quarter t, we calculate its continuously compounded growth rate of GDP (t, t+4) in the next four quarters and its continuously compounded returns (t-4, t) to HML, SMB, WML, and MKT in the past for quarters. For example, suppose t = 2000:Q3; we calculate the growth rate of GDP for the period of 2000:Q3 to 2001:Q2, and the compounded returns of factors for the period of 1999:Q4 to 2000:Q3. We then sort the GDP growth rate for all quarters (t, t+4) into high and low groups. We define the terms "high" and "low" in relation to the median of future GDP growth: "high" groups are located above this median and "low" groups are below it. Since our annual growth rate and compounded holding period return have three overlapping quarters, we use the Newey and West (1987) method with lag 3 to correct the serial correlation problem.



The results in Table 4 show that WML is positively related to future growth in the macroeconomy. That is, high WML portfolio returns are followed by periods of high GDP growth, and low portfolio returns are followed by periods of low GDP growth. The difference in returns between high and low economic states is significantly positive for WML. The evidence indicates that the weak predictability of stock returns does not necessarily lead to weak predictive power with respect to future economic growth. While the monthly and quarterly returns for the WML strategy are not statistically significant, suggesting its inability to predict stock returns, a positive relationship between past WML and future economic growth still exists. In the following sections, we investigate the link between WML and future economic growth in a more stringent and comprehensive manner.

Note, first, that the relationship between Fama and French's (1993) three factors, i.e., MKT, HML, and SMB, and future economic growth is insignificant. The countercyclical variation in future GDP seems to be independent of the past MKT, HML, and SMB. This is inconsistent with the risk-based explanation, indicating that HML and SMB are not proxies for investment opportunities.

Table 4: Past Annual Performance of MKT, HML, SMB, and WML Conditional on Future

Economic Growth

This table presents the average annual performance of MKT, HML, SMB, and WML over the period from 2000:Q1 to 2010:Q4. MKT is the excess monthly market return. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding book-to-market ratio constant. The returns on WML (winner minus loser) are long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant. For each quarter t, we calculate its continuously compounded growth rate of GDP (t, t+4) over the next four quarters and its continuously compounded returns (t-4, t) to HML, SMB, WML, and MKT over the past four quarters. We sort the growth rate of GDP (t, t+4) over all quarters into high and low groups. We define "high" economic groups as those states located above the median of future GDP growth. The t-ratios are reported in parentheses. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively. All returns are in percentage.



States	g_{GDP}	MKT	HML	SMB	WML
High	6.78***	-2.91	11.59	5.39*	9.16**
t-ratio	(13.15)	(-0.40)	(1.50)	(1.87)	(2.37)
Low	-0.31	4.21	4.49	4.31	-3.42
t-ratio	(-0.34)	(0.73)	(0.89)	(1.13)	(-1.19)
Difference	7.09***	-7.13	7.10	1.08	12.58***
t-ratio	(6.60)	(-0.71)	(0.72)	(0.23)	(2.64)

We further test the relationship between risk factors and future GDP growth by using regression analysis. Table 5 presents the results from the regression of future GDP growth on past returns to HML, SMB, WML, and MKT.

$$g_{GDP(t,t+4)} = b_0 + b_{MKT}MKT_{(t-4,t)} + b_{HML}HML_{(t-4,t)} + b_{SMB}SMB_{(t-4,t)} + b_{WML}WML_{(t-4,t)} + e_{(t,t+4)},$$
 (1) where $g_{GDP(t,t+4)}$ is the growth rate of GDP, and risk factors include MKT, HML, SMB, and WML. GDP growth rate and factor returns are defined similarly to the definitions in Table 3.

Table 5 shows the results. For all specifications, only WML has predictive power for future economic growth. The explanatory power measured by an adjusted R² increases approximately 4 times, from 3.20% to 16.58%, when WML is added as an additional explanatory variable in model 12. Particularly, the relationship between future GDP growth and HML, SMB, and MKT is not significant. That is, the three factor model of Farma and French contains little information about future economic growth. This finding is again inconsistent with the risk-based hypothesis.

The positive relationship between WML and future GDP growth suggests that past winners are more like to earn positive returns than past losers when periods of high economic growth is expected, and vice versa. The economic sense is that when the economy is expected to be in low state, investors will tend to hold stocks with a relatively low price (past loser); when the economy is expected to be in a high state, they will tend to be willing to hold stocks with a relatively high price (past winner).



Table 5: Regression Analysis

This table presents time series regressions of GDP growth rate on past annual MKT, HML, SMB, and WML over the period from 2000:Q1 to 2010:Q4. MKT is the excess monthly market return. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding book-to-market ratio constant. The returns on WML (winner minus loser) are long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant. For each quarter t, we calculate its continuously compounded growth rate of GDP (t, t+4) over the next four quarters and its continuously compounded returns (t-4, t) to HML, SMB, WML, and MKT over the past four quarters. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

Adj_R ² (%)	WML	SMB	HML	MKT	Intercept	Model
0.54%				-0.01	0.03***	1
		•		(-0.46)	(4.10)	
1.21%		•	0.02		0.03***	2
			(0.69)		(3.82)	
0.14%		0.01			0.03***	3
		(0.23)			(3.92)	
9.67%	0.09^{**}				0.03***	4
	(2.04)	•			(3.84)	
1.24%		0.00	0.02		0.03***	5
		(0.10)	(0.65)		(3.69)	
1.85%			0.02	-0.01	0.03***	6
			(0.71)	(-0.50)	(3.79)	
0.73%		0.01		-0.01	0.03***	7
		(0.27)		(-0.48)	(3.89)	
10.60%	0.10^{**}			-0.02	0.03***	8
	(2.07)			(-0.63)	(3.83)	
12.03%	0.10^{**}		0.03		0.03***	9
	(2.16)		(1.01)		(3.45)	
11.99%	0.11**	0.05			0.03***	10
	(2.26)	(1.00)			(3.37)	
1.90%		0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.03***	11
		(0.14)	(0.66)	(-0.50)	(3.66)	
15.18%	0.12**	0.05	0.02	-0.02	0.02***	12
	(2.37)	(0.92)	(0.89)	(-0.80)	(3.09)	



3.3 The relationship between the HML, SMB, and WML and business cycle variables

In this section, we attempt to examine how much of the information contained in WML can be attributed to business cycle variables. We adopt the following specification.

$$g_{GDP(t,t+4)} = b_0 + b_{MKT}MKT_{(t-4,t)} + b_{HML}HML_{(t-4,t)} + b_{SMB}SMB_{(t-4,t)} + b_{WML}WML_{(t-4,t)} + b_{TB}TB_t + b_{DY}DY_t + b_{TERM}TERM_t + b_{g_{DP}}g_{IDPt} + e_{(t,t+4)},$$
(2)

where DY is the aggregate dividend yield; TB is the short-run interest rate; TERM is the term spread between a ten-year government bond yield and TB, and g_{IDP} is the growth rate of industrial production. Table 6 presents the results. Most importantly, they indicate that the predictive power of WML still remains even after controlling for business cycle variables. For example, the WML coefficients of all models that include it as an explanatory variable are statistically significant. This suggests that the predictive power of WML is not subsumed by business cycle variables. Again, the predictive abilities of MKT, HML, and SMB are nonexistent. The evidence does not support the risk hypothesis.

Table 6: Regression analysis with business cycle variables

This table presents time series regressions of GDP growth rate on past annual risk factors and quarterly business cycle variables over the period from 2000:Q1 to 2010:Q4. MKT is the excess monthly market return. HML (high minus low) is the return to a zero-cost portfolio that is long on high book-to-market stocks and short on low book-to-market stocks, holding size constant. Similarly, SMB (small minus big) are returns to long-short portfolios constructed in terms of market capitalization, holding book-to-market ratio constant. The returns on WML (winner minus loser) are long-short portfolios using momentum information, while not holding the other two attributes (size and BM ratio) constant. For each quarter t, we calculate its continuously compounded growth rate of GDP (t, t+4) over the next four quarters and its continuously compounded returns (t-4, t) to HML, SMB, WML, and MKT over the past four quarters. DY is the aggregate dividend yield; TB is the short-run interest rate; TERM is the term spread between a ten-year government bond yield and TB, and g_{IDP} is the growth rate of Industrial Production. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.



Model	Intercept	DY	TERM	g_{IDP}	TB	MKT	HML	SMB	WML	Adj_R ²
1	0.02	0.00								1.11%
	(0.63)	(0.66)								
2	0.02^{*}		0.01	•						0.75%
	(1.68)		(0.54)							
3	0.04***			-0.19**						12.97%
	(4.84)			(-2.41)						
4	0.07***				-0.02***					22.94%
	(5.37)				(-3.41)					
5	0.14***	-0.01*	0.00	-0.27***	-0.02***	-0.04				43.28%
	(3.00)	(-1.81)	(0.09)	(-2.95)	(-4.03)	(-1.29)				
6	0.11***	-0.01	0.00	-0.29***	-0.02***		0.00			40.59%
	(2.61)	(-1.31)	(0.19)	(-2.90)	(-3.13)		(0.05)			
7	0.11***	-0.01	0.00	-0.28***	-0.02***			-0.01		40.67%
	(2.64)	(-1.33)	(0.15)	(-3.06)	(-3.68)			(-0.23)		
8	0.09^{**}	-0.01	0.00	-0.25***	-0.02***				0.08^{**}	47.42%
	(2.27)	(-0.88)	(0.36)	(-2.87)	(-3.91)				(2.13)	•
9	0.12***	-0.01	0.00	-0.24***	-0.02***	-0.04			0.08^{**}	49.91%
	(2.64)	(-1.42)	(0.25)	(-2.69)	(-4.13)	(-1.30)			(2.12)	•
10	0.15***	-0.01*	0.00	-0.24**	-0.03***	-0.05	-0.02			43.96%
	(2.99)	(-1.90)	(0.06)	(-2.30)	(-3.40)	(-1.43)	(-0.64)			
11	0.14***	-0.01*	0.00	-0.27***	-0.02***	-0.04		-0.01	-	43.43%
	(2.96)	(-1.81)	(0.03)	(-2.87)	(-3.91)	(-1.29)		(-0.30)	-	•
12	0.11***	-0.01	0.00	-0.29***	-0.02***		0.00	-0.01		40.68%
	(2.57)	(-1.31)	(0.15)	(-2.84)	(-3.06)		(0.06)	(-0.23)	-	•
13	0.09^{**}	-0.01	0.00	-0.27***	-0.02***	٠	0.01		0.08^{**}	47.66%
	(2.13)	(-0.87)	(0.36)	(-2.80)	(-3.01)		(0.40)		(2.14)	
14	0.09^{**}	-0.01	0.01	-0.25***	-0.02***			0.02	0.09^{**}	47.95%
	(1.98)	(-0.77)	(0.48)	(-2.85)	(-3.50)			(0.59)	(2.18)	
15	0.12**	-0.01	0.00	-0.23**	-0.02***	-0.04	-0.01	0.02	0.09**	50.38%
	(2.19)	(-1.29)	(0.33)	(-2.27)	(-2.87)	(-1.18)	(-0.23)	(0.48)	(2.01)	

4. Conclusions

The main objective of this study is to examine the relationship between the HML, SMB, and WML risk factors and future economic growth. We adopt data from the Taiwan stock market and show that the evidence violates a risk-based explanation of the returns of HML and SMB. It seems that HML and SMB do not represent systematic risk in Taiwan, and thus they cannot proxy for time-varying investment sets. However, WML has predictive power for future economic growth, and its predictive power cannot be subsumed by business cycle variables.



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The Adjustment of Capital Structure of Firms in the Steel Industry of Taiwan

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ABSTRACT

Recent studies have found that firms may deviate from their target capital structure over time but adjust toward the target in the long term. However, little attention has been so far given to address the issue in the steel industry. This paper takes the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage into account to investigate the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry of Taiwan. Controlling for the possible impact of financial crisis, this study was conducted at years of economic trough and peak during the period of 1981-1996. Empirical results show that, first, firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage finance less debt than do firms with the financial constraint of under-leverage relative to the target capital structure. Second, the adjustment of debt ratios is statistically significant and positively related to economic growth but negatively related to macroeconomic conditions. Finally, firms adjusted very slowly toward their target debt ratios.

Keywords: Capital Structure, Partial Adjustment Model, Steel Industry.

1. Introduction

Aggregate economic activities fluctuate along with the shifts in economic conditions that arise from ups and downs of the business cycle. Corporate performance may also vary with economic conditions over the business cycle. In particular, corporate profit increases during economic expansion but decreases during economic contraction for firms in cyclical industries that include capital goods and consumer durables (Reilly and Brown, 2000). Some recent studies such as Korajczyk and Levy (2003), Hackbarth, Miao and Morellec (2006), and Yeh and Roca (2007) suggested that capital structure is influenced by macroeconomic conditions. In addition, recent studies (Byoun, 2008; Flannery and Rangan, 2006; Hovakimian et al., 2001) have found that firms may deviate from their target capital structure over time but they would adjust toward the target in the long run. Steel industry, a capital-intensive and technology-intensive industry, plays an important role in nation's defense and the economy and, in addition, its performance varies cyclically with macroeconomic conditions over time. However, little attention has been given to the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry. This study is conducted to fill the gap and provides



evidence on the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry.

2. Literature Review

After Modigliani and Miler (1958), most of prior studies addresses the determination of capital structure at the firm and industry level. These prior studies have so far documented some common determinants of capital structure at the firm and industry level. Some recent studies have found that economic growth and macroeconomic conditions affect the determination of capital structure of firms (Feidakis and Rovolis, 2007; Hackbarth et al., 2006; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003; Levy and Hennessy, 2007; Yeh and Roca, 2007). Korajczyk and Levy (2003) tested whether the tradeoff theory and the pecking order theory can explain the effect of macroeconomic conditions on capital structure. In their study, they found that capital structure is counter-cyclical for financially unconstrained firms. Further, Hackbarth et al. (2006) analyzed credit risk and capital structure in their contingency-claims model and found that default thresholds are countercyclical. They contended that corporate leverage should be counter-cyclical to the shifts in economic conditions. Levy and Hennessy (2007) developed a general equilibrium model explaining corporate financing over the business cycle. They argued that, to avoid agency conflicts, firms substitute debt for equity during periods of economic contraction to maintain managerial equity shares. During periods of economic expansion, managerial risk-sharing improves and firms substitute equity for debt. In their simulations, they found counter-cyclical variation in leverage for financially less-constrained firms. Based on the findings of these prior studies, capital structure is negatively related to macroeconomic conditions. However, Yeh and Roca (2007) found positive effect of economic growth and macroeconomic conditions on the debt ratios of firms in the plastics and textile industries of Taiwan during the period of 1981-1996. Moreover, little attention has been thus far given to examine the adjustment of capital structure in the steel industry. This study is conducted to provide insight into the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry over the business cycle.

3. Method and Data

3.1 Model for the Adjustment of Capital Structure

Several studies (Byoun, 2008; Flannery and Rangan, 2006; Hovakimian et al., 2001; Marsh, 1982; Taggart, 1977) suggest that firms adjust toward the target capital structure over time. The econometric model, i.e. the partial adjustment model, posits that actual level may deviate away from the target level in the short run but would adjust toward the target in the long run. The partial adjustment model fits with the adjustment behavior of capital structure of firms. Following prior studies such as Flannery and Rangan (2006) and Byoun (2008), this paper utilizes the partial adjustment model to examine the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry over the business cycle. Given a positive adjustment rate in the partial adjustment model, the adjustment of capital structure can be expressed as a proportion (i.e. adjustment rate) of the difference between the target capital structure and the capital structure of previous period. If the adjustment rate is equal to 1, then firms make an



incomplete adjustment and deviate from their target capital structure. The partial adjustment model of capital structure is written as follows:

$$Y_{t} - Y_{t-1} = \gamma (Y_{t}^{*} - Y_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_{t}$$
(1)

where, Y_t : the capital structure at year t, Y_{t-1} : the capital structure at year t-1, γ : the rate of adjustment toward the target capital structure, Y_t^* : the target capital structure at year t and ε_t : error term. Assume that firms in the steel industry have the same rate of adjustment toward the target capital structure. Given a positive adjustment rate (γ) in the standard partial adjustment model, i.e. Equation 1, the change in capital structure depends on the difference between the target capital structure and the previous capital structure. When the target capital structure of firms is higher than their previous capital structure and the difference is positive, firms face the financial constraint of under-leverage relative to the target. Given a positive rate of adjustment toward the target in the model, the greater the adjustment rate, the greater is the increase in capital structure. On the other hand, when the target capital structure of firms is lower than their previous capital structure and the difference is negative, firms face the financing constraint of over-leverage relative to the target. The greater the adjustment rate, the greater is the decrease in capital structure. In addition, according to the theory of capital structure, firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage would finance less debt than do firms with the financial constraint of under-leverage relative to the target capital structure due to higher risk and costs of bankruptcy. Thus this study modifies the standard partial adjustment model and includes the financial constraint (FC) of over-lever1ge and under-leverage relative to the target capital structure in the model for the adjustment of capital structure of firms.

Further, the target capital structure is unobservable in the application of the partial adjustment model. It is assumed that, as suggested by recent studies (Chu et al., 1992; Feidakis and Rovolis, 2007; Flannery and Rangan, 2006; Hovakimian et al., 2001; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003), the target capital structure of firms in the steel industry is a linear function of their determinants, namely economic growth, macroeconomic conditions and firm characteristics. Therefore, in addition to the inclusion of financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage in the partial adjustment model, this study estimates target capital structure through these determinants for examining the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry. The modified partial adjustment model for the adjustment of capital structure of firms is written as follows:

$$Y_{t} - Y_{t-1} = \beta_{FC} FC + \gamma (\beta_{EG} EG + \beta_{EC} EC + \beta_{X} X - Y_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_{t}$$
(2)

where, Y_t^* : the target capital structure at year t, β : regression coefficients, FC: financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage relative to the target capital structure, EG: economic growth, EC: macroeconomic conditions, X: firm-specific variables, Y_{t-1} : the capital structure at year t-1 and ε t: error term.



As discussed earlier in this section, firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage would finance less debt than do firms with the financial constraint of under-leverage due to higher risk and costs of bankruptcy. Based on Equation 2, the adjustment of capital structure would be negatively related to the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage. Further, the adjustment of capital structure would be positively related to economic growth, as suggested by Feidakis and Rovolis (2007). The adjustment of capital structure would be negatively related to macroeconomic conditions, as suggested by prior studies (Hackbarth et al., 2006; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003; Levy and Hennessy, 2007).

3.2 Variables and Their Measures

The dependent and independent variables used in this study are calculated at book value of annual financial data. As suggested by previous studies, the total debt ratio is used as the proxy for capital structure. Thus, annual change in total debt ratios (dDR) is used as the proxy for the adjustment of capital structure. Given a positive rate of adjustment toward the target debt ratios, firms would make a negative (positive) adjustment when they face the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage relative to their target. Thus, the binary dummy variable DFC with the value of 1 and 0 for negative and positive adjustment of debt ratios, respectively, is used as the proxy for the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage. Further, annual growth rate of the real gross domestic product (gGDP) is used as the proxy for economic growth, as suggested by Feidakis and Rovolis (2007). In addition, the binary dummy variable DEC with the value of 0 and 1 for years at economic trough and peak, respectively, is used to represent the shifts in macroeconomic conditions, as suggested by recent prior studies (Hackbarth et al., 2006; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003; Levy and Hennessy, 2007).

Furthermore, the natural logarithm of net sales (lnS) is used as the proxy for firm size (Booth et al., 2001; Chu et al., 1992; Huang and Song, 2006; Rajan and Zingales, 1995; Titman and Wessels, 1988; Wiwattanakantang, 1999). Annual growth rate of total assets (gTA) is used to measure growth opportunities (Titman and Wessels, 1988). The ratio of operating income to total assets (OITA) is used as a proxy for profitability (Titman and Wessels, 1988). The ratio of total depreciation to total assets (DEPTA) is used to represent non-debt tax shields (Chu et al., 1992; Kim and Sorensen, 1986; Titman and Wessels, 1988; Wald, 1999; Wiwattanakantang, 1999). The ratio of inventory plus net fixed assets to total assets (INVFATA) is used as the proxy for asset tangibility (Chu et al., 1992; Downs, 1993; Titman and Wessels, 1988; Wald, 1999).

3.3 Sample and Data

Controlling for the potential effect of financial crisis, the sample includes firms in the steel industry that are listed on the Taiwan Stock Exchange and, in addition, that have complete financial data during the period of 1981-1996 over three business cycles of Taiwan. In addition, this study selected the years of economic peaks and troughs during the period from 1981 to 1996 to represent the shifts in economic conditions. According to official reference dates published by the Council for Economic Planning and Development of Taiwan, the years of 1983, 1988 and 1994 closest to the



economic peaks and the years of 1985, 1990 and 1996 closest to the economic troughs, respectively, are selected to represent the shifts in economic conditions. Annual financial data used in the study are collected from the database of the Taiwan Economic Journal.

3.4 Empirical Model

Incorporating the proxies for the variables in the study into Equation 2, the empirical model for the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry can be written as follows:

$$dDR_{t} = b_{FC}DFC + \gamma b_{EG}gGDP_{t} + \gamma b_{EC}DEC_{t} + \gamma b_{1}kS_{t} + \gamma b_{2}gTA_{t}$$
$$+ \gamma b_{3}OITA_{t} + \gamma b_{4}DEPTA_{t} + \gamma b_{5}INVFATA_{t} - \gamma DR_{t-1} + e_{t}$$
(3)

where, dDR_t : annual adjustment of debt ratios at year t, b: regression coefficient on each independent variable, DFC: dummy variable with the value of 1 and 0 for the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage relative to the target debt ratios, γ : the rate of adjustment toward the target debt ratios, DEC: 0 and 1 for economic trough and peak, respectively, lnS: natural logarithm of sales in thousand dollars, gTA: annual growth rate of total assets, OITA: operating income/total assets, DEPTA: depreciation/total assets, INVFATA: inventory plus fixed assets/total assets, DR_{t-1}: debt ratios at year t-1, and e: error term.

Based on Equation 3, it is expected that the proxy for the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage (DFC) will be negatively related to the adjustment of debt ratios (dDR). The proxy for economic growth (gGDP) will be positively related to the adjustment of debt ratios, as suggested by Feidakis and Rovolis (2007). The proxy for macroeconomic conditions (DEC) will be negatively related to the adjustment of debt ratios, as suggested by recent prior studies (Hackbarth et al., 2006; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003; Levy and Hennessy, 2007).

4. Results

The sample includes 122 observations for the listed firms in the steel industry of Taiwan at years of economic peaks and troughs during the period of 1981-1996. In the sample, there are 74 and 48 observations for firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage that made negative and positive adjustment of debt ratios, respectively, during the sample period. The summary descriptive statistics is reported in Table 1.



Table 1 The summary descriptive statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
dDR	122	-0.01484	0.09944	-0.32250	0.35887
DR	122	0.53703	0.16960	0.11294	0.90301
gGDP	122	0.06544	0.01065	0.04953	0.08447
DEC	122	0.45902	0.50037	0	1.00000
lnS	122	21.35272	2.37043	0	25.17030
gTA	122	0.10856	0.40253	-0.99820	1.38114
OITA	122	0.05177	0.04676	-0.04061	0.24028
DEPTA	122	0.02215	0.01732	0	0.07525
INVFATA	122	0.60001	0.18248	0.08713	0.97665

Note: dDR: annual adjustment of debt ratios, DR: total debt ratio, gGDP: annual growth rate of GDP, DEC: binary dummy variable with the value of 0 and 1 for years at economic trough and peak, respectively, lnS: natural logarithm of sales, gTA: annual growth rate of total assets, OITA: operating income/total assets, DEPTA: depreciation/total assets, and INVFATA: inventory plus fixed assets/total assets.

Further, the regression results with and without the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account for the adjustment of debt ratios of firms in the steel industry are presented in Table 2. As shown in columns (1) and (2) of Table 2, the value of variance inflation factor is lower than 10. This shows no serious problem of multicollinearity in the model. Further, for the result with the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account, the Durbin-Watson test statistic shown in the Notes of the table is close to 2. This shows no serial correlation. But, for the result without the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account, the Durbin-Watson test statistic shown in the Notes of the table is close to 1 and this indicates serious problem of serial correlation. In addition, based on the chi-square value, the test of heteroscedasticity does not reject the null hypothesis that the variance of the error term in the model is constant. Moreover, as shown in the Notes of Table 2, the adjusted R-square for the result with the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account is much higher than that for the result without the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account in the model. This suggests that the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage relative to the target should be taken into account in the application of the partial adjustment model to examine the adjustment of debt ratios of firms.

4.1 The Effect of Financial Constraint of Over-leverage and Under-leverage

As shown in column (1) of Table 2, the binary dummy proxy for the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage (DFC) is statistically significant and negatively related to the dependent variable (dDR) at the significance level of 1%. The result shows that firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage have lower debt ratios than firms with the financial constraint of under-leverage relative to target debt ratios. This finding suggests that firms with the financial constraint of over-leverage relative to the target tend to finance less debt in order to reduce the risk and costs of bankruptcy than do firms with the financial constraint of under-leverage relative to the target.



4.2 The Effect of Economic Growth and Conditions

As can be seen in column (1) of Table 2, the proxy for economic growth (gGDP) is statistically significant and positively related to the dependent variable (dDR) at the significance level of 5%. The result indicates that the adjustment of debt ratios is positively affected by economic growth. This finding supports Feidakis and Rovolis (2007) and Yeh and Roca (2007).

Further, the dummy proxy for the shifts in macroeconomic conditions (DEC) is statistically significant and negatively related to the dependent variable at the significance level of 10%. This suggests that the adjustment of debt ratios is counter-cyclical during the period of 1981-1996. This supports recent prior studies (Hackbarth et al., 2006; Korajczyk and Levy, 2003; Levy and Hennessy, 2007) but is not in line with the finding by Yeh and Roca (2007) in the plastics and textile industries of Taiwan. This finding suggests that industry characteristics may cause the difference in the adjustment of capital structure. Further evidence of the industry effect on the adjustment of capital structure leaves for future research.



Table 2 Regression Results for The Listed Firms in The Steel Industry of
Taiwan at Years of
Economic Peak and Trough During The Period of 1981-1996
Dependent Variable: The Adjustment of Debt Ratios (dDR)

	(1) result with financial constraint taken				(2) result w	ithout finar	ncial const	raint taken	
	into account					into account			
		Standard				Standard			
	Coefficient	Error	t Value	VIF	Coefficient	Error	t Value	VIF	
Intercept	-0.15155	0.09496	-1.60	0	-0.07123	0.12475	-0.57	0	
DFC	-0.12819	0.01393	-9.20a	1.20588					
gGDP	2.92353	1.24440	2.35 ^b	4.53416	3.91186	1.63555	2.39 ^b	4.50038	
DEC	-0.04675	0.02693	-1.74°	4.68745	-0.04800	0.03552	-1.35	4.68734	
lnS	-0.00065	0.00289	-0.22	1.20895	-0.00079	0.00381	-0.21	1.20891	
gTA	-0.02428	0.01563	-1.55	1.02255	-0.01544	0.02059	-0.75	1.01870	
OITA	0.06473	0.14673	0.44	1.21566	0.14447	0.19324	0.75	1.21142	
DEPTA	-1.00858	0.49629	-2.03 ^b	1.90861	-1.99410	0.63930	-3.12ª	1.81971	
INVFATA	0.00079	0.03948	0.02	1.34037	0.01352	0.05206	0.26	1.33872	
DR_1	-0.08808	0.04408	-2.00 ^b	1.42360	-0.23643	0.05412	-4.37ª	1.23315	
Notes:				(1)			(2)		
(a) Sample size				122	122				
(b) Durbin-Watson d value				1.802	1.095				
(c) Heteroscedasticity test:									
Chi-squa	are value, (P-va	ılue)	5	1.16, (0.50	71) 42.38, (0.4979)				
(d) Adjusted R-square				0.5261	0.1752				

⁽e) dDR: annual adjustment of debt ratios, DFC: binary dummy variable with the value of 1 and 0 as the proxy for the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage, respectively, that firms face, gGDP: annual growth rate of GDP, DEC: binary dummy variable with the value of 0 and 1 for years at economic trough and peak, respectively, lnS: natural logarithm of sales, gTA: annual growth rate of total assets, OITA: operating income/total assets, DEPTA: depreciation/total assets, and INVFATA: inventory plus fixed assets/total assets, and DR 1: the lagged total debt ratio.

4.3 The Effect of Firm Characteristics

As shown in column (1) of Table 2, regarding the firm-specific effect on the adjustment of debt ratios, the proxy for non-tax shields (DEPTA) is statistically significant and negatively related to the

⁽f) a, b and c indicate the significance level of 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.



dependent variable at the significance level of 5%. It is likely that steel industry is capital-intensive and, thus, the factor of non-debt tax shields plays a critical role in their adjustment of debt ratios toward the target. Future research may provide evidence on the adjustment of capital structure for firms in the labor-intensive and technology-intensive industries.

4.4 The Adjustment Rate of Debt Ratios

As can be seen in column (1) of Table 2, the lagged annual debt ratio (DR_1) of firms is statistically significant and negatively related to the dependent variable (dDR) at the significance level of 5%. In addition, the regression coefficient on the lagged annual debt ratio is -0.08808. The result shows that the annual average rate of adjustment toward the target is only 8.8% of the difference between target debt ratios and previous debt ratios for firms in the steel industry at years of economic trough and peak during the period of 1981-1996. This finding suggests that, due to high costs of adjustment, firms in the steel industry adjusted at a very slow rate toward their target debt ratios during the period of 1981-1996.

5. Conclusion

Recent studies have found that firms may deviate away from their target capital structure over time but they adjust toward the target capital structure in the long run. In the process of adjustment toward the target, capital structure is influenced by macroeconomic conditions over the business cycles. However, little attention has been given to examine the adjustment of capital structure of firms over the business cycle, in particular within the context of steel industry that is a cyclical industry. Controlling for the potential effect of financial crisis on capital structure, this paper utilized the modified partial adjustment model with the financial constraint of over-leverage and under-leverage taken into account to investigate the adjustment of capital structure of firms in the steel industry for years at economic trough and peak over the business cycles during the period of 1981-1996. The main findings of this study show that, first, controlling for the effects of firm characteristics, economic growth and macroeconomic conditions, firms with above-target debt ratios finance less debt than do firms with below-target debt ratios due to the risk and costs of bankruptcy. Second, the results show that economic growth has a significant positive effect on the adjustment of debt ratios at years of economic trough and peak during the period of 1981-1996. The finding is in line with Feidakis and Rovolis (2007) and suggests that firms in the steel industry should take account of economic growth in the have a significant negative effect on the adjustment of debt ratios of firms in the steel industry. This suggests that capital structure of firms in the steel industry is counter-cyclical over the business cycles. Finally, the results show that, on average, firms in the steel industry adjusted very slowly toward their target debt ratios during the period of 1981-1996. Due to the difference in debt financing between firms with above-target and below-target leverage, future research may provide further evidence on whether the rate of adjustment toward the target varies with the financial constraint of above-target and below-target leverage for firms in the steel industry of Taiwan.



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Residual Income Valuation Models under Depreciation and Inflation Condition

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ABSTRACT

Existing practical evidence suggests that residual income valuation models based on historical cost accounting considerably undervalue equity price. One possible reason is the use of historical cost accounting under inflationary conditions. In this paper, we use a residual income framework to search theoretically how historical cost accounting figures need to be adjusted for inflation in forecasting and valuation. We show that residual income models are likely to produce severe under valuations if inflation is not correctly taken into account.

This paper provides a conceptually useful foundation for the study of net income, book values, and dividends as to how these variables relate to equity value with and without inflation condition. The discussion makes the case that the analysis is also of empirical interest. This paper systemized overview of the Ohlson 1995(O95) literatures. The paper considers situations in which price equal capitalized forward net income add growth in net income and book values. Accounting, or the financial reporting model, has its own rules, and these make their presence felt all the time. The CSR has a role to interlock the book values and net income.

Finally, this paper studies two simple ideas. First, one can use residual income valuation model to predict stock value. Second, mathematical zero-sum series equality provides the analytical starting point and ensures analytical simplicity. These two ideas combine to yield many closed form valuation models. Without violating the PVED precept, one obtains explicit and basic models relating market value to book value and income with and without inflation condition.

Keywords: Valuation Model, Depreciation, Inflation Price

1. Introduction

Existing literatures text that the residual income valuation model (RIVM) considerably undervalues equity shares (Choi, O'Hanlon and Pope, 2005). One possible reason is that the primary inputs of the model, book value of equity and net incomes, are distorted by conservative accounting policies such as: historical cost accounting rules, no recognition of internally generated goodwill, or the delayed recognition of 'good news' (Watts, 2003a, 2003b). All of these forms of conservatism potentially drive an obstacle between book and market values. In this paper, we focus on the impact of just one of these forms of conservatism, one that is inherent in historical cost accounting under



inflationary conditions, where conservatism stems from the failure to recognize holding gains in the reporting of assets.

There is substantial evidence that investors tend to ignore inflation, thinking it is of second-order importance. These troubles arise because inflation affects historical cost accounting numbers in complex ways, leading to troubles in establishing the relationship between reported accounting numbers and equity valuation. We use a residual income model to explore this relationship between market price, book assets and reported net incomes both with and without under inflationary conditions. Residual income valuation models form an ideal way for such an exploration, as under plausible assumptions they generate a linear form for the relationship between market prices, reported asset values and net incomes.

The undervaluation observed by empirical researchers using data extracted from financial statements has led others to adjust the accounting inputs into RIVM for inflation (Ritter and Warr, 2002; Gregory, Saleh and Tucker, 2005). We search to what extent model value is undervalued when inflation is ignored, and how to adjust inflation when forecasting residual net incomes and valuing equity while implementing RIVM. We emphasize how inflation changes the structure of residual net incomes information dynamics from that assumed in unbiased accounting. This distortion cause the addition of inflation-adjusted book value terms on the right-hand side of the simple autoregressive process describing the evolution of current cost residual net incomes.

We show theoretically that valuation weights on book value and dividends increase with inflation, while weights on net incomes decrease with inflation. Thus, consistent with our intuition, the multiplier on book value increases to compensate for underestimation of book value when inflation is taller or accounting is more conservative. The rest of the paper is set out as follows. Section 2 establishes the relationship between inflation-unadjusted cost accounting and inflation-adjusted accounting variables. This enables us to identify the valuation weights and the structure of the information dynamics describing the evolution of residual income in these two accounting systems. Section 3 concludes the paper.

2. Methodology

2. The models

In this section, we present our basic accounting model, both in the absence of, and in the presence of, inflation as captured by inflation-unadjusted accounting and inflation-adjusted cost accounting systems.

2.1 RIVM without depreciation & inflation

This paper uses the following notation:

$$V_t =$$
Value (price) of equity, $V = P$

$$D_t = (\text{net}) \text{ Dividends}$$



 $B_t = \text{Book value of equity=BV}$

$$I_t = (\text{net}) \text{ Income (NI=EAT=earning after tax)}, \quad I = EPS \text{ , the P/E ratio} = \frac{P_0}{E_1} = \frac{V_0}{I_1} \, .$$

 $I_t^R = I_t - r_n \times B_{t-1}$ = Residual Income (RI), r_n = the discount factor denotes the nominal cost of capital. RI is defined as current net incomes minus the r_n rate times the beginning of period book value, that is, net incomes minus a charge for the use of capital. Let $R = 1 + r_n$.

Clean surplus relation (CSR), $B_t - B_{t-1} = I_t - D_t$.

As is normal, this paper assumes that PVED determines value:

$$V_{t} = \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} E_{t} \left[\frac{\widetilde{D}_{t+s}}{(R)^{s}} \right] [PVED]$$

The $E_t[\]$ is an expectation operator. PVED has two famous weaknesses. First, many growth companies do not plan to pay dividends within the estimate horizon. Second, Modigliani-Miller Theorem say dividend policy irrelevant (DPI). That is, little insight is obtained by focusing on dividends. Both weaknesses of PVED stem from a common problem –PVED does not focus on wealth creation but on wealth distribution.

The Mathematical model discussed next moves away from wealth distribution. To simplify the mathematical expressions, hereafter date 0 (NOT t) specifies the valuation date.

Mathematical zero-sum series equality provides the analytical starting point. For any series of numbers x_0, x_1, \cdots

$$0 = x_0 + R^{-1}(x_1 - Rx_0) + R^{-2}(x_2 - Rx_1) + \dots = x_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t}(x_t - Rx_{t-1})$$

$$R^{-t}x_t \to 0$$
, when $t \to \infty$.

If x_t (numerator) grows slower than R^{-t} (denominator), then $R^{-t}x_t \to 0$.

That $R^{-t}x_t \to 0$ makes sense, due to no firm will grow forever.

Adding PVED to zero-sum series produces the first equation (1).

$$V_0 = x_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t} (x_t - Rx_{t-1} + D_t)$$
 (1)



Certainly, the analysis is valid for any x-series. The idea is that one can represent value in respect of two parts: a starting point, x_0 , and a complement defined by the present value of a generic series, $x_t - Rx_{t-1} + D_t$ which implants the series of dividends.

By putting $x_t = B_t$ and combining it with residual income (RI) and clean surplus relation (C.S.R.).

We get $B_t - RB_{t-1} + D_t = I_t^R$ and the second equation (2) and call it as

(I) book value plus residual income valuation model (BVRIVM).

$$V_0 = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t}(I_t^R) \cdots (2)$$

The price (V_0) is explained by the initial book value (B_0) and the subsequent growth in book value. If the firm has no growth (R.I.), then price (V_0) equate the initial book value (B_0) . On average, the accounting is neither conservative nor aggressive.

Proof of (2):

Replace I_t in R.I. with $B_t - B_{t-1} + D_t$ in C.S.R. , we get

$$I_{t} = I_{t}^{R} + r \times B_{t-1} = B_{t} - B_{t-1} + D_{t} \longrightarrow I_{t}^{R} = B_{t} - R \times B_{t-1} + D_{t}.$$

If x_t is book value, $B_t - R \times B_{t-1} + D_t$, is residual income

Replace
$$x_t$$
 in (1) with $B_t \Rightarrow V_0 = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t} (B_t - RB_{t-1} + D_t) = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t} (I_t^R)$ Q. E. D.

Ohlson (1995) first combined equation (2) with the following Information Dynamics $(\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^R = \omega I_t^R + O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1}, \widetilde{O}_{t+1} = ZO_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{2,t+1}) \text{ and got Ohlson Model (OM)}.$

$$V_{t} = B_{t} + C_{1}I_{t}^{R} + C_{2}O_{t}$$
(3)



where

$$C_1 = \frac{\omega}{\left(R - \omega\right)}$$

$$C_2 = \frac{R}{(R-\omega)(R-Z)}$$

The OM assumes that the dividend discount model and the clean surplus relation hold. Additionally, it assumes that next period's residual income, $\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^R = \omega I_t^R + O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1}$, follows a first order autoregressive process. Since next period's residual income is not exhaustively explained by current residual income Ohlson (1995) introduces another information variable O_t to capture value relevant information that have not yet entered the financial statements. This yields the following bivariate vector autoregressive process: $\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^R = \omega I_t^R + O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1}$ $\widetilde{O}_{t+1} = ZO_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{2,t+1}$

Where $\widetilde{\varepsilon}_{k,t+1}$ with k =1, 2 are zero mean error terms. ω , Z ($0 \le \omega$, Z < 1) are the persistence parameters of the residual income variable and the other information variable, respectively. Together, the assumptions yield the following linear relation between current market value of equity and current accounting information:



$$V_t = B_t + C_1 I_t^R + C_2 O_t$$

Proof 0f (3)	
$E_{t}\left[\frac{\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R}}{R^{1}} + \frac{\widetilde{I}_{t+2}^{R}}{R^{2}} + \frac{\widetilde{I}_{t+3}^{R}}{R^{3}} + \dots\right] = \frac{\omega I_{t}^{R} + O_{t}}{R^{1}} + \frac{\omega I_{t+1}^{R} + O_{t+1}}{R^{2}} + \frac{\omega I_{t+2}^{R} + O_{t+2}}{R^{3}} + \dots$	=
numerator	denominator
$\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R} = \omega I_{t}^{R} + O_{t}$	$\frac{1}{R}$
$\widetilde{I}_{t+2}^{R} = \omega I_{t+1}^{R} + ZO_{t} = \omega^{2} I_{t}^{R} + \omega O_{t} + \frac{ZO_{t}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{R^2}$
$\widetilde{I}_{t+3}^{R} = \omega I_{t+2}^{R} + Z^{2} O_{t} = \frac{\omega^{3} I_{t}^{R}}{\omega^{2} O_{t}} + \frac{\omega^{2} O_{t}}{\omega^{2} O_{t}} + \frac{Z^{2} O_{t}}{\omega^{2} O_{t}}$	$\frac{1}{R^3}$
$\widetilde{I}_{t+4}^{R} = \omega I_{t+3}^{R} + Z^{3} O_{t} = \frac{\omega^{4} I_{t}^{R}}{\omega^{3} O_{t}} + \frac{\omega^{2} Z O_{t}}{\omega^{2} O_{t}} + \frac{Z^{3} O_{t}}{\omega^{2} O_{t}}$	$\frac{1}{R^4}$

Solving coefficient of $I_t^R = C_1$

Solving coefficient of
$$T_t = C_1$$

$$C_1 = \frac{\omega}{R} + \frac{\omega^2}{R^2} + \frac{\omega^3}{R^3} + \frac{\omega^4}{R^4} + \dots = \frac{\frac{\omega}{R}}{1 - \frac{\omega}{R}} = \frac{\omega}{R - \omega} = C_1$$

(step 1) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$						
numerator	denominator					
O _i	$\frac{1}{R}$					
ωO_t	$\frac{1}{R^2}$					
$\omega^2 O_t$	$\frac{1}{R^3}$					
$\omega^3 O_t$	$\frac{1}{R^4}$					



$\frac{1}{R} + \frac{\omega}{R^2} + \frac{\omega^2}{R^3} + \frac{\omega^3}{R^4} + \dots = \frac{\frac{1}{R}}{1 - \frac{\omega}{R}} = \frac{1}{R - \omega}$	

(step 2) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	
numerator	denominator
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R}$
ZO,	$\frac{1}{R^2}$
ωZO_{ι}	$\frac{1}{R^3}$
$\omega^2 ZO_t$	$\frac{1}{R^4}$
$\frac{Z}{R^{2}} + \frac{\omega Z}{R^{3}} + \frac{\omega^{2} Z}{R^{4}} + \dots = \frac{\frac{Z^{1}}{R^{2}}}{1 - \frac{\omega}{R}} = \frac{1}{R - \omega} \times \frac{Z^{1}}{R^{1}}$	

(step 3) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	
numerator	denominator
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R}$
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R^2}$
Z^2O_i	$\frac{1}{R^3}$
$\omega Z^2 O_i$	$\frac{1}{R^4}$



$$\frac{Z^{2}}{R^{3}} + \frac{\omega Z^{2}}{R^{4}} + \dots = \frac{\frac{Z^{2}}{R^{3}}}{1 - \frac{\omega}{R}} = \frac{Z^{2}}{R - \omega} = \frac{1}{R - \omega} \times \frac{Z^{2}}{R^{2}}$$

(step 4) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	
Numerator	denominator
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R}$
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R^2}$
ZERO	$\frac{1}{R^3}$
Z^3O_t	$\frac{1}{R^4}$
<u></u>	
$\frac{Z^{3}}{R^{4}} + \frac{\omega Z^{3}}{R^{5}} + \dots = \frac{\frac{Z^{3}}{R^{4}}}{1 - \frac{\omega}{R}} = \frac{\frac{Z^{3}}{R^{4 - 1 - 3}}}{R - \omega} = \frac{1}{R - \omega} \times \frac{Z^{3}}{R^{3}}$	

Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$							
(step 1) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	$\frac{1}{R-\omega}$	+					
(step 2) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	$\frac{1}{R-\omega} \times \frac{Z^1}{R^1}$	+					
(step 3) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	$\frac{1}{R-\omega} \times \frac{Z^2}{R^2}$	+					
(step 4) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	$\frac{1}{R-\omega} \times \frac{Z^3}{R^3}$	+					
(step 5) Solving coefficient of $O_t = C_2$		+					



$$\frac{1}{R-\omega} = \frac{R}{1-\frac{Z}{R}} = \frac{R}{(R-Z)\times(R-\omega)} = C_2$$

Q. E. D.

2.2 RIVM with depreciation but without inflation

This section explores the RIVM with depreciation but without inflation.

$$B_t = (1 - dep) \times B_{t-1} + B_t^{CFI}$$
 (2.2.1)

Here $\frac{dep}{dep}$ denotes the depreciation rate and $\frac{B_t^{CFI}}{D_t^{CFO}}$ the net cash inflow from investments in time to (Cash received from the sale of long-life assets, or spent on capital expenditure). The $\frac{I_t^{CFO}}{I_t^{CFO}}$ is the net cash inflow from operations (Cash received or expended as a result of the company's internal business activities), assumed to be linked by a cash balance equation $\frac{I_t^{CFO}}{I_t^{CFO}} = \frac{B_t^{CFI}}{D_t^{CFO}} + \frac{D_t}{D_t^{CFO}}$. (2.2.2)

CSR: $B_t - B_{t-1} = I_t - D_t$ (2.2.3) Here B_t denotes the BV without inflation

(2.2.2), (2.2.3) together imply that
$$B_t - B_{t-1} = I_t + (B_t^{CFI} - I_t^{CFO})$$
 (2.2.4)

(2.2.1), (2.2.4) together imply that
$$B_t - B_{t-1} = I_t + \left[B_t - (1 - dep) \times B_{t-1} - I_t^{CFO} \right]$$
 (2.2.5)

We sort out (2.2.5) and get
$$I_t = I_t^{CFO} - (dep \times B_{t-1})$$
 (2.2.6)

In calculating net incomes (comprehensive income) adjusted for depreciation charge we have to recognize the increased depreciation charge ($(dep \times B_{t-1})$).

The residual income is defined as:

$$I_t^R \equiv I_t - \frac{(r_n \times B_{t-1})}{(2.2.7)}$$

(2.2.6), (2.2.7) together imply that
$$I_t^R \equiv I_t^{CFO} - (dep + r_n) \times B_{t-1}$$
 (2.2.8)

Yeh (2001) first propose the following modification of the ID to incorporate unconditional conservatism:



$$\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R} = \omega_{1}B_{t} + \omega_{1}I_{t}^{R} + O_{t} + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1}$$

$$\widetilde{O}_{t+1} = Z_0 B_t + Z_1 O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{2,t+1}$$

$$\widetilde{B}_{t+1} = GB_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{3,t+1}$$

Where $\widetilde{\varepsilon}_{k,t+1}$ with k =1, 2, 3 are zero mean error terms. ω_0 , Z_0 are the conservatism parameters,

 ω_1 , Z_1 ($0 \le \omega_1$, $Z_1 \le 1$) are the persistence parameters and G ($1 \le G < R$) represents growth.

They derive the following linear valuation function:

$$V_t = B_t + C_1 I_t^R + C_2 O_t + (C_3 + C_4) B_t$$

And we call it as Yeh Model $V_t = B_t + C_1 I_t^R + C_2 O_t + (C_3 + C_4) B_t$ (2.2.9).

We compare equation (3) with (2.2.9) at the following table. The original models are the same RIVM.



$$V_0 = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t}(I_t^R) \cdot \cdot (2)$$

same RIVM	$V_0 = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t}(I_t^R) \cdot \cdot (2)$	$V_0 = B_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} R^{-t} (I_t^R) \cdot \cdot (2)$
different ID	$\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R} = \omega I_{t}^{R} + O_{t} + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1},$ $\widetilde{O}_{t+1} = ZO_{t} + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{2,t+1}$	$\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R} = \omega_1 B_t + \omega_1 I_t^R + O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{1,t+1}$ $\widetilde{O}_{t+1} = Z_0 B_t + Z_1 O_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{2,t+1}$
different model	$V_{t} = B_{t} + C_{1}I_{t}^{R} + C_{2}O_{t}(3)$	$\widetilde{B}_{t+1} = GB_t + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_{3,t+1}$ $V_t = B_t + C_1 I_t^R + C_2 O_t + (C_3 + C_4) B_t (2.2.$ 9)
coefficient of $I_t^R = C_1$	$C_1 = \frac{\omega}{(R - \omega)}$	$C_1 = \frac{\omega_1}{(R - \omega_1)}$
coefficient of $O_t = C_2$	$C_2 = \frac{R}{(R-\omega)(R-Z)}$	$C_2 = \frac{R}{(R - \omega_1)(R - Z_1)}$
		$C_3 = \frac{R\omega_0}{(R - \omega_1)(R - G)}$
		$C_4 = \frac{RZ_0}{(R - \omega_1)(R - Z_1)(R - G)}$
$I_t^R \equiv$	$I_t^R = I_t - r \times B_{t-1}$	$I_t^R \equiv I_t^{CFO} - (dep + r) \times B_{t-1}(2.2.8)$

Proof of (2.2.9):

Valuation multiple on RI

$$\left(\frac{\omega_1}{R}\right) + \left(\frac{\omega_1}{R}\right)^2 + \cdot \div \cdot + \left(\frac{\omega_1}{R}\right)^{\infty} = \frac{\omega_1}{(R - \omega_1)} = C_1$$

Valuation multiple on OI

$$[1+C_1] \times \left[1+\frac{Z_1}{(R-Z_1)}\right] \times \frac{1}{R} = \frac{R}{(R-\omega_1)(R-Z_1)} = C_2$$

Valuation multiple on book value arising from the ω_0 term



$$[1+C_1] \times \left[1+\frac{G}{(R-G)}\right] \times \frac{\omega_0}{R} = \frac{R\omega_0}{(R-\omega_1)(R-G)} = C_3$$

Valuation multiple on book value arising from the Z_0 term

$$[1+C_1] \times \left[1+\frac{G}{(R-Z_1)(R-G)}\right] \times \frac{1}{R} = \frac{RZ_0}{(R-\omega_1)(R-Z_1)(R-G)} = C_4$$

2.3 RIVM with depreciation and with inflation

This section explores the RIVM with depreciation and with inflation. We assume that book values and investments in the long run grow stochastically in line with inflation.

$$B_t^{\inf} = (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)B_{t-1}^{\inf} + B_t^{CFI}$$
 (2.3.1)

Here B_t^{\inf} denotes the BV with inflation and $\inf_{\eta} = \eta$ is the rate of inflation. (We can regard α as an average or composite rate of depreciation over different classes of assets, both tangible and intangible. For example α may include a contribution from the expensing of intangibles investments.)

We assume a cash balance equation $I_t^{CFO} = B_t^{CFI} + D_t (2.3.2)$

Clean surplus relation (CSR) $B_t^{\text{inf}} - B_{t-1}^{\text{inf}} = I_t - D_t$ (2.3.3)

In this section B_t^{inf} denote BV with inflation condition; while in above section B_t denote BV without inflation condition.

$$(2.3.2), (2.3.3) \text{ together imply that } B_t^{\inf} - B_{t-1}^{\inf} = I_t + \left(B_t^{CFI} - I_t^{CFO}\right) (2.3.4)$$

(2.3.1), (2.3.4) together imply that
$$B_t^{\inf} - B_{t-1}^{\inf} = I_t + \left[B_t^{\inf} - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf) B_{t-1}^{\inf} - I_t^{CFO} \right]$$
 (2.3.5)

We sort out (2.3.5) and get

$$I_{t} = I_{t}^{CFO} - (1 + \inf) \times dep \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} + \inf \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} (2.3.6)$$

In calculating net incomes adjusted for inflation and depreciation charge we have to recognize both the increased depreciation charge, that is the $(1+\inf) \times dep \times B_{t-1}$ item, and the holding gains on assets,

the $+\inf \times B_{t-1}$ item, over the period.

The increased depreciation charge sometimes is bigger than the holding gains on assets



$$(dep(1+inf)-inf = .1(1+.05)-.05 > 0 \Rightarrow dep(1+inf) > inf)$$
.

The $(1+\inf) \times dep \times B_{t-1}$ item sometimes is smaller than the $+\inf \times B_{t-1}$ item $(\frac{dep(1+\inf) - \inf = .01(1+.05) - .05 < 0 \Rightarrow dep(1+\inf) < \inf}{}).$

The residual income is defined as:

$$I_t^R \equiv \frac{I_t}{I_t} - \frac{(r_n \times B_{t-1}^{\text{inf}})}{(2.3.7)}$$

(2.3.6), (2.3.7) together imply that

$$I_t^R = \left[I_t^{CFO} - (1 + \inf)(dep + r_r) B_{t-1}^{\inf} \right]$$
 (2.3.8)

Proof of (2.3.8)

$$I_t^R \equiv I_t - (r_n \times B_{t-1}^{\inf})$$

$$I_{t} = I_{t}^{CFO} - (1 + \inf) \times dep \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} + \inf \times B_{t-1}^{\inf}$$

$$I_{t}^{R} = I_{t}^{CFO} - (1 + \inf) \times dep \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} + \inf \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} - \frac{(r_{n} \times B_{t-1}^{\inf})}{(2.3.8')}$$

As the nominal cost of capital, r_n is related to the real cost of capital, r_r , by the conventional

Fisher relationship: $1 + r_n = (1 + r_r)(1 + \inf)$

$$1 + r_n = (1 + r_r)(1 + \inf) \rightarrow r_n = (1 + r_r)(1 + \inf) + (\inf) + (\inf)$$

$$r_n = (1 + r_r)(1 + \inf) - 1 = [r_r(1 + \inf) + \inf]$$

$$r_n \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} = [r_r(1+\inf) + \inf] \times B_{t-1}^{\inf}$$

We Combine (2.3.8') with $r_n \times B_{t-1}^{\inf} = [r_r(1+\inf) + \inf] \times B_{t-1}^{\inf}$ and get (2.3.8)

$$I_{t}^{R} = I_{t}^{CFO} - dep(1 + inf)B_{t-1}^{inf} + [r_{r}(1 + inf)] \times B_{t-1}^{inf}$$

$$I_t^R \equiv I_t^{CFO} - (1 + \inf)(dep + r_r) \times B_{t-1}^{\inf}$$
 (2.3.8)

QED

We Combine (2.3.8) with $\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^{R} = \omega \times I_{t}^{R}$ and get (2.3.9)

$$\left[I_{t+1}^{CFO} - (1+\inf)(dep + r)B_t^{\inf}\right] = \omega \times \left[I_t^{CFO} - (1+\inf)(dep + r)B_{t-1}^{\inf}\right] \quad (2.3.9)$$



We Combine (2.3.9) with $I_t^R \equiv I_t^{CFO} - (dep + r_n) \times B_{t-1}$ (2.2.8) and get (2.3.10)

$$E[I_{t+1}^R + (dep + r_n)B_t - (dep + r)(1 + \inf)B_t^{\inf}] = \omega(I_t^R + (dep + r_n)B_{t-1} - (dep + r)(1 + \inf)B_{t-1}^{\inf})$$
(2.3.10)

We have achieved a relationship defined by equation (2.3.10) between inflation-unadjusted cost accounting information and inflation-adjusted accounting information.

We Combine (2.2.1) with (2.3.1) and get (2.3.11)

$$B_t^{\text{inf}} - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)B_{t-1}^{\text{inf}} = B_t - (1 - dep) \times B_{t-1}$$
 (2.3.11)

Replace $B_{t-1}^{inf} = LB_t^{inf}$ and $B_{t-1} = LB_t$ into (2.3.11) and get (2.3.12)

$$B_t^{\inf} - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)LB_t^{\inf} = B_t - (1 - dep)LB_t \longrightarrow$$

$$B_t^{\inf} [1 - L(1 - dep)(1 + \inf)] = B_t [1 - L(1 - dep)]$$
 (2.3.12)

$$(2.3.12) \rightarrow B_t^{\inf} = B_t \left[1 - L(1 - dep) \right] \left[1 - L(1 - dep) (1 + \inf) \right]^{-1} (2.3.13)$$

$$(2.3.14) E[I_{t+1}^R] = \omega I_t^R - \inf(1 - dep)[1 - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)L]^{-1}[1 - (1 + r_n)L][B_t - \omega B_{t-1}] = (2.3.14) E[I_{t+1}^R] = \omega I_t^R - \inf(1 - dep)[1 - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)L]^{-1}[1 - (1 + r_n)L][B_t - \omega B_{t-1}] = (2.3.14) E[I_{t+1}^R] = \omega I_t^R - \inf(1 - dep)[1 - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)L]^{-1}[1 - (1 + r_n)L][B_t - \omega B_{t-1}] = (2.3.14) E[I_t^R] = \omega I_t^R - \inf(1 - dep)[1 - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)L]^{-1}[1 - (1 + r_n)L][B_t - \omega B_{t-1}] = (2.3.14) E[I_t^R] = \omega I_t^R$$

14)

$$\begin{split} E\big[I_{t+1}^R\big] &= \omega I_t^R - \inf(1 - dep)\big[1 - (1 - dep)(1 + \inf)L\big]^{-1}\big[1 - (1 + r_n)L\big]\big[B_t - \omega B_{t-1}\big] \\ E\big[I_{t+1}^R\big] &= \omega I_t^R \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet if \quad \inf = 0 \end{split}$$

Let
$$\frac{B_t}{B_{t-1}} = (1 + \inf) = \frac{1}{L} = \frac{\omega}{\varpi}$$
 (2.3.15)

In (2.3.15), we assume book values grow in a fixed inflation rate $\frac{B_t}{B_{t-1}} = (1 + \inf)$

We use the investment policy to determine the growth over time. We assume that total nominal investment, which includes both replacement investment and new investment, grows at the same rate as inflation.

If we assume book values grow in a fixed inflation rate and $\frac{\omega}{\varpi}$ then we need to rewrite (2.3.14) as

(2.3.16):

$$E[I_{t+1}^{R}] = \omega I_{t}^{R} - B_{t} \left\{ \inf(1 - dep) \left[dep \right]^{-1} \left[r_{r} \right] \left[1 - \varpi \right] \right\}$$
(2.3.16).

When we average the growth in book values we find that although year-on-year growth is highly



variable, over the long run the average growth in book values are approximately equal to one plus the rate of inflation.

2.4 Closed Form Valuation Models

Ohlson (1995) begins that under clean surplus accounting the difference between market price and book equity is equal to the present value of residual net incomes. Thinking that the information dynamics reduces to equation ($\widetilde{I}_{t+1}^R = \omega \times I_t^R$), Ohlson shows that the valuation model reduces to the simple form $V_t = B_t + \frac{\omega}{\left(1 + r_n - \omega\right)} I_t^R$. We have argued that this form is only suitable under inflationary conditions if asset values and residual net incomes correctly reflect the impact of inflation. If we were to use unadjusted reported net incomes then we need to rewrite the model as:

$$V_{t} = B_{t} + \frac{\omega}{\left(1 + r_{n} - \omega\right)} \left\langle I_{t}^{R} - B_{t} (1 + \inf)^{-1} \left\{ \inf(1 - dep) dep^{-1} r_{r} (1 - \varpi) \right\} \right\rangle = 0$$

$$B_{t} \times \left\langle 1 - (1 + \inf)^{-1} \left\{ \inf(1 - dep) dep^{-1} r_{r} (1 - \varpi) \right\} \right\rangle + I_{t}^{R} \times \left\langle \frac{\omega}{\left(1 + r_{r}\right)\left(1 + \inf\right) - \omega} \right\rangle (2.3.18).$$

The difference between (2.3.18) and the standard Ohlson (1995) valuation formulation is given by the additional inflation-adjusted book value expression, $\langle 1-(1+\inf)^{-1}\{\inf(1-dep)dep^{-1}r_r(1-\varpi)\}\rangle$, in the first term on the right-hand side of (2.3.18). When the $\inf=0$, (2.3.18) reduces to the standard Ohlson (1995) valuation formulation. Moreover, this adjustment is a positive decreasing function of inflation \inf for given 0 < dep, r_r , $\varpi < 1$.

Equation (2.3.18) also shows the value of the multiplier attached to residual income decreases in inflation due to the higher nominal cost of capital. Thus equation (2.3.18) again draws attention to the essential role of the standard Ohlson (1995) valuation formulation: book value provides the "first key" at valuation, the present value of residual incomes being an adjustment to incorporate the "Unrecorded Intangible Asset" omitted from the balance sheet. This "U.I.A." will include priceless H.R.M. assets and economic rents, together with any misstatements of the economic value of recorded assets. Such misstatements can be large in inflationary conditions, particularly for firms with substantial amounts of long-lived assets (i.e., where *dep* is small).

Hence it can be shown that the valuation weight both attached to book value and attached to net incomes decreases with inflation.

In practice the assumption of uniform inflation over the life of the assets is just a convenient means of generating a closed form parameterized valuation model. It fails to provide a satisfactory practical method where such parameters are not easily observable. A possible alternative approach to



the hypothesis of uniform growth in book values is to identify the dividend policy so that we can map out the evolution of retentions and thus book values over time.

3. Conclusion

This paper studies theoretically the implications of history cost accounting under inflationary conditions on residual income valuation models. We find that inflation does not influence the structure of the residual income model but rather alters autoregressive information dynamics. We guess and establish that it is sufficient to correct for the impact of inflation by adding a positive weight associated to the inflation level to the book value term in the autoregressive relationship of residual income generation. Our theories again draw attention to the key role of book value in residual income valuation models.

The present value of expected future residual net incomes cannot link the gap between book value and market value when there is a inflation. The model supported by theoretical study also suggests a way forward in such approaches to equity valuation. Thus we show that if we adjust for underestimated book values then inflation-unadjusted cost accounting should in theory give the reliable results. We think our paper provides insights into the empirical problems facing practical researchers and investment practitioners.

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A Study of Grey VAR on Dynamic Structure between Economic Indices and Stock Market Indices-An Example of Hong Kong

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ABSTRACT

This study takes the Hang Seng Index and the four belonging indices from Hong Kong stock market and Hong Kong marcro-economic indices as examples. The monthly closing stock indices and marcro-economic from January 2000 to January 2010 were sampled, which were adopted from the census and statistics department; Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and the Global Financial Database. We applied GM(1,1) on VAR into a GVAR to realize the dynamic structure between economic indices and Hong Kong stock market indices.

According to the empirical results, I found that interest rates, CPI's, foreign reserves, M1's, M2's and M3's have a Granger causality relationship with stock market indices respectively. Based on the AIC rule, stock market indices are a leading index to economic indices for eight months. By using Granger causality, decomposition variance and the impact response analysis, we realized the existence of the dynamic structure between economic indices and stock market indices in Hong Kong. And we discovered this dynamic structure is interacted and matched frequently at the state in Hong Kong economic.

Keywords: Hong Kong's Economic Indices, The Hang Seng Index, GM(1,1), Grey Vector Autoregression Model (GVAR)

1. Introduction

Stock market is a mirror to economy. We could understand a nation's economy from the variations in stock market. There are a lot of economic factors which affect each other's and the stock market as well. It must be a close relationship between economic variables and stock market indices. The economy in Hong Kong grew since 1970s, and now has a highly developed economy in financial markets, logistics, and trading, traveling and commercial industry.

Chang and Wu(1996), and Chang, Wu, and Lin(1998, 2000) studied the interaction between stock market, monetary market, and foreign exchange market using a grey vector autoregression model (GVAR). The conclusion denoted that the noise in financial markets could be erased and forecasting accuracy could be increased.



This paper takes Hong Kong as an example and studies the dynamic structure between economic Indices and stock market Indices using GVAR. We try to understand the dynamic relationship between economic variables and stock market indices in Hong Kong.

2. Reference review

2.1 Relationship between economic variables and stock market indices

There are numerous economic variables which affect the stock markets. A lot of scholars have studied the relationship between them. The economic variables selected in the past studies consist of foreign exchange rate, interest rate, consumer price index (CPI), monetary supply, export and import, and foreign exchange reserves. Some references were reviewed as below.

- 1) Currency exchange rate: Chiou, Lee & Chiou (1998), Chan (2001), Jan (2002), Mok (1993), Ajayi, Friedman & Mehdian (1998) study the relationship between currency exchange rate and stock market using Granger Causality in Hong Kong. Lee (2001) used MA-GARCH(1, 1), Chen (2002) and Pan, Fok, & Liu(2007)used EGARCH-M separately on the relationship between currency exchange rate and stock market as well. They found that the relationship between them was obvious.
- 2) Interest rate: Mok (1993) and Chan (2001) study the relationship between interest rate and stock market using the Granger Causality in Hong Kong. They denoted that the relationship between them was obvious.
- 3) Consumer price index (CPI): Chang (2004) study the relationship between consumer price index and stock market using a vector autoregression model (VAR) in Hong Kong. The conclusion showed that there is a positive relationship between them, and inflation rate had causality on stock market.
- 4) Monetary supply, export and import, and foreign exchange reserves: few references about affection of monetary supply, export and import, and foreign exchange reserves on stock market in Hong Kong. But studies on other nations denote that monetary supply, export and import, and foreign exchange reserves had causality on stock market. Like research from Pearce & Raley (1985), Hung (1993), Unro Lee (1994), Tsai (1994), Mukherjee & Naka (1995), Lin (1997), Deng (1998), Wang & Hsue (1998), Chang (2000), Flannery & Protoppadakis (2002), Wei (2003), Liu (2005), Patra & Poshakwale (2006), Chen, Lin & Lin (2006), Ratanapakorn & Sharma (2007), Chuang (2010) are on monetary supply. Researches from Hsu & Tsai (1993), Kuu (1996), Hseng (1996), Kao (2000), Wang (2000), Lee (2001), Graham, Nikkinen & Sahlstrom (2003), Lee (2004), Wan (2004), and Chang (2009) are on export and import. And researches from Mookerjee & Yu (1997), Tsai (2004), and Chen (2006) are on foreign exchange reserves. We consider monetary supply, export and import, and foreign exchange reserves as variables in this study.



2.2 Applications of grey forecasting model on economic and finance issues

In the finance studies, a grey forecasting model was first used in the VAR model intending to eliminate noise and increase the accuracy of forecasting stocks' prices. (Chang, 1997; Chang and Wu, 1998; Chang, Wu, and Lin, 2000) The results showed that the Grey forecasting model could capture the securities' price impulse and make the process of price discovery stable. The out-of-the-period forecasting accurate also had been increased.

Chang and Wu (1998) have discussed the seasonality about Chinese Festival in Taiwan's Security Market using Grey Forecasting Model. The results showed that the forecasting accurate was better than a Moving Average Model.

Cheng and Chan (2002) built a Grey foreign exchange model. The forecasting ability of that was better than a random walk model and a GARCH model, especially in a 3-month-period. But a random walk model' forecasting accurate was best within them. The results showed that a Grey forecasting model is better in a short time horizon.

Chang (2004, 2005) used a GM (1,1) to forecast the out-of-period beta, using Dow Jones 30 Industrial Index' component stocks and component securities markets indexes of the MSCI World Index from 1998 to 2003 as samples separately. The results show that a grey β is a good indicator of a systematic risk in the stocks market. A GM (1,1) decreases 39.8599% and 57.63% on estimation error rather than the classical Moving Average separately.

Besides, a lot of studies find that grey technical analysis indices can increase investment performance than original ones in China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan, USA, UK, Japanese, German, and Canada. (Likes Chang & Lu (2007), Chou (2008), Chang & Lin (2009), Chang & Hsu (2009), Cheng (2009), Lee (2009), Chang & Lin (2010), Chang & Hung (2010), and Chang & Chen (2010) separately)

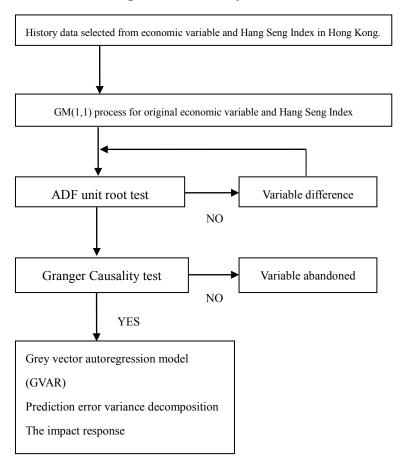
3. Methodology

This study builds a Grey vector autoregression model (GVAR) to understand the dynamic relationship between economic variables and stock market indices in Hong Kong. Some studies using autoregression model (VAR) had have been applied successfully in Hong Kong stock market. (Likes Lin, Pan, & Fung (1996), Yu (1997), and Chang (2004).)

First of all, we select the history data of economic variables and Hang Seng Index in Hong Kong. Then, we get a whitened data base through a Grey forecasting model GM (1, 1). In order to ensure that the data is identical to the stationary process, an ADF unit root test is used before Granger Causality test. After Granger Causality test, related economic variables and Hang Seng Indices are selected into the vector autoregression model (VAR). In the VAR model, we could understand the dynamic relationship between economic variables and stock market indices in Hong Kong. Prediction error variance decomposition and impact response module are used.



Figure 1 The Study Frame





4. Results

4.1 Granger Causality test

Granger (1980), Ng and Perron(1995) denoted that a lag period selection is important within a time series model. This paper uses Akaike information criterion (AIC) to decide auto regression lag. All of the economic variables and stock market indices are identical to stationary process after difference, we find eight period lagged is suited to Granger Causality test. The results are showed as table 1.

Table 1 An AIC suited lag period test.

The state of the s							
Lag	HSID	HSNCD	HSNFD	HSNPD	HSNUD		
	AIC	AIC	AIC	AIC	AIC		
0	142.4881	141.4689	143.4713	143.3830	142.5171		
1	141.2729	140.3344	142.2097	142.3657	141.5415		
2	141.0485	140.1550	141.8956	142.3000	141.6927		
3	141.0877	140.2149	141.8604	142.2845	141.7704		
4	141.1311	140.2347	141.8987	142.1352	141.4249		
5	140.0595	139.3161	140.6905	140.9649	140.2264		
6	138.8715	138.2010	139.4077	140.1677	139.1914		
7	137.6340	136.6044	138.5374	138.9922	137.3399		
8	134.9759*	133.6201*	136.4447*	135.7401*	135.6993*		

We found that almost all of the economic variables and stock market indices have one-way causality relationship after Granger Causality test. But some of them have a two-way causality relationship. The results are showed on tables 2 to 3.

Table 2 The Granger Causality relationship between economic variables and stock market indices

CPI ↔ Financial index	Export ↔ M1
CPI ↔ Real estate index	M1↔ M2
Currency exchange rate ↔import	M1↔ M3
Currency exchange rate ↔ M1	M1 ↔ Financial index
Currency exchange rate ↔ M2	Hang Seng index ↔ Real estate index
Currency exchange rate ↔ M3	Commercial index ↔ Real estate index
Import ↔ Utility industry index	Financial index ↔ Real estate index



Table 3 Granger Causality test between economic variables and stock market indices

Lead-lag	CPI	FOREX	Impo	Expo	Reserves	Interes	M1	M2	M3	Hang Seng	Commercial	Financial	Real estate	Utility	sum
			rt	rt		t									
СРІ					***	**						*	*		4
Currency exchange			***		***		*	**	*						5
rate (FOREX)															
Import	***	*												***	3
Export		**	**				*	*							4
Foreign exchange			*												1
reserves															
Interest rate													*		1
M1		*	***	*				***	***			**			6
M2	***	*	*				***			**		***	**		7
M3	***	*	*				***			**		***	**		7
Hang Seng index	**						***						***	***	4
Commercial index	**						***			**			***	***	5
Financial index	*		*				***						**	**	5
Real estate index	***				***		**			**	**	***		***	7
Utility industry index			***		***										2
sum	7	5	8	1	4	1	8	3	2	4	1	5	7	5	61

Note: ***, **and *denote 1%, 5%, and 10% significant respectively.



4.2 Prediction error variance decomposition

We could get a prediction error from the variance decomposition of variables in a vector autoregression model (VAR). According to relative percentage of the variance decomposition of variables, we can understand that the variance source from itself or others. After a Granger Causality test, some stronger variables likes CPI, Forex, M1, M2, Hang Seng Index, and Real Estate Index as examples, we know that their prediction error variance is from decomposition by the first, second, eighth, and twelfth interval separately. Due to the eight-month period lag, which was identical to stationary process, the eight-month period's prediction error variance decomposition will be steady. The results are shown on tables 4 to 9.

Table 4 Prediction error variance decomposition of CPI

									7111505141						
Perio			DFORE	DIMPOR	DEXPOR	DFOREIG	DINTERES					DHSNC	DHSNF	DHSNP	DHSNU
d	S.E.	DCPI	X	T	T	N	T	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	D	D	D	D
	0.72798	100.000	0.00000					0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000		0.00000	0.00000	
1	1	0	0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0	0	0	0	0.000000	0	0	0.000000
	0.83738	84.7818	1.82499					0.78447	1.21067	0.15050	5.64110		0.43309	0.22064	
2	9	7	7	0.427768	0.498355	0.058874	0.492751	5	4	4	2	3.469011	5	3	0.005879
	0.96524	68.5807	3.18588					1.37058	2.34083	0.99032	7.04073		1.93892	1.27511	
8	4	3	2	0.604251	1.391114	0.927033	2.254432	0	5	4	3	5.685607	2	8	2.414435
	0.97307	67.7599	3.30331					1.37245	2.35186	0.99007	7.02654		2.30680	1.32200	
12	5	1	4	0.605268	1.421508	0.973321	2.240723	9	1	5	4	5.741176	4	0	2.585035

From the empirical result of table 4, we can understand that the CPI could explain itself by 100 percentages. Within the second-month period, the CPI explains itself decreasingly to 87.78%, and 15.22% have been regulated by other variables, like the Hang Seng index. The percentage of CPI explains itself by the 68.58% within the eighth-month period.



Table 5 Prediction error variance decomposition of FOREX

				I			l :		•						
Perio			DFORE	DIMPOR	DEXPOR	DFOREIG	DINTERES					DHSNC	DHSNF	DHSNP	DHSNU
d	S.E.	DCPI	X	T	T	N	T	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	D	D	D	D
	0.01030	0.26755	99.7324					0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000		0.00000	0.00000	
1	5	7	4	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0	0	0	0	0.000000	0	0	0.000000
	0.01210	0.50198	96.8671					5.41E-0	0.20844	0.51829	0.03303		0.12807	0.76678	
2	3	1	9	0.090444	0.003454	0.017742	0.077544	6	3	5	9	0.705166	1	3	0.081842
	0.01535	3.92247	76.6099					2.82049	1.98614	2.02258	0.12527		0.58903	2.45306	
8	5	7	2	1.413907	0.940839	0.207822	0.733733	0	7	4	5	4.590599	8	8	1.584096
	0.01550	4.28705	75.2062					2.92008	2.09154	1.99882	0.45217		0.69427	2.54436	
12	5	9	3	1.438123	0.962112	0.235859	0.778906	6	0	5	3	4.535984	2	6	1.854467

From empirical result of table 5, we understand that the FOREX could explain itself for 99.73 percentages. Within the second-month period, FOREX explains itself by 96.86%, and 3.14% is regulated by other variables, like M3. The percentage of CPI explains itself by 76.6% within the eighth-month period.



Table 6 Prediction error variance decomposition of M1

Perio			DFORE	DIMPOR	DEXPOR	DFOREIG	DINTERES					DHSNC	DHSNF	DHSNP	DHSNU
d	S.E.	DCPI	X	T	T	N	T	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	D	D	D	D
	53689.5	0.01449	0.14456					98.0179	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000		0.00000	0.00000	
1	9	4	0	1.038311	0.021868	0.713141	0.049659	7	0	0	0	0.000000	0	0	0.000000
	66743.3	0.16166	10.1056					68.0656	9.79038	0.52253	3.52808		1.18793	0.01662	
2	3	8	0	0.808260	0.060756	3.259688	0.585299	1	1	8	1	1.796893	5	3	0.110661
	77950.3	2.29148	12.4377					55.7115	9.12093	1.49549	2.85826		1.50979	3.01369	
8	5	5	1	1.467455	1.583486	3.411590	1.002234	2	7	3	6	2.228200	4	0	1.868145
	78481.7	2.71276	12.3396					55.0719	9.11714	1.52757	3.08131		1.50995	2.99414	
12	7	5	3	1.450649	1.577611	3.407537	1.061566	7	7	3	6	2.262819	7	7	1.885305

From the empirical result of table 6, we understand that M1 could explain itself by 98.01 percentages. Within the second-month period, M1 explains itself decreasingly to 68.06%, and 31.94% be regulated by other variables, like FOREX and M2. The percentage M1 explains itself by 55.71% within the eighth-month period.

Table 7 Prediction error variance decomposition of M2

Perio			DFORE	DIMPOR	DEXPOR	DFOREIG	DINTERES	·				DHSNC	DHSNF	DHSNP	DHSNU
d	S.E.	DCPI	X	T	T	N	T	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	D	D	D	D
	99368.4	2.77201	21.6141					17.0933	42.4353	0.00000	0.00000	_	0.00000	0.00000	
1	8	3	0	2.510614	0.668075	11.23440	1.672103	3	7	0	0	0.000000	0	0	0.000000
	122051.	1.98929	27.3632					16.7891	33.0513	0.19256	1.54998		0.10430	2.05663	_
2	8	8	6	2.356540	0.959749	8.424523	2.241571	8	1	8	3	2.860609	7	4	0.060469
	146463.	2.25779	26.4623					18.3479	25.4486	0.81575	1.29321		1.81504	3.26800	
8	3	3	9	3.262043	2.117277	7.948661	2.210125	8	0	8	1	3.638524	2	8	1.114586
	147517.	2.44738	26.4806					18.1671	25.1347	0.85761	1.47916	_	1.80889	3.30657	
12	8	4	4	3.225141	2.123509	7.884103	2.238458	9	5	3	5	3.728381	5	0	1.118200

From the empirical result of table 7, we understand that M2 could explain itself by 42.43 percentages, and 57.57% is regulated by other variables, likes FOREX and M1. Within the second-month period, M2 explains itself decreasingly to 33.05% and 66.95% and is regulated by other variables. The percentage M2 explains itself by 25.44% only within the eighth-month period. The results show that M1 and M2 interact with each other closely.



Table 8 Prediction error variance decomposition of Hang Seng Index

Period	S.E.	DCPI	DFOREX	DIMPORT	DEXPORT	DFOREIGN	DINTEREST	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	DHSNCD	DHSNFD	DHSNPD	DHSNUD
1	1274.262	5.447105	4.426365	0.593286	0.043425	14.85910	0.330755	1.709805	25.65387	0.512331	46.42396	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	1454.950	6.517097	5.133677	0.552653	0.033417	13.84271	0.281500	1.392906	19.68960	0.406992	48.81745	1.354200	1.797921	0.021304	0.158573
8	1786.684	5.564608	10.22773	0.493385	0.962345	11.70988	2.249566	3.224925	16.38763	0.382400	34.07350	4.108315	7.913819	1.422747	1.279153
12	1802.700	5.516511	10.27724	0.523177	1.223628	11.54446	2.240707	3.179701	16.16542	0.424902	33.50618	4.164924	8.054870	1.633719	1.544551

From the empirical result of table 8, we understand that Hang Seng index could explain itself by 46.42 percentages, and 53.58% be regulated by other variables, like M2 and FOREX. Within the second-month period, Hang Seng index explains itself increasingly to 48.81%. The percentage Hang Seng index explains itself deeply decreases by 34.07% within the eighth-month period.

Table 9 Prediction error variance decomposition of Real Estate Index

	Variance Decomposition of DHSNPD:														
Perio			DFORE	DIMPOR	DEXPOR	DFOREIG	DINTERES					DHSNC	DHSNF	DHSNP	DHSNU
d	S.E.	DCPI	X	T	T	N	T	DM1	DM2	DM3	DHSID	D	D	D	D
	1837.90	2.75898	1.68008					0.61147	16.1905	0.00966	37.5164		12.0308	7.36371	
1	9	9	3	0.882016	0.006378	18.05875	1.210098	4	5	1	6	1.680978	4	3	0.000000
	2155.29	4.74243	3.77620					1.01455	13.6549	0.53563	38.2942		8.75782	5.44302	
2	4	5	4	0.642958	0.005670	18.89217	0.931975	1	8	8	2	2.194699	6	2	1.113646
	2717.18	4.43935	6.27382					1.35663	10.1450	0.55032	26.7364		13.0861	4.48204	
8	2	3	6	1.535229	0.843356	15.55769	4.384563	4	6	8	7	7.395416	3	3	3.213904
	2750.59	4.55868	6.45823					1.34432	9.94317	0.61103	26.1554		13.1544	4.59005	
12	0	0	2	1.527813	1.111081	15.19388	4.291530	7	2	0	9	7.368654	9	9	3.691559

From the empirical result of table 8, we understand that the Real Estate index could explain itself by 7.36 percentages only, and 92.64% be regulated by other variables, mainly by the Hang Seng index. Within the second-month period, the Real Estate index explains itself by 5.44% decreasingly. The percentage Real Estate index explains itself by 4.48% within the eighth-month period.

According to the open economy, stock market indices in Hong Kong are affected by macro economic variables easily, especially that the Real Estate index is affected by Hang Seng index and other variables significantly, and M1 and M2 interact with each other closely.



4.3 Impact responses analysis

An empirical result for impact responses analysis based on the Word principal is obtained. (Sim, 1980) From the results showed by the impact responses analysis, we could ascertain that the impact responses are shortly or not, positively or negatively. The following are some empirical results:

spontaneous interference happens, the impact responses exist until the eight-month interval.

- When a unit positive FOREX interference happens, it has a 59% delayed effect in the first period. A 17% and 45% revivification can happen in the second-month period and the third-month period respectively, and vanish in the fifth-month period.
- FOREX has a negative impact on M1, M2, and M3 by 41%, 22%, and 21% respectively in the first-month period.

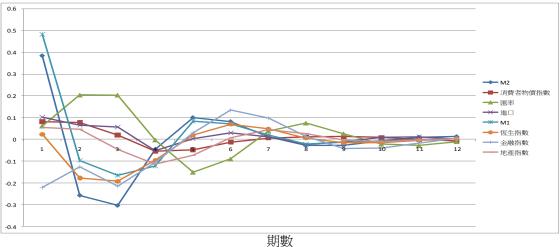


Figure 3 Impact responses from M2

interference happens, the impact responses exist until the eight-month interval.

- When a unit positive M2 interference happens, it has a 38% delayed effect in the first-month period. A 26% and 30% revivification can happen in the second-month period and the third-month period respectively, and vanish in the fifth-month period.
- M2 has an impact on FOREX by 20%, and a 15% revivification in the fifth-month period.
- M2 has impact on M1 and Financial index by 48% and -22% respectively in the first-month period.
- M2 has a negative impact on the Hang Seng index by 19% in the third-month period.



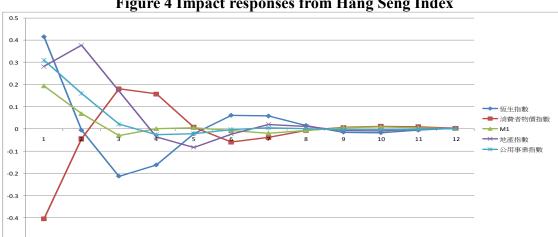


Figure 4 Impact responses from Hang Seng Index

spontaneous interference happens, the impact responses exist till seventh-month interval.

- When a unit positive interference of Hang Seng index happens, it has a 42% delayed effect in the first-month period. A 21% revivification happens in the third-month period, and vanishes in the sixth-month period.
- The Hang Seng index has an impact on CPI, M1 and Utility index by -41%, 19%, and 31% respectively in the first-month period.

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• The Hang Seng index has a negative impact on the Real Estate index by 38% in the second-month period.

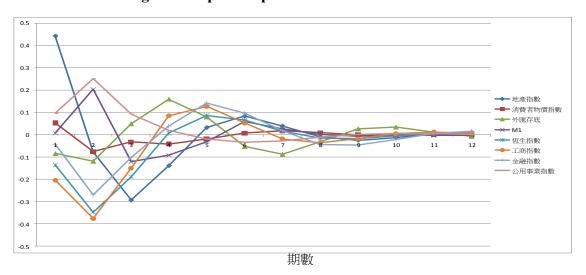


Figure 5 Impact responses from real estate index

From the empirical result of figure 5, we understand that whenever a unit Real Estate index spontaneous interference happens, the impact responses exist until the eighth-month interval.

- When a unit positive interference of Real Estate index happens, it has a 44% delayed effect in the first-month period. A 29% revivification happens in the third-month period, and vanishes in the fifth-month period.
- The Real Estate index has an impact on M1, Hang Seng index, Commercial index, Financial index, and Utility index by 20%, -35%, -38%, -27%, and 25% respectively in the second-month period.



Figure 6 Impact responses of M1 from other eight variables

From the empirical result of figure 6, we can understand that whenever a unit spontaneous interference from other variables happen, how the M1 responses. The impact response exists until the eight-month interval.

- When unit M1 interference happens, it has a 19% and 25% revivification in the first and second-month period respectively.
- FOREX has the greatest impact on M1 by -41% in the first-month period.
- M3 and Real Estate index have the greatest impact on M1 by -12% and 20% respectively in the second-month period.
- M2, Hang Seng index, Commercial index, and Financial index have the greatest impact on M1 by 48%, 19%, 23%, and 15% respectively in the first-month period.

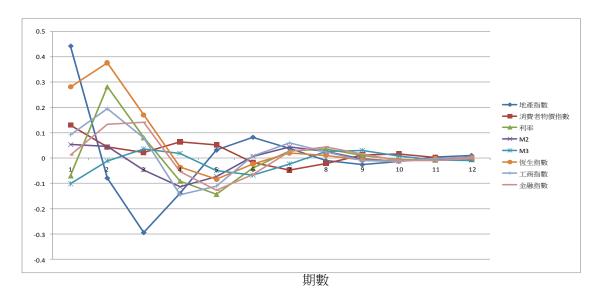


Figure 7 Impact responses of real estate index from other seven variables

From the empirical result of figure 7, we can understand that whenever a unit spontaneous interference from other variables happen, how the Real Estate index responses. The impact response exists until the eight-month interval.

- When unit CPI interference happens, it has a 13% impact on Real Estate index in the first-month period.
- Hang Seng index, Commercial index, Interest, and Financial index have the greatest impact on the Real Estate index by 38%, 19%, 28%, and 14% respectively in the second-month period.



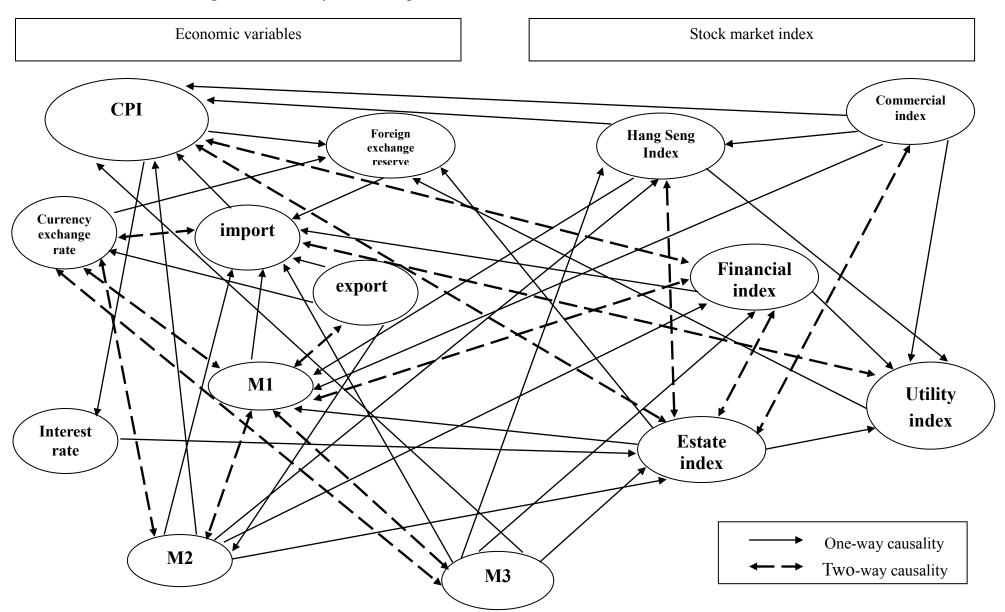
5. Concluding Remarks

This paper studies the dynamic structure between economic indices and Hong Kong stock market indices, using the Hang Seng Index and four belonging indices from Hong Kong stock market and Hong Kong marcro-economic indices as examples. The monthly closing stock indices and marcro-economic variables from January 2000 to January 2010 are sampled.

- Based on AIC rule, stock market indices is a leading index of economic indices for eight months.
- 2. According to the empirical results from GVAR, We found that the interest rate, CPI, foreign reserves, M1, M2 and M3 have a Granger causality relationship with stock market indices respectively.
- 3. By using the Granger causality, decomposition variance and the impact response analysis, we can understand the existence of the dynamic structure between economic indices and stock market indices in Hong Kong. And we discovered this dynamic structure is interacted and matched frequently at the state of Hong Kong's economy.



Figure 10 Causality relationships between economic variables and stock market indices





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Some Problems in the Calculation of Cohort Life Tables

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents some simple models of the relationship between age and cohort mortality to explore the way in which standard methods of computing life tables might distort reality. The results show that substantial distortions occur even in infinite populations because some of the assumptions are valid only in the limit of zero mortality. In some cases, a simple correction can be applied to the usual result to obtain a much better approximation to the underlying mortality schedule. The analysis also suggests that the habit of using the mid-point of the age range as representative of the age of a group will distort the relations at high ages and mortalities, therefore leading to a confounding of cohort effects and secular time effects in studies that attempt to explain or predict changes in mortality based on these factors.

Keywords: Bias, Cohort, Life Table, Longevity, Mortality,



1. Introduction

The purpose of this note is to point out that the generally available cohort mortality tables have potentially serious biases that are built in by the assumptions made in their computation.³ These biases are correlated with the level of mortality and are generally more severe at higher mortalities. That results in distortions of time trends and may interfere significantly in studies designed to "explain" or "predict" mortality.

In this note I concentrate on cohort, though the same issues affect the estimation of period mortality. The main reason for this emphasis is that a comparison of the use of cohort and period mortality in the forecasting longevity shows that errors due to lengthy extrapolation from cohort data are, on average, smaller than those due to biases of period data (Venezian 2011).

The existence of some of these problems can be illustrated quite well in a model of a closed population with age-independent mortality. Section 2 deal with some simple models of which constant mortality, independent of time and age, is the simplest. These illustrate analytically that problems exist when life tables are calculated using what appear to be traditional algorithms. Section 3 shows that in a more realistic model, with mortality generally decreasing from birth to 14 years and then increasing; that model does not provide closed solutions, so computations are used to illustrate the effects. Section 4 outlines some possible methods to make the cohort life tables correspond more closely to reality.

2. The simplest models

2.1 Constant mortality

Suppose that we had a population for which mortality is independent of age and that has is stationary birth rate so that the number of babies born between t and t+dt is $\dot{N}dt$. Assume that there is no migration in or out of this population, the only entries being by birth and the only exits by death. The death rate⁴ at age a is denoted by $\mu(a)$, so that if we denote the population born at time t,dt and alive at time $t+\tau$ by the symbol $\dot{N}(\tau)dt$ we have:

$$\frac{d\dot{N}(\tau)}{d\tau} = I\mu\dot{N}(\tau)$$
From this it is straight forward to find:

I will refer to the group of people born a given period of length T, starting at time t, as the "t cohort." The time t+kT, at which the oldest member of the cohort would have attained k periods of life will be referred to as "the t th epoch" of the cohort or as "epoch t". The total number of births in the cohort will have been:

$$N_T(t) = \int_{\tau=t}^{t+T} \dot{N} \, d\tau = T \dot{N}$$

Of the people born at time $t \le t_1 \le t + T$, the ones still alive at epoch k will be

The total number of people born between t and t+T who will be alive at epoch k will be:

I base my characterization of standard methods largely on two sources: Wilmoth et al., 2007and Bowers et al., 1986.

⁴ Throughout I will use "death—rate" and "mortality" to denote what actuaries call the "force of mortality.



The age distribution for the surviving members of the cohort at epoch k will be between and k . The ratio of those born at t and surviving to the end of the period to the total number surviving at the end of the period is:

for , and zero outside of this range. Note that this is an increasing function of both μ for all values of θ and an increasing value of θ for all $\mu > 0$. In spite of this protocols usually assume that the distribution of ages for any cohort is uniform at every age. 5

Figure 1 shows the shape of the curve at various levels of annual mortality.

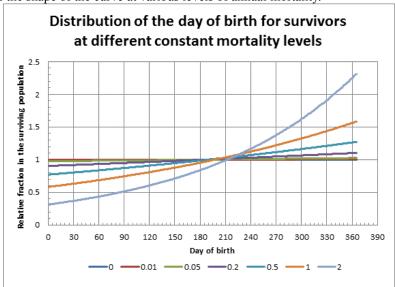


Figure 1. Distribution of the day of birth of survivors at any epoch greater than zero

For most purposes we could assume that if mortality is constant then

$$f(\theta|T) \approx \frac{1 + \mu\theta + \frac{(\mu\theta)^2}{2!} + \frac{(\mu\theta)^3}{3!}}{T\left(1 + \frac{\mu T}{2!} + \frac{(\mu T)^2}{3!}\right)}$$

At the time kT we have

Hence

_

It is worth noting, moreover, that for small values of μ the function is approximately linear, $f(\theta|T) \approx \frac{1 + \mu\theta}{\left(1 + \frac{\mu\theta}{2}\right)T}$, but at values above 0.5 it becomes increasingly convex.



so for constant mortality the age distribution of the survivors does not vary with age.

Note that the average age of the survivors to epoch k is

This goes to the limit $kT + \frac{T}{2}$ when mortality is zero and for small mortalities can be approximated by

Figure 2 shows the effect of mortality on the difference between the mid-range in years and the average age of the survivors exposed to that mortality.

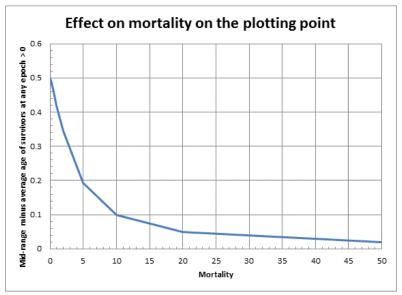


Figure 2. Effect of mortality on the plotting point

The total number of deaths between epochs k and k+1, is

The mortality in cohort life tables is usually computed by dividing this number by the exposures estimated as the initial number minus one-half of the number of deaths. That is:



It is not difficult to see that

$$\lim_{\mu \to \mathbf{0}} \hat{\mu} = \mu$$

And

$$\lim_{\mu \to \infty} \hat{\mu} = 2$$

Further,

$$\frac{d\hat{\mu}}{d\mu} = \frac{8Te^{\mathbf{I}\mu T}}{\int_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{Z}} > 0$$

So the estimate is always downward-biased and the bias increases monotonically as the mortality increases. It is a forgone conclusion that as mortality is high there will be "mortality compression."

When $\mu T = \mathbf{1}$ the bias amounts to about 7.6 percent, when $\mu T = \mathbf{2}$ it is 23.8 percent. It may be worth remembering that

So that for constant mortality we have:

So we could compute a second estimate:

$$\mu = I \frac{2}{T} \operatorname{atanh} \left(\frac{\hat{\mu}T}{2} \right)$$

 $\mu = I \frac{2}{T} \operatorname{atanh} \left(\frac{\hat{\mu}T}{2} \right)$ This provides a simple way to adjust the estimated mortality for the fact that it is, in fact, not zero. We will see that under some circumstances this works reasonably well even if the underlying model is not one of constant mortality.

2.2 Linear mortality

Suppose now that we have a mortality increasing linearly with age, that is:

$$\frac{d\dot{N}(\tau)}{d\tau} = -(\mu_0 + \alpha\tau)\dot{N}(\tau)$$
So that:

$$N_T(t) = \int_{\tau=t}^{t+T} \dot{N} d\tau = T \dot{N}$$

But now

After some tedious algebra we have

This leads to



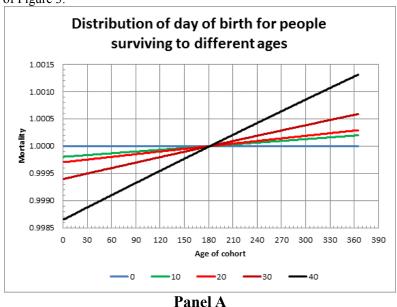
$$u_1 \mid \alpha + \alpha kT \mid t \alpha \sqrt{$$

If we now define
$$du_1 = Idt_1\sqrt{\alpha}$$
, so that:

we have

This is the case of linear mortality we have:

Thus the distribution of ages within a cohort depends on both the epoch and the mortality, as shown in the two panels of Figure 3.6



Even if the distribution day of the days of birth were constant, however, the distribution of the age at death would not be the same because in this case mortality is increasing with age.



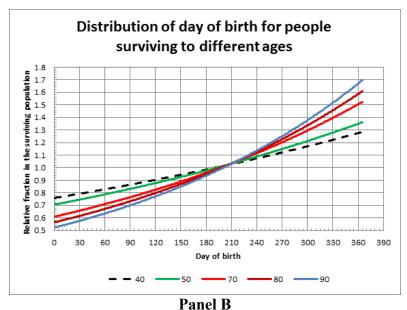


Figure 3. Fraction of survivors of different days of birth as a function of age with a linear mortality schedule

Even if the distribution day of the days of birth were constant, however, the distribution of the age at death would not be the same because in this case mortality is increasing with age.

Figure 4 shows the mortality results. The line for the model represents the assumed linear mortality. From this mortality data the number of survivors at each epoch was computed. The difference in the number of survivors represents the number of deaths in the cohort over the interval. The usual approximation that would appear in a mortality table was computed by dividing the number of deaths in the cohort in a given epoch by the assumed exposure, represented as the number alive at the beginning of the epoch minus one-half of the deaths. The usual approximation underestimates the mortality at high ages. The adjusted mortality, using the inverse hyperbolic tangent equation appropriate for mortality computed in the first approximation, assumed constant over the interval. It does very well at correcting for the estimation error.

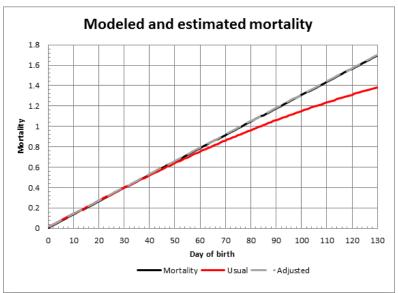


Figure 5. Estimates of cohort mortality for a linear underlying model.

The dependence of $f(\theta)$ on both μ and k brings with it a new issue. The average age of the people in a cohort at advanced ages will differ substantially from the mid-point of the age group. In the case of constant mortality, the difference is independent of age, so the main result is that the mortality table viewed as applying at the mid-point of the age range should be shifted slightly. This poses no great problem if we are analyzing a single cohort table but may become important if we are looking at changes from one cohort to another since the shift will depend on the mortality rate that applies to each



cohort. Cohort effects thus become confounded with improper calculation of the mortality. The distortion is shown in Figure 6; the effect is modest in the example used.

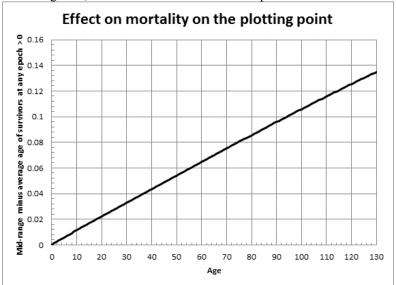


Figure 6. Distortion on the plotting point as a function of age for a linear mortality schedule.

3. A fairly general model

A fairly good representation of human mortality as a function of age is:7

$$\mu(\tau) = a_c(\tau + \delta_c)^{b_c} + a_m e^{b_m \tau}$$

In this formulation the component $a_c(\tau + \delta_c)^{b_c}$ represents perinatal and childhood mortality⁸ and the component $a_m e^{b_m \tau}$ represents mature mortality. A third component, representing mortality from accidents, suicides, and homicides is sometimes added. With this representation we have:

This is much too complex to lead to closed form solutions, but simple enough to allow computation. A set of parameter values that approximates mortality in modern developed countries is $a_c = 16.7$, $b_c = 10.79$, $\delta_c = 0.05$ days, $a_m = 19.4$, $b_m = 0.085$ per year. The mortality curve that results from these parameters is shown in Figure 7

This representation views humans as homogeneous. An alternative is to view humans as a heterogeneous group made of individuals of different initial gene endowment, environment, and propensity to risky exposure in this case the joint distribution of endowment and environment would lead to the decline in mortality with age at very young ages and the cumulative effects of exposure would lead to the increase in mortality at higher ages. In such a model we would need to take into account the fact that the joint distribution of the three factors among the survivors is a function of age. Moreover, the initial distribution of these factors at birth should recognize the effect of genetic selection.

The element δc ensures that mortality does not go to infinity as the age goes to zero. It is important to note that the rules for determining how live-births are to be distinguished from still-births change over time, both in terms of formal rules and their practical application. Since this determination is important in establishing what we mean by mortality at age zero, the value of this element may change substantially over time.

⁹ This is patterned after mortality in the US in 1980.



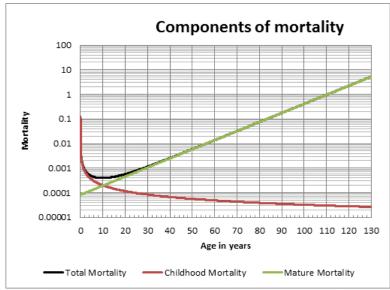
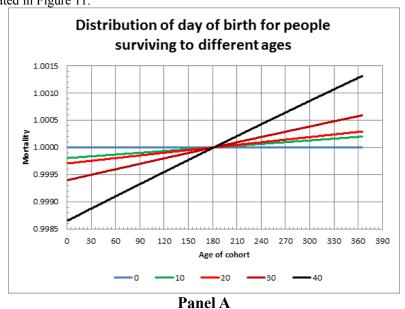


Figure 7. A more typical mortality pattern for modern developed economies

Figures 8, 9, and 10 illustrate the results obtained. These are much like those obtained from the linear model. The distributions of the day of birth of survivors of different ages, shown in Figure 8, are much closer to linear at high ages. The estimated mortality curve of Figure 9 shows the same compression at high ages and illustrates that the inverse hyperbolic tangent transformation provides a good approximation to the original mortality curve at high ages. At low ages this transformation is not enough, because the very steep decline of mortality in the perinatal period. Figure 10 shows the age distortion involved in assuming that the actual average age is at the midpoint of the range.

A set of parameter values that approximates mortality in developed countries in the middle $1700s^{10}$ is $a_c = 16.7$, $b_c = 10.79$, $\delta_c = 0.05$ days, $a_m = 19.4$, $b_m = 0.085$ per year This is illustrated in Figure 11.



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¹⁰ This is patterned after mortality in the Sweden in 1750.



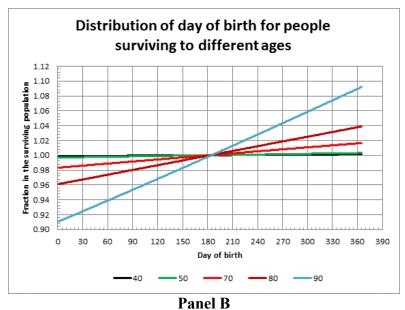
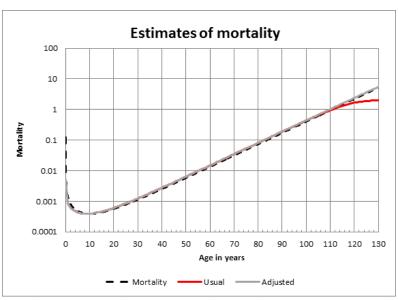


Figure 8. Fraction of survivors of different days of birth as a function of age with a mortality schedule more appropriate for modern developed countries



Panel A



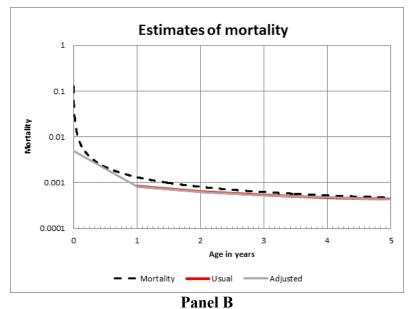


Figure 9. Estimates of cohort mortality for a more general model using parameters for modern developed countries



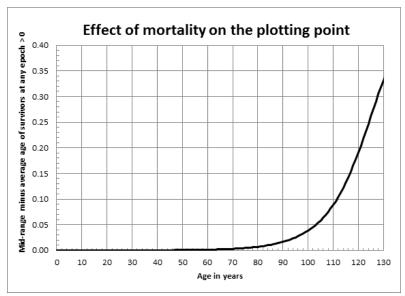


Figure 10. Distortion on the plotting point as a function of age for a more general model using parameters for modern developed countries

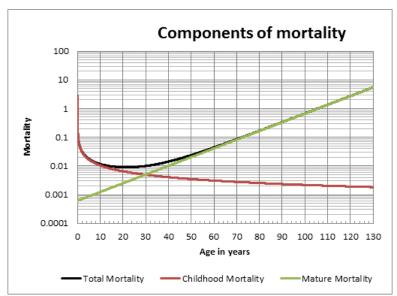
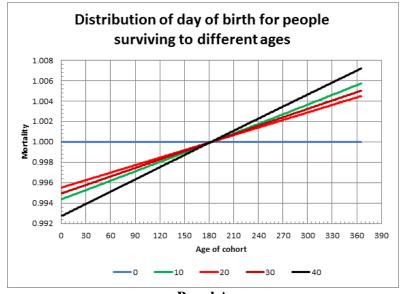


Figure 11. A more typical mortality pattern for developed economies around 1750

The results for this set of parameters are shown in Figures 12, 13, 1nd 14. Qualitatively nothing has changed; the descriptions given above still apply. Quantitatively, however, there are subtle changes that deserve attention. These are best summarized by Figure 15. Panel A of that figure shows the distortions in the plotting points for the two cases using the parameters given above. The differences are not huge, but are enough to distort relations among cohorts if no adjustment is made. Panel B of Figure 15 show what the effect would be if the parameter a_m had been kept at a value of 0.085 for both calculations; in that event the distortions are quite appreciable.





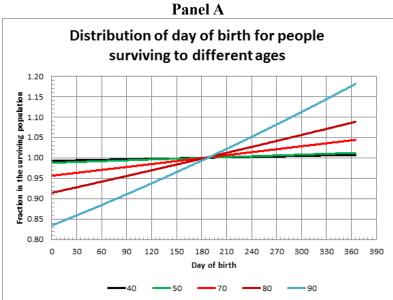
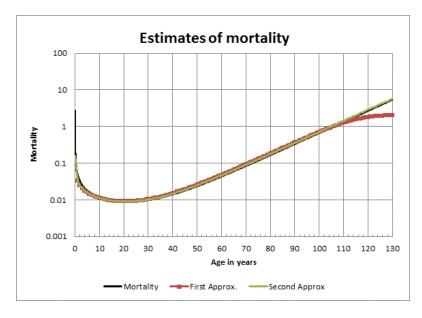


Figure 12. Fraction of survivors of different days of birth as a function of age with a mortality schedule more appropriate for developed countries in the 1750s





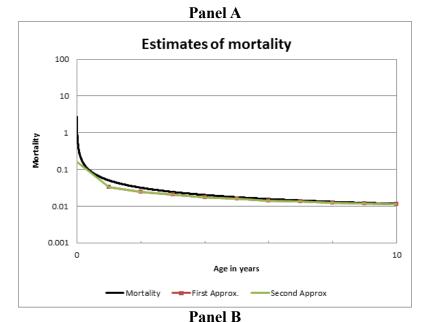


Figure 13. Estimates of cohort mortality for a more general model using parameters developed countries around 1750

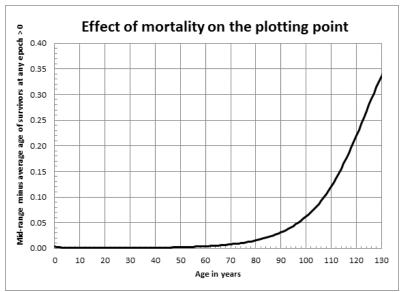


Figure 14. Distortion on the plotting point as a function of age for a more general model using parameters for developed countries in the 1750s.

Thus the usual implicit assumption that the mortality applies to the midpoint of the age range may have a substantial effect when we attempt to partition effects into cohort effects and time effects.

4. Discussion

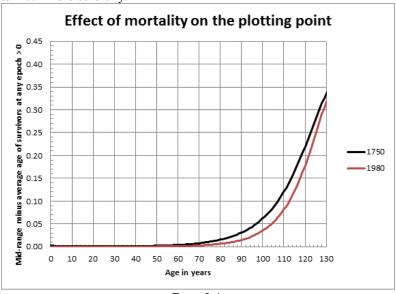
Even very simple models, including one with constant mortality, suggest that some of the assumptions underlying the computation of mortality tables are open to serious question. Some re-examination of our techniques is in order. It is of at least passing interest to point out that the simple model with constant mortality implies that the highest value of mortality that would be obtained by simple calculations is 2, and that the more complicated models all seem to follow that rule. It is also useful to know that the use of the inverse hyperbolic tangent does very well at adjusting the simple computations to the actual underlying mortality at high ages.

The models also imply that the use of age mid-range in the analysis of data may create substantial



distortions is attempts to use cohort-time models to explain mortality trends or to forecast future mortality.

The models have another, more practical aspect. They suggest that traditional life tables are underestimating cohort mortality at high ages. This would lead to chronic overestimates of the cost of pensions and social insurance costs if these mortalities are used and even more so if they are extrapolated to ages beyond the ones in the life tables. Hence it appears advisable to assess the potential distorting effects much more carefully.



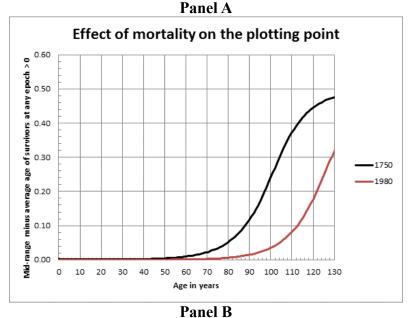


Figure 15. Comparison of the distortion on the plotting point as a function of age for a more general model using parameters for different conditions.

The methods shown here do not constitute a complete plan for estimation of cohort mortalities. Even with infinite populations it would be necessary to implement methods of successive approximations in order to get obtain valid estimates, especially in the perinatal and infant periods. Successive approximations will require interpolation between the averages for the age groups, and different interpolation formulas will necessarily give somewhat different answers. Thus the design of these methods is a daunting endeavor. The work presented here does, however, suggest that relatively simple interpolation formulas might work well enough for most practical purposes, except possibly at very young ages. ¹¹

¹¹ In this range, data in terms of days, weeks, and months may be essential for good representation of



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The Linkage of Macroeconomic Indicators and Stock Market Performance in Relation to Major Economic Events: The Case of Taiwan

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ABSTRACT

This research focused on the linkages between macroeconomic indicators and stock returns in Taiwan in relation to those important economic events. This study selected five macroeconomic indicators including CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, interest rate and money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index. In addition, this study added some important economic events of 1997 financial crisis, Expo 2010 Shanghai China and ECFA between Taiwan and China as dummy variables to examine the impact on these events on stock returns. The monthly data series of the six variables for the period of January 1996 to December 2010 were collected. The empirical results show that the five macroeconomic indicators and the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index are all cointegrated. There exist positive long term relation between stock market performance and industrial production, interest rate and money supply; while negative relation between stock market performance and CPI and exchange rate. The finding of positive relation between stock market performance and money supply is not consistent with that of Mookerjee and Yu (1997) and the findings of negative relation between stock market performance and CPI and exchange rate are not consistent with the empirical results of Ratanapakorn and Sharma (2007). The results of Granger Causality show that the macroeconomic indicators can not help predict the stock performance in Taiwan, which is consistent to the findings of Ali et al. (2010).

Keywords: Macroeconomic Indicators, Stock Market Performance, Granger Causality

1. Introduction

The linkage between macroeconomic indicators and stock market performance has well been documented for the past two decades. Most academic works have confirmed the relation between macroeconomic indicators and stock price changes. The early evidence came from the developed markets such as the USA (Fama 1981, Pearce and Roley 1985, Chen, Roll and Ross 1986, Schwert 1990), Japan (Mukherjee and Naka 1995) and Italy (Panetta 2002). More efforts have been placed on the developing countries in recent years. For example, Kwon and Shin (1999) studied the relation between the macroeconomic indicators and stock market performance during 1980 to 1992 and found there existed a long term relation among stock index, industrial index, money supply, exchange rate, and trade



surplus. Maysami and Koh (2000) confirmed the similar findings in Singapore during the period of 1988 to 1995.

However, the relation between macroeconomic indicators and stock market performance were kind of mixed. Mookerjee and Yu (1997) concluded a negative relation between money supply and stock returns. Wongbangpo and Sharma (2002) investigated the relation of macroeconomic indicators and stock market performances of five countries of ASEAN (Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Philippine, and Indonesia) during the period of 1985 to 1996 and concluded inconsistent relationship across countries. For example, there existed a positive relation between exchange rate and stock returns in Malaysia, Philippine, and Indonesia; while a negative relation in Singapore and Thailand. And there existed a positive relation between interest rate and stock return in Malaysia and Indonesia; while a negative relation in Singapore, Philippine, and Thailand. Christopher et al. (2006) indicated a negative relation between inflation rate and stock return in New Zealand; Ratanapakorn and Sharma (2007) showed a positive relation between stock index performance and inflation rate in USA. Ratneswary and Rasiah (2010) argued that macroeconomic indicators influenced stock performance in Malaysia; Pilinkus (2010) indicated a similar results in the Baltic states; while Ali et al. (2010) showed no causal relationship between macroeconomic indicators and stock performance in Pakistan.

The published studies on the linkages between macroeconomic indicators and stock returns are limited in Taiwan in recent years. Moreover, the literature on the impacts of some recent important economic events such as Asian financial crisis, Expo 2010 Shanghai China and Economic Cooperation Framework Agreement (ECFA) between Taiwan and China on stock market performance are few. This research thus focused on the linkages between macroeconomic indicators and stock returns in Taiwan in relation to those important economic events. In short, the purposes of this study are two-fords:

- 1. Is there long term cointegration relation between stock performance and macroeconomic indicators in relation to major economic events in Taiwan?
- 2. Can macroeconomic indicators help explained the stock performance in Taiwan?



2. Methodology

1. Data and Study Period

This study followed previous works and selected five macroeconomic indicators including CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, interest rate and money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index. The monthly data series of the six variables for the period of January 1996 to December 2010 were collected. In addition, this study added some important economic events of 1997 financial crisis, Expo 2010 Shanghai China and ECFA as dummy variables to examine the impact o these events on stock returns. All data were from the Taiwan Economic Journal (TEJ) data base. The descriptions of all six variables are as Table 1, and the definitions of dummy variables are as Table 2.

Table 1 The Description of Variables

Variable	Symbol	Description
Taiwan Weighted Stock Index	TAIEX	TWSE TAIEX
Taiwan Consumer Price Index	CPI _{tw}	Taiwan CPI 2006=100
Taiwan Industrial Production Index	$\mathrm{IP}_{\mathrm{tw}}$	Taiwan IPI 2006=100
Exchange Rate Against US Dollar	$\mathrm{EX}_{\mathrm{tw}}$	NTD/USD
Taiwan Interest Rate	INT _{tw}	One Year Deposit Rate of Bank of Taiwan
Taiwan Money supply	MON _{tw}	M2



Table 2 Definitions of Major Economic Events

Events	Symbol	Descriptions
Asian Financial Crisis	$D_{_1}$	$D_1 = 1, 1997.6 \sim 1998.7$ $D_1 = 0, \text{ others}$
Expo 2010 Shanghai China	D_2	$D_2 = 1,2010.5 \sim 2010.10$ $D_2 = 0$, others
ECFA (Before Signature)	D_3	$D_3 = 1,2009.3 \sim 2010.6$ $D_3 = 0$, others
ECFA (After Signature)	D_4	$D_4 = 1,2010.6 \sim 2010.12$ $D_4 = 0$, others

Note: The cut point of Signature of ECFA is defined as the fifth meeting between Chiang Pin-kung and Chen Yun-lin on 30 June29,2010.

2.1 The model

This study employed ADF test by Dickey and Fuller (1981), Johansen's cointegration test by Johansen and Granger causality to examine the linkage between macroeconomic indicators and stock market performance in Taiwan and the causal relation between variables.

The advantage of Johansen's cointegration test over the model proposed by Engle and Granger (1987) is that Johansen's model can incorporate more than two variables into the cointegration model. The model used for the examination of long term relation between variables are as followed:

$$_{t}Y = \overline{b}B + BY_{t-1} + B_{2}Y_{t-2} + \dots + B_{p}Y_{t-p} + \lambda D + \varepsilon_{t}$$
 (1)

Where
$$Y_t$$
 is a random vector,
$$Y_t = \begin{bmatrix} TAIEX_t \\ CPI_t \\ IP_t \\ EX_t \\ INT_t \\ MON_t \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = [\lambda_1 \quad \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_3 \quad \lambda_4]$$



$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_1 \\ \mathbf{D}_2 \\ \mathbf{D}_3 \\ \mathbf{D}_4 \end{bmatrix},$$

p: the lag period, \mathcal{E}_t : the error term,

In addition to the examination of long term relation between macroeconomic indicators and market performance, this study also used the vector error correction model (ECM) to investigate the dynamic adjustment toward long term equilibrium, the ECM is expressed as followed:

$$_{t}\ Y\Delta\ C_{\overline{0}}\ C_{\overline{1}}\ Y_{\underline{1}}\Delta C_{\underline{2}}\ C_{\underline{2}}\ Y_{t}\underline{\Delta}_{\underline{2}} \quad ..+... \quad +C_{p-1}\ M_{t-p+1}\ +\Pi Y_{-t-p}+\varepsilon_{t}$$

$$= C_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} C_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \Pi Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$
 (2)

Where $C_i = (I - B_1 - \dots - B_i)$, $\Pi = (I - B_1 - \dots - B_p)$, ΠY_{t-p} is the error correction term, B_i is the coefficient matrix

The error correction ΠY_{t-p} denotes the short term deviation of variables and the long-run coefficient matrix Π denotes the adjustment speed to long term equilibrium.

3. The Empirical Results

This study used monthly data from January 1996 to December 2010, 180 observations in total for each variable. To avoid the difference between level value for each variable, CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, and money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index were taken logarithms.

(1) The Unit Root Test

Figure 1 to 6 shows the variation of all six variables during the period of January 1996 to December 2010, respectively.



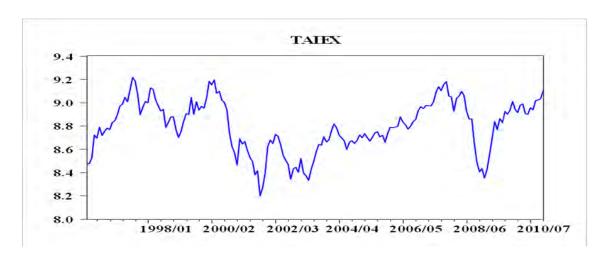


Figure 1 The Variation of Taiwan Weighted Stock Index during the Period of January 1996 to December 2010 (in logarithm)

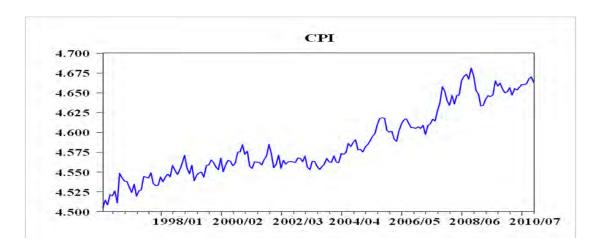


Figure 2 The Variation of Consumer Price Index of Taiwan during the Period of January 1996 to December 2010 (in logarithm)

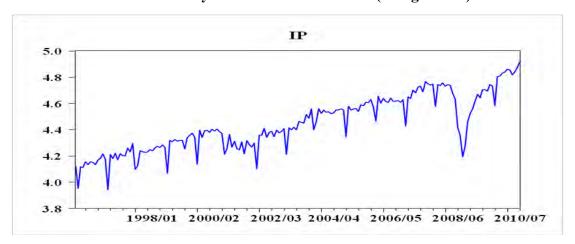




Figure 3 The Variation of Taiwan Industrial Production during the Period of January 1996 to December 2010 (in logarithm)

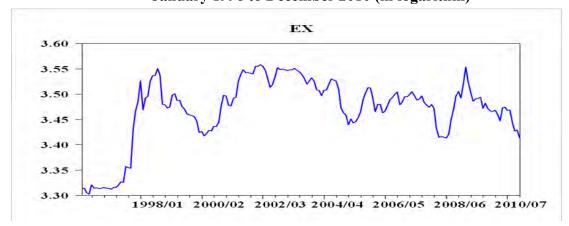


Figure 4 The Variation of Exchange Rate of NTD against USD during the Period of January 1996 to December 2010 (in logarithm)

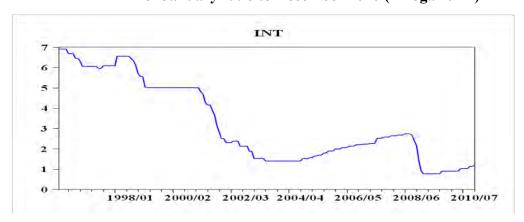


Figure 5 The Variation of One Year Time Deposit Rate of Bank of Taiwan during the Period of January 1996 to December 2010

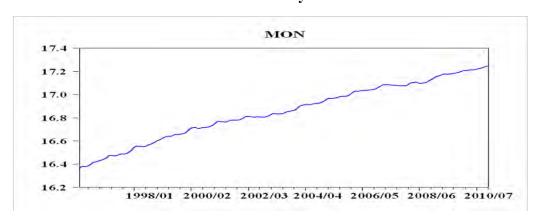


Figure 6 The Variation of Taiwan M2 during the Period of January 1996 to

December 2010 (in logarithm)



The results from Table 3 show that the original values o all six variables could not reject the null hypotheses of unit root. However, the after taken first difference, the all six variables became stationary under 1% level of significance, which meant all variables were I(1).

(2) Johansen's Cointegration Test

The results of Johansen Cointegration Test are shown in Table 4 (Trace Test) and in Table 5 (Maximum Eigenvalue Test). It is obvious that the five macroeconomic indicators including CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, interest rate, money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index are all cointegrated.

Table 3 The Results of Augmented Dickey Fuller Test

Variable	lev	vel	First difference		
variable	ADF	Result	ADF	Result	
TAIEX	-2.424459		-12.29235***		
СРІ	-1.414177		-16.69681***		
IP	-2.563183		-20.90662***	atation and	
EX	-2.422533	nonstationary	-10.96774***	stationary	
INT	-1.785937		-8.210696***		
MON	-2.491782		-8.658862***		

^{1. ***} denotes rejection of the null hypotheses at 1% level of significance

Table 4 Results of Johansen's Cointegration Test (Trace Test)

No. of Cointegrated Equations	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	5% critical value	Prob.
None***	0.365484	220.7083	103.8473	0.0000
At most 1***	0.284641	140.1923	76.97277	0.0000
At most 2***	0.215036	80.90241	54.07904	0.0000
At most 3**	0.118018	38.04758	35.19275	0.0239
At most 4	0.059593	15.81920	20.26184	0.1830
At most 5	0.027545	4.943906	9.164546	0.2896

^{1.**(***)}denotes rejection of null hypotheses at 5%(1%) level of significance

^{2.}critiacl values based on MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values

^{2.}critical value based on Kinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

^{3.} the lag period p=2



 Table 5
 Results of Johansen's Cointegration Test (Maximum Eigenvalue Test)

No. of Cointegrated	Eigenvelue	Max-Eigen	5% critical	Prob.
Equations	Eigenvalue	Statistic	value	Prob.
None***	0.365484	80.51597	40.95680	0.0000
At most 1***	0.284641	59.28990	34.80587	0.0000
At most 2***	0.215036	42.85484	28.58808	0.0004
At most 3	0.118018	22.22838	22.29962	0.0512
At most 4	0.059593	10.87529	15.89210	0.2612
At most 5	0.027545	4.943906	9.164546	0.2896

^{1.***}denotes rejection of null hypotheses at 1% level of significance

It can be found from Table 6 that there exist positive long term relation between stock market performance and industrial production, interest rate and money supply; while there exist negative relation between stock market performance and CPI and exchange rate of NTD against USD. In addition, D1 (Asian Financial Crisis) and D3 (ECFA/Before Signature) has positive relation with the stock market performance.

Table 6 The Coefficients of One Cointegrated Equation (Dependent Variable TAIEX)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	5.498739	2.188573	2.512477	0.0129
СРІ	-3.953179	0.852443	-4.637473	0.0000
IP	0.679177	0.112921	6.014612	0.0000
EX	-1.143316	0.219083	-5.218638	0.0000
INT	0.130758	0.015610	8.376371	0.0000
MON	1.301093	0.254247	5.117437	0.0000
D1	0.273948	0.045082	6.076701	0.0000
D2	-0.066271	0.078943	-0.839478	0.4024
D3	0.091702	0.045107	2.033009	0.0436
D4	0.067193	0.083443	0.805257	0.4218

^{2.}critical value based on Kinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

^{3.} the lag period p=2



(3) Error Correction Model

The error correction term \mathcal{E}_{t-1} can be used to judge the short term dynamic adjustment. The positive \mathcal{E}_{t-1} denotes the positive adjustment toward long term equilibrium. And the value demotes the speed of adjustment. Table 7 shows that TAIEX was significantly affected by itself two periods ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was positive. Similarly, it can be found that interest rate was significantly affected by itself one and two periods ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was positive. However, the industrial production—significantly affected by itself one period ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was negative.



Table 7 The Results of Error Correction Model

Error Correction	D(TAIEX)	D(CPI)	D(IP)	D(EX)	D(INT)	D(MON)
CaintEa1	0.002965	-0.001491	0.003776	-0.003290	0.101256**	-0.007231**
CointEq1	[0.17950]	[-0.94122]	[0.24336]	[-0.98679]	[4.57336]	[-7.46179]
D(TAIEV(1))	0.046836	-0.023195**	0.183534**	-0.008489	0.145794	0.007215
D(TAIEX(-1))	[0.51741]	[-2.67142]	[2.15810]	[-0.46460]	[1.20145]	[1.35839]
D(TAIEV(2))	0.202583**	0.016979	0.113732	-0.006422	0.260361**	0.000847
D(TAIEX(-2))	[2.18245]	[1.90695]	[1.30415]	[-0.34277]	[2.09233]	[0.15546]
D(CDI(1))	-0.818019	-0.138598	1.352588	0.015520	2.927991**	-0.179495**
D(CPI(-1))	[-0.98924]	[-1.74738]	[1.74103]	[0.09298]	[2.64132]	[-3.69954]
D(CDI(2))	0.217008	-0.096985	1.324214	0.101226	3.350462**	-0.168260**
D(CPI(-2))	[0.27602]	[-1.28607]	[1.79280]	[0.63786]	[3.17898]	[-3.64760]
D(ID(1))	-0.008837	0.039334**	-0.596398**	-0.017533	0.271202**	0.007020
D(IP(-1))	[-0.08845]	[4.10449]	[-6.35391]	[-0.86940]	[2.02492]	[1.19759]
D(ID(2))	-0.010683	0.006615	-0.066653	-0.002866	0.172041	-0.006409
D(IP(-2))	[-0.10723]	[0.69221]	[-0.71212]	[-0.14250]	[1.28818]	[-1.09639]
D(EV(1))	0.010028	-0.073469	0.366267	0.115680	2.203018**	-0.019315
D(EX(-1))	[0.02377]	[-1.81583]	[0.92422]	[1.35862]	[3.89589]	[-0.78042]
D(EV(2))	0.397088	0.084196**	-0.290892	0.026466	0.439629	0.020191
D(EX(-2))	[0.92089]	[2.03566]	[-0.71806]	[0.30407]	[0.76054]	[0.79808]
D(INIT(1))	0.011402	0.005038	0.079281	-0.013808	0.259046**	0.002675
D(INT(-1))	[0.20534]	[0.94585]	[1.51971]	[-1.23195]	[3.47998]	[0.82094]
D(INIT(2))	-0.070741	0.008897	-0.063365	0.007366	0.165894**	0.002001
D(INT(-2))	[-1.31331]	[1.72196]	[-1.25211]	[0.67743]	[2.29740]	[0.63312]
D(MON(1))	1.520270	-0.108455	-4.176000**	-0.336871	3.566428	0.548666**
D(MON(-1))	[1.08007]	[-0.80329]	[-3.15787]	[-1.18566]	[1.89007]	[6.64348]
D(MON(2))	-0.974659	0.122452	4.335751**	-0.009003	0.690506	-0.279802**
D(MON(-2))	[-0.76458]	[1.00145]	[3.62026]	[-0.03499]	[0.40407]	[-3.74092]

^{1.}t value in bracket

(4) The results of Granger Causality

Table 8 shows the lead-lag relation between variables (only significant results are shown here). It can be

^{2.**} denotes rejection of null hypotheses at 1% level of significance



found stock market performance led CPI and interest rate; industrial production led CPI; while MON has reciprocal relation with CPI and industrial production, respectively.

Table 8 The Results of Granger Causality

Null Hypothesis	F-Statistic	Prob.
TAIEX does not Granger Cause CPI	3.78664**	0.0246
TAIEX does not Granger Cause INT	11.1749***	3.E-05
IP does not Granger Cause CPI	24.0278***	6.E-10
INT does not Granger Cause CPI	5.20561***	0.0064
MON does not Granger Cause CPI	12.0797***	1.E-05
CPI does not Granger Cause MON	5.39851***	0.0053
INT does not Granger Cause IP	10.3264***	6.E-05
MON does not Granger Cause IP	13.6626***	3.E-06
IP does not Granger Cause MON	8.22658***	0.0004
EX does not Granger Cause INT	4.51778**	0.0122

^{**(***)} denotes rejection of null hypotheses at 5% (1%) level of significance

Only significant results are shown here

4. Conclusion

This research focused on the linkages between macroeconomic indicators and stock returns in Taiwan in relation to those important economic events. This study followed previous works and selected five macroeconomic indicators including CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, interest rate and money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index. In addition, this study added some important economic events of 1997 financial crisis, Expo 2010 Shanghai China and ECFA between Taiwan and China as dummy variables to examine the impact o these events on stock returns.

The results of Johansen Cointegration test show that the five macroeconomic indicators including CPI, industrial production index, exchange rate, interest rate, money supply in addition to the Taiwan Weighted Stock Index are all cointegrated. It can be found that there exist positive long term relation between stock market performance and industrial production, interest rate and money supply. The positive relation between stock market performance and industrial production are consistent with the finding of most of literature. However, the finding of positive relation between stock market performance and money supply is not consistent with that of



Mookerjee and Yu (1997). The findings of negative relation between stock market performance and CPI and exchange rate are also not consistent with the empirical results of Ratanapakorn and Sharma (2007), which indicated a positive relation between stock index performance and inflation rate in USA.

The results from Error Correction Model shows that stock market performance was significantly affected by itself two periods ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was positive. Similarly, it can be found that interest rate was significantly affected by itself one and two periods ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was positive. However, the industrial production significantly affected by itself one period ahead, and the adjustment toward long term equilibrium was negative.

The results of Granger Causality show that stock market performance led CPI and interest rate; industrial production led CPI; while money supply has reciprocal relation with CPI and industrial production, respectively. However, the results also indicate that though there exist long term relation between macroeconomic indicators and stock market performance, the macroeconomic indicators can not help predict the stock performance in Taiwan, which is consistent to the findings of Ali et al. (2010).



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Information Disclosure and Forcast Accuracy

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between information disclosure and forecast accuracy. Prospective financial information disclosed in prospectuses for initial puglic offerings is examined according to Financial Reporting Standard No. 29. Disclosure Levels of prospective financial information are further categorised into three groups, namely, total disclosure items recommended by FRS-29 (TSR), total disclosure items not recommended by FRS-29 (TSV) and overall disclosure items recommended and not recommended by FRS-29 (TSRV). The three groups of disclosure levels are then investigated for their significant relationships with forecast accuracy.

The results show that the disclosure level of prospective financial information, measured by total disclosure items recommended by FRS-29, has a significantly negative relationship with forecast accuracy. It indicates that IPOs with more disclosure of prospective financial information tend to have lower forecast errors, while IPOs with less disclosure of prospective financial information tend to have higher forecast errors. When level of disclosure is measured by items not recommended by FRS-29 and is measured by overall disclosure items, both recommended and not recommended by FRS-29, level of disclosure does not have a significant relationship with forecast accuracy.

Keywords: Information Disclosure, Forecast Accuracy, Initial Public Offerings, Prospectus

1. Introduction

Initial public offerings (IPOs) play a crucial role in equity markets and the economy, as companies are able to raise capital from members of the public. A prospectus, which details the terms of issue and information about the issuing company, is sent to potential investors and is one of the most important documents for investors making investment decisions. Among information disclosed in prospectuses, prospective financial information12 enables investors to evaluate a company's future performance and is perceived as the most important item (Ho and Wong, 2001) as IPOs generally do not, or are unable to, provide historical financial information on which potential investors can base predictions about future performance.

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¹² Prospective financial information has different labels, including forward-looking information, future-oriented information and financial forecasts.



Prospective financial information is normally presented as a forecast or a projection and is based on assumptions regarding future events. Since the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), in the early 1970s, changed its long-held position prohibiting the release of prospective financial information in prospectuses and recognized that information regarding a company's future is of interest to the investing public, the disclosure of such information has received much attention in the literature. Many studies have focused on earnings forecasts, little effort, however, has been made to investigate overall disclosure of prospective financial information in an IPO context and their relation to forecast accuracy. In order to provide a better understanding of information disclosure on IPOs, this study is aimed to examine the information disclosure of prospective financial information in IPO prospectuses for companies newly listed on the New Zealand Stock Exchange for the period of 1987 to 2001.

The association between information disclosure and forecast accuracy in IPO prosectuses is explored in order to establish the linkage between disclosure literature and forecast accuracy literature. Among disclosure literature, research often focuses on the quantity of the disclosure, but does not always include an assessment of its credibility (Wiedman 2000). The study investigates not only the disclosure levels of prospective financial information but also their accuracy of such information.

1.1. Importance of the Study and Contribution to the Literature

Previous voluntary disclosure studies tend to focus on general information disclosed in annual reports. However, there are clear differences across types of information and countries, with the variables that explain levels of disclosure varying among different types of information (Meek, et al., 1995). No studies have attempted to comprehensively explore the extent of voluntary disclosure of prospective information in prospectuses. This may be due to the difficulties in obtaining data, as companies are reluctant to disclose voluntarily more prospective financial information than is necessary, out of fear of lawsuits that might arise due to unattained forecasts. Consequently, investigating the overall disclosure of prospective financial information would be a desirable and important contribution to the extant literature.

Previous studies examining voluntary disclosure have mainly focused on information in annual or interim reports of listed companies (Chow and Wong-Boren 1987; Bradbury 1991; Hossain, Perrera and Rahman 1995; Botosan 1997). As Botosan (1997) indicated, annual reports may not provide a powerful proxy for overall disclosure level as listed companies may provide information through other channels. On the other hand, companies making initial public offerings have less information available to the public than existing listed companies. Consequently, information in the IPO prospectuses may be a better proxy for the overall disclosure of prospective financial information. Examining the extent of disclosure information in IPO prospectuses may therefore shed further light on company disclosure practices.

This study contributes to the existing literature by integrating the voluntary disclosure and forecast accuracy literature to provide a comprehensive model, which explains levels of disclosure of prospective financial information. By establishing the relationship between disclosure level of



prospective financial information and forecast accuracy, the benefits of disclosure of prospective financial information may be justified. The findings of this study may also provide a clear connection between voluntary disclosure of prospective financial information and forecast accuracy, and may, therefore, supplement the relatively few studies in the area of examining the relationship between disclosure attributes and disclosure impact.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The second section provides an overview of the theoretical and empirical literature relating to the disclosure of prospective financial information. The third section describes the theoretical framework and hypotheses development. The fourth section outlines the research methodology of the study. The results are presented in the fifth section. The final section summarizes the major findings of the study and their implications.

2. Literature Review

Prospective financial information, with its value relevant relationship to stock prices, is linked to various areas of studies. The capital market literature pay much attention to management earnings forecasts, as the forecasts affect the information environment and influence the level and variability of security prices (Kothari 2001; Healy and Palepu 2001)¹³. On the other hand, the accounting choice literature addresses the issues of earnings management and the incentives of management's accounting choices and their influences on share prices (Fields et al. 2001). The voluntary disclosure literature, however, rarely focuses on prospective financial information, but rather on general financial information in annual reports. This may be due to the difficulty in obtaining prospective financial information, as the provision of such information is not prevalent. In order to examine the voluntary disclosure of prospective financial information, it is essential to understand the underlying theories of voluntary disclosure literature. This section begins with an overview of the theories on which the voluntary disclosure literature is based. Several models focusing on the incentives for voluntary disclosure and the costs associated with voluntary disclosure are then discussed. This section ends with a review of related empirical research.

2.1 Theories Underlying Voluntary Disclosure Literature

Although there are arguments about whether there is a comprehensive theory of disclosure (Verrecchia 2001; Dye 2001), signaling and agency theories are often utilized to provide theoretical guidance in interpreting empirical analyses of voluntary disclosure studies.

2.1.1 Signaling Theory

The concept of signaling was first introduced by Spence (1973) in his analysis of the role of education in the labor market and was then applied widely in finance and accounting literature. Spence's educational signaling model suggests that more talented workers will attempt to signal this fact to

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¹³ See Kothari (2001), who reviews capital markets' research and Healy and Palpu (2001), who evaluate empirical research on corporate disclosure.



potential employers by acquiring more education (Spence 1973, 1974). By altering some of the observable characteristics, the activities of signaling convey favorable information to potential employers. Nevertheless, signaling costs arise when job applicants make certain adjustments to convince potential employers of their quality. Applying signaling theory to modeling voluntary disclosure of financial information is based on the notion that managers, due to their better position in obtaining inside knowledge, have superior information about the company's current and future performance than do investors.

Leland and Pyle (1977) applied signaling theory and constructed a univariate signaling model in which risk-adverse entrepreneurs communicate private information about expected future cash flows through the retention of a portion of firm ownership. Hughes (1986) extended Leland and Pyle's (1977) model by introducing a bivariate signaling model in which the entrepreneur discloses inside information through two signals: the percentage of retained ownership (α), and a direct disclosure about expected future cash flow (Y). With the existence of informational asymmetry between investors and managers about the value of a firm, Hughes (1986) assumed that managers have incentives to disclosure inside information to investors. The disclosed information is perceived as a credible signal by investors, as the entrepreneur is penalized if ex post observable cash flow of the firm indicates the disclosure to be fraudulent (Hughes 1986). With the model, IPO valuation increases in both Y and α . The two signals are related through their cost structures and are chosen simultaneously to minimize the cost of signaling firm value. If one signal becomes more costly, the other signal will be used relatively more to maintain the maximum disclosure.

Trueman (1986) argues that a firm's market value is a function of investors' perceptions of management's ability to anticipate and respond to future changes in the firm's economic environment. Therefore, capable managers have incentives to voluntarily disclosure earnings forecasts to signal their competence and, therefore, to boost the firm's market value. Blacconiere and Patten (1994) examined the effect of a firm's environmental disclosures on share prices and found that firms with more extensive environmental disclosures suffered less in their share prices. This is consistent with signaling theory, in that the market interprets accounting disclosures as 'good news' signals, whereas their absence is interpreted as 'bad news'.

2.1.2 Agency Theory

Agency theory is widely applied in voluntary disclosure literature to explain the incentives for voluntary disclosure. Agency theory suggests that the level of information voluntarily disclosed by a company is a function of its costly contracting relations between shareholders and managers (Jensen and Meckling 1976). Voluntary disclosure of financial information can be regarded as a cost effective way to monitor the activities of managers, and therefore, to reduce the conflicts of interest between shareholders and managers, i.e. to mitigate agency costs (Holthausen and Leftwich 1983; Kelly 1983; Watts and Zimmerman 1986). Managers therefore have incentives to disclose more financial information to investors to reduce agency costs.



2.1.3 Incentives for Voluntary Disclosure

There are several hypotheses under which the incentives for voluntary disclosure are investigated. Based on the proprietary cost hypothesis, research on voluntary disclosure assumes that managers have superior information to outside investors about a firm's expected future performance. The question arising from this assumption is: under what circumstances will a manager disclose or withhold this information?

Milgrom (1981) addresses this question and considers whether the possessor of superior information about product quality can influence a buyer by selectively disclosing what he knows. The findings suggest that, with the adverse-selection problem, the possessor of information about a product or asset would be obliged to fully disclose information to a buyer. The notion underlying this is that a rational buyer interprets information about the asset's value or quality that is withheld as "unfavorable". Consequently, the possessor of information is forced to reveal what he knows.

While Milgrom's (1981) results provide an insight into voluntary disclosure, other studies provide different evidence. Verrecchia (1983), in an attempt to examine incentives for managers to provide discretionary disclosures, finds that a "threshold level of disclosure" exists where the increase in firm value associated with providing a signal is greater than the proprietary costs of the disclosure. The proprietary costs are costs associated with disclosures that provide rival firms with a competitive advantage. If the proprietary cost goes to zero (i.e. in the absence of a proprietary cost), a manager will choose a policy of full disclosure. In other words, there exists an equilibrium level at which not all information is disclosed (Verrecchia 2001).

While there are costs associated with disclosing information that is proprietary in nature, the decision of whether or not to disclose such information depends on the nature of the competition in which proprietary costs arise (see Darrough and Stoughton 1990; Feltham and Xie 1992; Darrough 1993).

The incentives for firms to disclose information are also influenced by the competitive position in product markets¹⁵. For firms engaged in an entry game, where one firm contemplates producing a good already produced by another firm, greater competition encourages more disclosure (Darrough and Stoughton 1990; Verrecchia 1990). On the other hand, for firms engaged in a post-entry game, where firms are both currently producing goods, greater competition inhibits more disclosure (Clinch and Verrecchia 1997).

Hayes and Lundholm (1996) provide a model to explain how firms choose to disclose their segmental information for trading off the benefit of informing the capital market about their firm value against the

¹⁴ Above the threshold a manager discloses what he observes; below the threshold he withholds his information (Verrecchia 1983, 179).

¹⁵ See Verrecchia (2001) and Dye (2001); they provide a detailed review of different models in different competitive markets.



proprietary costs of aiding rival firms. More detailed segment reports provide investors with more information about the future value of the firm. However, there are costs arising from the more detailed reporting, as the firm's competitors will use the information to the disclosing firm's disadvantage. Therefore, firms have incentives to disclose disaggregated information only when each segment has similar performance, but to conceal differences in segmental performance by reporting only aggregate information. Harris (1998) further reports that operations in less competitive industries are less likely to be reported as industry segments, which is consistent with Hayes and Lundholm's (1996) results. Harris (1998) also reports that firms cite fear of competitive harm as a disincentive to detailed segment reporting, as well as the desire to protect abnormal profits and market share in less competitive industries.

Under the capital market perspective, studies report that voluntary disclosure decisions are related to capital transactions¹⁶, corporate control mechanisms¹⁷, stock-based compensation, shareholder litigation and proprietary costs. There is also evidence that investors perceive voluntary disclosure as credible information (Hughes 1986; Clarkson et al. 1992).

3. Hypothesis Development

Agency theory suggests that costs exist when there is separation of the ownership and control of a firm and that the agency costs are borne by the managers (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). Agency costs increase with the proportion of outside capital, which tends to be higher for larger firms (Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Leftwich, Watts and Zimmerman, 1981). Accordingly, managers in larger firms may be motivated to voluntarily disclose more information to reduce agency costs. In order to test the relationship between level of disclosure and company size, the following alternative hypothesis is formulated:

In an attempt to analyse the impact of litigation cost on managers' discretionary disclosure decisions, Hughes and Sankar (1998) found that managers with high reputation costs tend to bias the company's expected future cash flows negatively to avoid the cost of litigation-related reputation loss. Companies that disclose more prospective financial information may be more closely scrutinised by future shareholders. To reduce possible reputation costs from unattained forecasts, companies which disclose more prospective financial information may be associated with less forecast errors and may tend to under-estimate profits. To test the relationship between levels of disclosure and accuracy of forecasts, the following alternative hypothesis is developed:

In order to examine the relationship between prospective financial information disclosed in

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¹⁶ See Kothari (2001) for a detailed review of capital market research in accounting.

¹⁷ See a detailed review by Bushman and Smith (2001) on financial accounting information and corporate governance.



prospectuses and forecast accuracy, the disclosure levels of prospective financial information are categorized into three groups: total disclosure items recommended by FRS-29 (TSR), total disclosure items not recommended by FRS-29 (TSV) and overall disclosure items recommended and not recommended by FRS-29 (TSRV). TSR is the information that is required by FRS-29, while TSV is information that is disclosed voluntarily. The three groups of disclosure levels are investigated for their significant relationships with forecast accuracy. Accordingly, to test the relationship between levels of information disclosure and accuracy of forecasts, the following alternative hypothesis is developed:

- H_a1: More voluntary prospective financial information Disclosed in IPO prospectuses tends to be associated with more accurate forcasts.
- H_a2: More mandatory prospective financial information Disclosed in IPO prospectuses tends to be associated with more accurate forcasts.
- H_a3: More prospective financial information Disclosed in IPO prospectuses tends to be associated with more accurate forcasts.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Measurement of the Dependent Variable -Disclosure Level of Prospective Financial Financial

There are two kinds of indices: weighted or unweighted. More recent studies tend to use an unweighted score as the measure for level of disclosure. Weighted indices are subject to certain limitations. For example, it is argued that a great deal of subjectivity exists in the assignment of weights and that users in different countries are likely to assign different weights to similar items (Cooke, 1989, 1991; Hossain et al., 1995; Meek et al., 1995). Furthermore, the importance attached to rankings by a particular group of users may not necessarily reflect the information needs of other users of financial reports (Chow and Wong-Boren, 1987). This approach has become the norm in annual reports' studies (Courtis, 1996). Accordingly, the unweighted disclosure index is used in the study.

The total points earned by a given company are computed by the following formula: TSCORE;

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{4}SCORE_{ij}$$
(1)

Where TSCORE is the total score for items disclosed by company j across all prospective financial statements.

4.2 Measurement of the Independent Variables and Control Variables

The forecast accuracy is measured as the absolute relative error. The formula is shown as follow:
(1) Forecast Accuracy: Absolute relative error $ARE = \frac{\left|Actual\ Profit - Forecast\ Profit\right|}{\left|Forecast\ Profit\right|}$(2)

Previous studies have found that the variables of leverage, company size, rate of return, number of IPOs, forecast bias, previous trading history, listing status and auditor are related information



disclosure level. Therefore, these variables are included as control variables to control for their impact on level of disclosure of prospective financial information. The measurements of control variables are operationalized as shown as follows:

- 1. Company size is measured as the log of total assets.
- 2. Leverage is defined as the ratio of total debt, both current and long-term, to total assets, using figures extracted from the IPO prospectuses.
- 3. Rate of Return is measured as net profit after tax and interst divided by total shareholders' equity.
- 4. The number of IPOs is defined as the number of new listings for each year during the study period. Information is obtained through the Sharemarket Review and Fact Book issued by the New Zealand Stock Exchange (NZSE, 1989-1995, 1995-2001).
- 5. Forecast bias is defined as signed relative error (SRE) and is operationalized as the follow formula:

$$SRE = \frac{Actual\ Profit - Forecast\ Profit}{|Forecast\ Profit|}$$

- 6. Previous trading history is a dummy variable and is defined as "1" if company age ≥ 1 year, "0" otherwise.
- 7. Listing status is a dummy variable and is defined as "1" if companies listed on the stock exchange, "0" otherwise.
- 8. Auditor is dummy variable and is defined as "1" if auditor is a big 6 auditor, "0" otherwise.

Accordingly, the final equation is as follow:

Level of Disclosure =
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ SIZE} + \beta_2 \text{ LEV} + \beta_3 \text{ RETURN} + \beta_4 \text{ IPO} + \beta_5 \text{ ACCURACY} + \beta_6 \text{ BIAS} + \beta_7 \text{ HISTORY} + \beta_8 \text{ LISTING} + \beta_9 \text{ AUDITOR} + \varepsilon$$
(4)

where:

Level of Disclosure represents: Model 1: TSR, Model 2: TSV and Model 3: TSRV.

SIZE represents the transformed measure of company size.

LEV represents leverage.

RETURN represents the transformed measure of rate of return.

IPO represents the transformed measure of number of initial public offerings.

ACCURACY represents the transformed measure of forecast accuracy.

BIAS represents the transformed measure of forecast bias.

HISTORY representing previous trading history defined as the days between incorporation and prospectus date with $1 \ge 1$ year and 0 otherwise.

LISTING represents listing status with 1 for firms that are still listing on the stock exchange and 0 for firms that are delisted.

AUDITOR represents the use of a big6 auditor, with 1 for firms using a big6 auditor and 0 otherwise.

 β_0 is the regression intercept.

 $\beta_1 \dots \beta_9$ are regression coefficients.

 ε is the unexplained variable error term.



4.3 Data Collection

The sample population of the study consists of New Zealand companies making initial public offerings between 1 January 1987 and 31 December 2001. Companies newly listed on the New Zealand Stock Exchange (NZSE) during this 15-year period are identified from various sources. As a result, a total number of 159 IPOs are identified. A number of companies are excluded from the study, resulting in a final sample of 63 companies.

5. Results

The ordinary least squares (OLS) regression is used to measure the simultaneous effect of the independent variables on the disclosure levels of prospective financial information in prospectuses. The multivariate regression analysis allows an assessment of the relative importance of each explanatory variable. The data in the multivariate analysis contain sixty-three companies after removing seven companies 18, which did not have valid data on the seven variables and two potentially influential outliers 19.

A transformation²⁰ proposed by Cooke (1998) that transforms the actual observations to normal distributions was applied to the independent variables with non-normal distributions. The approach is to create new rankings based on the actual values, which are assigned a normal score for each case using the van der Waerden approach²¹. The main advantage of replacing ranks by normal scores is that the results from the statistical tests have the same statistical properties "because significance levels can be determined, the F and t-tests are meaningful, the power of the F and t-tests may be used and the regression coefficients derived using normal scores are meaningful" (Camfferman and Cooke, 2002, p. 14).

Before running regressions, correlation coefficients for each pair of independent variables are calculated and are all under 0.4. The results indicate that there are no evidence of multicollinearity problems.

(1) Model 1: TSR as the Dependent Variable

The results of the multiple regression model with the TSR as the dependent variable, including R, R²,

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¹⁸ The seven companies are Crowe Corp. (1987), Environ Corp. Ltd. (1987), Finance and Resources Ltd. (1987), St. Lukes Group Ltd. (1993), Infratil Ltd. (1994), Sky City Ltd. (1996), Infratil International Ltd. (1997).

¹⁹ Telecom Corp. Ltd (1991) and Northland Port Corp. (NZ) Ltd. (1992).

²⁰A log transformation was first applied to attempt to resolve the problem of non-normal distribution. However, only the transformed formats for sales turnover and total assets appeared to have normal distributions. Another problem arising from the log transformation is that some variables, such as rate of return and profit margin, contain negative values and thereby suffer data loss after transformation. Adding a constant value to the raw data when performing logarithmic transformations, as suggested by Wall (1986), is also tried with no better results than using the normal score transformation.

The normal scores can be derived using SPSS for Windows. There are also other approaches for deriving normal scores, including Blom, Rankit and Turkey (SPSS, 2001).



adjusted R2, t, F and the Durbin-Watson d test22 are presented in Table 2. Accordingly, the equation for model 1 with the TSR as the dependent variable is as follows:

TSR= 11.177 - 1.450 LEVERAGE - 0.980 SIZE + 0.297 RETURN - 1.289 IPO- 0.995 ACCURACY + 0.348 BIAS -0.284 HISTORY.+ 1.535 LISTING + 0.602

AUDITOR.....(5)

Table 2. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 1 (N=63)							
Independent	Predicted	Unstandardized	Standard	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Variables	Sign	Coefficients	Error				
Constant		11.177	1.112	10.049	.000**		
Accuracy	_	-0.995	0.432	-2.301	.025*	.615	1.627
Leverage	+	-1.450	1.218	-1.190	.239	.762	1.313
Size	+	-0.980	0.460	-2.131	.038*	.537	1.862
Rate of Return	+	+0.297	0.353	0.842	.404	.843	1.186
Number of IPOs	+	-1.289	0.428	-3.011	.004**	.652	1.533
Bias	+	0.348	0.354	0.982	.330	.832	1.202
History	n/a	-0.284	0.824	-0.344	.732	.692	1.444
Listing	n/a	1.535	0.713	2.152	.036*	.789	1.268
Auditor	n/a	0.602	0.766	0.786	.435	.901	1.109

Model summary:

 $R = 0.617^{23}$ $R^2 = 0.380^{24}$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.301^{25}$ Standard Error = 2.492

Durbin-Watson d test = 1.475

Analysis of Variance:

 F^{26} Sum of Squares df Mean Square Significance Model

Regression 29.942 4.820 209.597

0.000**

Residual 341.673 55 6.212

Total 551.270 62

* Significant at $p \le 0.05$

**Significant at $p \le 0.001$

The regression equation indicates a strong relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables (R = 0.647). The R^2 is 0.418, indicating that the equation explains about 42 percent of the variance in level of disclosure as measured by the TSR. After considering the sample size and the number of independent variables in the equation, the adjusted R² is 0.320. The entire model is significant at a $p \le 0.001$ level (p =0.000) with an F ratio of 4.235.

The Durbin-Watson d statistic is to detect the presence of autocorrelation among the residuals. The value of d always falls in the interval from 0 to 4, with the closer d gets to 0 or 4, the stronger the autocorrelation (positive or negative, respectively). For a detailed discussion of the Durbin-Watson d, a significance level of 0.01 are 1.218 (d_L) and 1.680 (d_U) respectively. If $d_u < d < 4 - d_U$, there is no

refer to Gujarati (1995). The critical d values for seven explanatory variables with 63 observations at evidence of autocorrelation, either positive or negative (Gujarati, 1995). 23 R, the multiple correlation coefficient, is the linear correlation between the observed and model-predicted values of the dependent variable. Its large value indicates a strong relationship.

²⁴ R², the coefficient of determination, is the squared value of the multiple correlation coefficient. It shows the model's explanatory power. The larger the value of R^2 , the better the model fits the data. The adjusted R^2 measure is more conservative than R^2 . It is the modified measure of the R^2 that takes

into account both the sample size and the number of predictor variables in the model

²⁶ The F-test examines the overall significance of the model, based on the hypothesis that all the slope coefficients in the model are simultaneously equal to zero.



Four variables are statistically significant. Company size, as measured by sales turnover, is significant at the $p \le 0.05$ level (p = 0.038), with a negative coefficient (r = -0.980). The negative sign is the opposite of the predicted direction. This result indicates that companies with higher sales turnover tend to disclose less prospective financial information as recommended by FRS-29.

The Number of IPOs is significant at the $p \le 0.01$ level (p = 0.004), with a negative coefficient (r = -1.289). This implies that as the number of IPOs increases, the level of disclosure of prospective financial information decreases, which is opposite to the predicted direction. This implies that managers are reluctant to provide more prospective financial information in a year with many IPOs. This could be due to the fear that disclosing sensitive information may harm a firm's competitive position, as prospective financial information is value-relevant and price sensitive. The disincentive for more disclosure may arise from the desire to protect abnormal profits and to avoid political attack by rival companies.

The variable of ACCURACY, as measured by the absolute forecast error, is significant at the $p \le 0.05$ level (p = 0.025), with a negative coefficient (r = -0.995)^{27.} The negative relationship with the level of disclosure suggests that companies with less disclosure of the prospective financial information recommended by FRS-29 have higher forecast errors. This finding is consistent with the predicted direction.

Listing status is significant at $p \le 0.05$ level (p = 0.036), with a positive coefficient (r = 1.535). This suggests that companies that are still listed on the Stock Exchange disclose more items of prospective financial information as recommended by FRS-29.

The remaining independent variables – leverage, rate of return, forecast bias, previous trading history and auditor – do not have a significant relationship with the dependent variable. However, it is noticeable that the coefficients for leverage is negative, indicating that companies with higher leverage tend to disclose less recommended prospective financial information, although this relationship is not significant.

(2) Model 2: TSV as the Dependent Variable

The results of the multiple regression model with the TSV as the dependent variable, including R, R^2 , adjusted R^2 , t, F and the Durbin-Watson d test are presented in Table 3.

Consequently, the equation for model 2 with the TSV as the dependent variable is as follows:

TSV = 7.274 + 0.574 LEVERAGE + 0.667 SIZE – 0.619 RETURN – 1.353 IPO - 0.169 ACCURACY + 0.206 BIAS-0.931 HISTORY.+ 0.043 LISTING + 0.478

AUDITOR(10)

This significant relationship, however, disappered, after introducing a dummy variable (pre-1993=0;

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post-1993 = 1), indicating that after 1993 companies disclose significantly more prospective financial information.



The coefficient of determination (R²) is 0.134, indicating that the amount of explained variation in disclosure of prospective financial information not recommended by FRS-29 is 13.4%. However, the F value is not significant (p = 0.521).

None of the slope coefficients is individually statistically significant. Moreover, two variables have different signs compared to model 1, with TSR as the measure of disclosure level. From the results of model 2, leverage and company size both have positive coefficients. This contradicts the results obtained in model 1, but the signs for leverage and company size are now consistent with the hypothesised directions. It is also apparent that the independent variables that are significant in model 1 (company size, number of IPOs, forecast accuracy and listing status) are not statistically significant in model 2. This implies that different factors are relevant in explaining the different types of disclosure voluntary as opposed to compulsory.

The number of IPOs is the only variable that has a marginally significant relationship with the TSV at a $p \le 0.1$ level (p = 0.081). The coefficient is negative, which is consistent with the results in model 1, implying that the higher the number of IPOs in the year of flotation, the less the disclosure of voluntary prospective financial information.

Table 3. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 2 (N=63)								
Independent	Predicted	Unstandardized	Standard	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF	
Variables	Sign	Coefficients	Error					
Constant		7.274	1.973	3.687	.001**			
Accuracy	_	-0.169	0.767	-0.220	.827	.615	1627	
Leverage	+	0.574	2.161	0.265	.792	.762	1.313	
Size	+	0.667	0.816	0.818	.417	.537	1.862	
Rate of Return	+	-0.619	0.627	-0.987	.328	.843	1.186	
Number of IPOs	+	-1.353	0.759	-1.782	.081*	.652	1.533	
Bias	+	0.206	0.628	0.328	.744	.832	1.202	
History	n/a	-0.931	1.462	-0.637	.527	.692	1.444	
Listing	n/a	0.043	1.265	0.034	.973	.789	1.268	
Auditor	n/a	0.478	1.359	0.352	.726	.901	1.109	

Model summary:

 $R^2 = 0.134$ Adjusted $R^2 = -0.013$ R = 0.366Standard Error = 4.363

Durbin-Watson d test = 1.860

Analysis of Variance:

Mean Square Model Sum of Squares df F Significance 9 0.913 0.521 Regression 156.474 17.386 19.037

Residual 1008.954 53

1165.429 Total 62

*Significant at $p \le 0.1$ **Significant at $p \le 0.01$

(3) Model 3: TSRV as the Dependent Variable

The results of the multiple regression model with the TSRV as the dependent variable, including R, R², adjusted R², t, F and the Durbin-Watson d test are presented in Table 4.

The equation for model 3 with the TSRV as the dependent variable is as follows:



TSRV = 18.557 – 1.134 LEVERAGE – 0.311 SIZE - 0.245 RETURN – 2.570 IPO– 1.114 ACCURACY + 0.560 BIAS - 1.151 HISTORY.+ 1.525 LISTING + 1.048 AUDITOR(11)

The correlation coefficient (R) is 0.502, indicating that there is a moderate relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The R^2 is 0.252, signifying that the amount of explained variation in disclosure of prospective financial information recommended and not recommended by FRS-29 is 25.2%. The adjusted R^2 is decreased to 0.126, implying that the independent variables together explain only 12.6% of the variation in disclosure of prospective financial information that is recommended and not recommended by FRS-29. The value of the Durbin – Watson d test is 1.684, which lies between dU(1.680) and 4-dU (2.320) and therefore provides no evidence of autocorrelation, either positive or negative (Gujarati, 1995). The F value is 1.989 and is significant at a $p \le 0.1$ level (p = 0.059).

Table 4. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 3 (N=63)								
Independent	Predicted	Unstandardized	Standard	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF	
Variables	Sign	Coefficients	Error					
Constant		18.557	2.386	7.777	.000**			
Accuracy	_	-1.114	0.928	-1.201	.235	.615	1.627	
Leverage	+	-1.134	2.613	-0.434	.666	.762	1.313	
Size	+	-0.311	0.987	-0.315	.754	.537	1.862	
Rate of Return	+	-0.245	0.758	0.324	.747	.843	1.186	
Number of IPOs	+	-2570	0.918	-2.798	.007**	.652	1.533	
Bias	+	0.560	0.760	0.737	.464	.832	1.202	
History	n/a	-1.151	1.769	-0.651	.518	.692	1.444	
Listing	n/a	1.525	1.530	0.996	.324	.789	1.268	
Auditor	n/a	1.048	1.644	0.638	.527	.901	1.109	

Model summary:

R = 0.502 $R^2 = 0.252$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.126$ Standard Error = 5.277

Durbin-Watson d test = 1.684

Analysis of Variance:

ModelSum of SquaresdfMean SquareFSignificanceRegression498.486755.3871.9890.059*

Residual 1475.832 55 27.846

Total 1974.317 62

*Significant at $p \le 0.1$ **Significant at $p \le 0.01$

Consistent with the results of model 1 and model 2, the number of IPOs is significant, at a $p \le 0.01$ level (p = 0.007), with a negative coefficient. The significant, negative relationship indicates that the more IPOs there are in the year of listing, the less prospective financial information, either recommended or not recommended by FRS-29, companies are willing to disclose.

Company size and forecast accuracy, which were previously found to be significant in model 1, are not significant in model 3. The negative signs are consistent with the results in model 1, although the signs are opposite to the predicted directions for model 3.



The remaining variables – leverage, rate of return, forecast bias and the control variables – do not appear to be significant in explaining disclosure levels of prospective financial information.

Diagnosis of the Regression Models

The residuals are examined by plotting them against the predicted values to see if the models are under-fitted by omitting a relevant variable. The results did not indicate any signs of misspecification errors. Further, the F-test, t test and the partial correlation coefficients are examined and the regression models are re-run by dropping one non-significant independent variable each time to compare the value of the F-test for each model. The results do not have any indication of the presence of unnecessary variables.

The basic assumptions underlying regression models are also examined. The results indicate no signs of violation of the assumptions. The condition index (CI), the tolerance value and the variance inflation factor (VIF) are used to diagnose multicollinearity. There is no evidence to support the existence of multicollinearity in any of the models.

6. Discussion And Conclusion

The results of the study have established a significant relationship between the disclosure level of prospective financial information and forecast accuracy. The significant, negative relationship indicates that companies that disclose more recommended prospective financial information tend to have less forecast errors. That is, their profit forecasts are more accurate than those that disclose fewer items of prospective financial information. The findings are consistent with signalling theory, in that management have superior information about the company's future performance and are willing to send such signals of credibility²⁸. By disclosing prospective financial information, managers convey signals of a firm's future value. Management are in a better position to obtain information about a company, and, may, therefore, be willing to disclose more prospective financial information if they are confident about the company's future performance. Thus, companies that disclose more prospective financial information may be associated with less forecast errors.

Furthermore, it is noticeable that when analysing the relationship between level of disclosure and the independent variables, forecast accuracy was found to have a significant, negative relationship with level of disclosure in model 1, with TSR as the dependent variable. This negative relationship, however, becomes positive in model 2, with the TSV as the dependent variable, although it is not significant. This could imply that with items recommended to be disclosed by FRS-29, companies may exercise more caution in preparing this information, which will therefore have less forecast errors, i.e. it will be

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In considering the impact of FRS-29 on forecast accuracy, the measure of forecast accuracy was also compared between 1992 and 1993. The finding does not, however, indicate any significant difference between 1992 and 1993 in terms of forecast accuracy.



more accurate. However, with items voluntarily disclosed by companies, companies may be too optimistic and therefore not as cautious in preparing the information, which may result in more forecast errors.

The abnormal and extraordinary items may play an important role in forecast accuracy and forecast bias and may have an impact on the relationship between levels of disclosure and forecast accuracy and bias. In considering the impact of abnormal and extraordinary items on forecast accuracy and bias, correlation tests and regressions were re-run by replacing the measures of forecast accuracy and bias with the values of net profit after tax before abnormal and extraordinary items. The significant relationship between forecast accuracy and levels of disclosure measured by the TSR no longer existed, both in the univariate and multivariate regression analyses. The results of forecast bias using the value of net profit after tax before abnormal and extraordinary items do not change the conclusions.

Relationship between Level of Disclosure and Independent Variables

Company size, numbers of IPOs in a year, forecast accuracy and listing status are found to be significantly associated with level of disclosure of prospective financial information recommended by FRS-29. As the variable of forecast accuracy is discussed in section 6.4.2, this section focuses on the discussion of the other significant variables and the entire models.

The results of regression model 1 suggest that larger companies tend to disclose less prospective financial information recommended by FRS-29 than smaller companies. The findings are inconsistent with the evidence of previous studies that larger companies tend to disclosure more information than smaller companies (Hossain et al., 1995; Meek et al., 1995; Raffournier, 1995). However, in model 2, which examined the level of disclosure measured by the total scores that are not recommended by FRS-29, the negative relationship turned to a positive one, which is consistent with previous findings that larger companies tend to disclose more information (Hossain et al., 1995; Meek et al., 1995; Raffournier, 1995). The different results may be due to the attributes of the disclosed prospective financial information. In model 1, the items disclosed (for example, total operating revenue and operating surplus) may be more sensitive to prices and therefore likely to provide a ready basis for lawsuits against larger companies. As a result, larger companies may tend to disclose less recommended prospective financial information. However, in model 2, the items disclosed are arbitrary and voluntary (for example, depreciation and expenditure) and are less price sensitive with less risk of incurring a lawsuit. Therefore, larger companies may be willing to disclose more prospective financial information that is not recommended by FRS-29, although the relationship is not significant as tested in model 2.

Although company size was found to be a significant variable that explains the disclosure level of prospective financial information recommended by FRS-29, the significant relationship may also be explained by other variables. This can be established from the results of model 1. The tolerance value for company size is 0.537, indicating that about 46% of the variance can be explained by the other



independent variables.

Number of IPOs is found to be the most significant variable in the multivariate regression analysis that is associated with the level of disclosure of prospective financial information in all three of the models tested. The negative coefficients in the three regression models imply that the disclosure level of prospective financial information is lower in years when more IPOs are made to the market. This is contradictory to the hypothesised direction, which expects more disclosure of prospective financial information in a year with more IPOs. It is possible that as the number of IPOs increases, the exposure to political attacks by competitors rises. Companies may therefore be reluctant to disclose more prospective financial information than is necessary.

A further noteworthy finding is how the directions of some of the variables differ in explaining disclosure levels for model 1 mandatory disclosure according to FRS-29, and for model 2 voluntary disclosure. In model 1, leverage, company size and profit margin all have negative coefficients, which contradicts the expected directions, whereas in model 2 the three variables have positive coefficients, which is consistent with the hypothesised directions.

It is also apparent that the same independent variables are not consistently significant in explaining the level of disclosure across the three models. This implies that different factors are important in explaining different types of disclosure. The factors that help to explain the level of disclosure that is voluntary may not be the same factors that explain mandatory disclosure.

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流行服飾產業動態分析與策略模式分析

A Dynamic Study on Strategy Competition Models of Fashion Industry in Taiwan

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摘要

根據各項指標,2010年可說是台灣的大榮景。然而,再進一步研究零售業次產業的相關數字,可以發現並非每個產業都繁榮發展,以流行女裝產業而言,2010年零售店數規模反而略為縮減。吾人嘗試從近幾年的產業競爭態勢,來解釋產業內策略群組規模消長的現象。分析構面包括流行女裝產業的供應鏈變化,以及產品生命週期演進,還有上述兩個因素所造成的通路之革命。然後歸納三種創新的策略模式,比較與傳統服裝企業經營模式的差異,以解釋為何這三種模式可掌握當前機會。最後歸納相關結論與建議。

摘要:流行服裝產業,策略群組,供應鏈,產品生命週期

ABSTRACT

According to relative economic indexes,2010 of Taiwan is a boom age. However,in 2010 the numbers of stores of fashion-industry of retailing are also reduced. The editor try to explain the phenomenon that some strategic groups are growing and some are narrowing. By investigating the supply chain of fashion-industry, the PLC of fashion clothing, and the evolution of channel, the editor conclude three strategic models which catch the opportunity. At last, some suggestions are presented.

Keywords: Fashion-Industry, Strategic Group, Supply Chain of Fashion-Industry



一、前言

台灣從 2008 年開始受到金融風暴的影響,一直延續到 2009 年底,在八八水災、H1N1 等衝擊下,國內經濟可謂盪到谷底。然而在 2010 年則大幅改觀,經濟成長率依行政院主計處統計,大幅成長 10.82%,是 1987 年以來最高。國民所得 GNP 由 2008 的 17,833 美元提高到 2010 年的 19,188 美元,經濟大幅改善,促使消費信心大增,國內零售業的連鎖總部以及總店數都有明顯成長,2010 年連鎖總部共有 1,724 家,較 2009 年 1,563 家增加 161 家,成長 10.3%;2010 年總店數 89,110 家,較 2009 年 80,944 家增加 8,166 家,成長 10.1%。再參考國稅局新聞稿,2010 年儘管所得稅率由 25%降低 17%,1 至 6 月稅收仍較 2009 年大幅增加 11%,其中由營業稅大幅提高 99 億貢獻最多,實徵淨額 1344 億元為歷年同期新高。由上述資料顯示,台灣經濟是有感復甦,不僅經濟成長率高、國民所得提高、零售業業績大幅成長、連鎖業者大量投資,一片欣欣向榮。然而,如果再詳細分析上述資料可以發現,並非各行各業均欣欣向榮,以流行服飾業來看,2009 年總店數是 4,834 家,2010 年的連鎖店數規模反而小幅減縮為 4,738 家,顯示在景氣繁榮下反而有許多服飾業者業績下滑、投資緊縮。

2009 年開始,政府採取寬鬆貨幣政策、簽署 ECFA,兩岸資金流通,造成房價高漲、M型社會明顯化、消費兩極化,過去強調理性消費的中價位商品也大受影響。最明顯的就是百貨公司的國產服裝品牌,過去主打好品質、中價位的百貨服飾,近兩年都被國外高價位品牌服飾排擠出去。以2010、2011 年台灣連鎖店年鑑的普查資料顯示,2009、2010 全省門市數目減少的服飾品牌,包括:Chaber 巧帛、Five Pence 五銅、Rings、Iris,都是以此定位的中價位品牌。

除了策略定位的問題之外,商品策略也有很大影響。近年來媒體大力宣傳地球暖化,今年卻是 20 年來最寒冷的冬天!許多業者過去沒有研究反聖嬰現象,僅以主流媒體炒作的地球暖化作為策略規劃依據,結果造成氣候預測的偏差,整季商品缺乏寒冬商品,只能放手讓顧客去別家商店。這對於強調計畫性生產的廠商,尤其是整合上游生產的服裝廠商影響最大,因為這類廠商雖然在生產成本有優勢,但是計畫性生產讓她們的產品在半年前即開始購料生產,當發現氣候預測錯誤時,所有商品均早已生產完成在店內銷售,來不及改變了。

通路策略也有很大影響,過去5年的商店爭奪戰都鎖定在捷運站出口附近,但今年7月開始 大陸來台自由行,特定街頭早已林立新的伴手禮商店、按摩館、商務飯店,新的商圈人潮湧現, 有許多服飾廠商早已卡位搶先商機,商店租金高漲比捷運站口更高,如果沒有調整展店擇點策略 的廠商,如今已一位難求,因為商圈異動、移動,未來五年可能又再出現敵我消長的現象。

服裝消費與社會變遷、政策影響、產品生命週期、氣候變遷等緊緊相扣,一個事件同時帶來機會與威脅!我們看到順勢經營的業者成功切入市場,業績突破!同時也有許多資深業者因為逆勢經營而業績衰退、退出市場。業者不僅應掌握市場變化,更應理解背後的因素,預測影響、調整經營模式以掌握商機避開威脅。吾人將近幾年流行服裝產業的市場競爭變化、消費走向變化整理如下,再進而歸納這幾年因應變化、突破重圍、快速成長的策略模式。

二、市場競爭變化:走向街頭割喉戰

根據相關研究,日本有超過七成的服飾銷售集中在馬路上的門市,精華路段一店難求、租金高漲、競爭激烈。如今,台北街頭也展開激烈的門市爭奪競爭態勢,觀察國內市場變化,有幾點相關現象。首先,這十年服裝產業上游外移,國內服裝公司商品開發資源空洞化,相反,韓國產業供應鏈堅強、貨幣貶值、韓流文化佔據台灣主流市場,導致路邊販賣的衣服在設計、品質、價格都嚴重打擊百貨國產品牌的業績,百貨公司開始將國產品牌替換成國外品牌,這樣的改變讓國產服裝公司轉而在街頭開設門市。

另一方面,過去百貨公司長期以特賣會刺激業績,培養了許多特賣廠商,這兩年特賣疲乏了, 百貨業者也轉型精緻化,撤掉常年特賣櫃。同樣,因為百貨公司商品廠商組合策略的調整,轉而 讓許多百貨特賣服裝公司到街頭開設連鎖門市,以常年暢貨中心的形象在街頭進行游擊戰。

2009 年全省服飾商店增加 640 家、增加 16 個連鎖品牌。2010 年雖然門市總數沒有增加,但



是上述百貨公司裡的國產服裝公司、特賣服裝公司仍然在街頭上持續展店著,例如:獨身貴族在2010年展店 18 間門市、瓊安在2010年展店 14 間門市,樂詩精品以歐洲精品暢貨形象,短期內在街頭拓展將近 20 個門市。而且各路段的門市租金也不斷攀高,顯示有更多服裝店不敵這群跨足門市經營的驍勇善戰業者,退出商圈店頭經營,街頭上的競爭更趨白熱化!

造成服裝產業走向街頭割喉戰的另一個因素,是由於長期的不景氣,消費者不敢到百貨公司消費,廠商改採取攔截行銷,滲透消費者日常上下班途程、假日途程,把商店裝潢與櫥窗演繹作為行銷重點,吸引目光、攔截顧客衝動消費,不論是特賣或流行提案都在櫥窗上精心創意,不斷讓區域內的顧客非理性、非預期的衝動消費,也因為將顧客口袋預算掏空了,所以百貨公司守株待兔的廠商也就業績慘淡!也進而紛紛改採門市連鎖的通路策略,這也是造成廠商都爭奪捷運站口附近商店的主要原因。不過這樣的激烈競爭也讓台灣的街道轉變成繽紛的時尚街頭、購物樂園。

三、消費走向變化:平價快速流行當道

當民國 60 年台灣經濟開始起飛,台灣人滿足了安全與生理需求後,轉而追求社會需求以及自尊需求,所以穿衣服是一種場合的需要、身分的象徵。民國 80~90 年可以說是百貨公司服裝的黃金十年,百貨公司商品代表的就是高級、稱頭,設計師服裝代表的品味、知名度、獨一無二。然而,民國 90 年之後,台灣邁入已開發國家,人們轉而追求自我實現的需求,此時服裝的功能,是人們藉由穿著來實現自己嚮往的形象,時尚變成公民運動,流行文化驅動服裝消費。最明顯可以看到的現象是,當日劇、韓劇的偶像成為大家嚮往的角色時,日流、韓流品牌與商品就開始佔據百貨與街頭。在這個階段,消費者的流行素養高、資訊豐富,有自我主張,她們想要的是平價、快速流行的商店讓她們能跟緊流行對象,例行的補貨、更新,不需要太多專業服務。這樣的消費走向對於市場造成了很大的革命,轉換過程就如同彩妝保養品消費逐步從百貨移轉到開架式商店一樣,09 年全省增加 1,183 家藥妝店,同樣的,採取快速平價流行的連鎖商店也大量的在街頭展店,服裝產業產生了巨大的變化。

四、三種創新的經營模式

綜合上述消費走向的變遷,近幾年在市場上出現了三種獲得快速成長的經營模式:

1. 平價、快速流行模式:強調流行企劃與快速產銷的經營模式

因為更有產品知識力以及消費主見的消費者,不再受困設計師品牌或百貨公司品牌的迷失,她們自己可以打理自己的時尚穿著,以實現自己嚮往的角色扮演,所以需要的是更便利、更平價、更能快速更新流行的廠商,因此,國內採取平價、快速流行模式的連鎖業者,在擺脫百貨高抽成與打折規則後,這幾年也在街頭大規模展店,成為占據街頭地盤的新勢力。

平價是為了快速賣完衣服,進而快速更新時尚款式,與流行標的同步,顧客能每週到店裡補貨更新(update)。流行企劃指的是流行標的設定與流行資訊整合,例如台灣 30~50 歲女性的流行文化主要受歐美影響、15~40 歲女性受日本、韓國影響,流行企劃要設定當季最有影響力的流行設計、並整合目標市場需求。快速產銷的重點在於 [延後生產]、[快速追趕]、[打帶跑]的快速流行模式。如同賽馬第四圈看定勝負情勢後才下注,快速反應銷售狀況補給商品、動態因應市場需求,將存貨囤積與風險降至最低。快速流行的產銷運作方式如圖 1 所示。

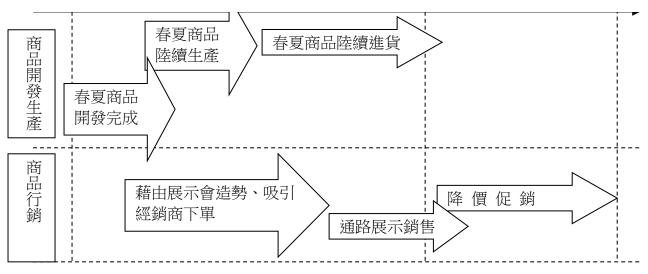
近幾年在國內大量展店的連鎖品牌: iRoo(2011年有72間門市)、Moma(2011年有74間門市,在2010年快速展店35間門市)均是採用這個策略模式。



圖 1. 傳統產銷模式與快速流行運作方式的比較

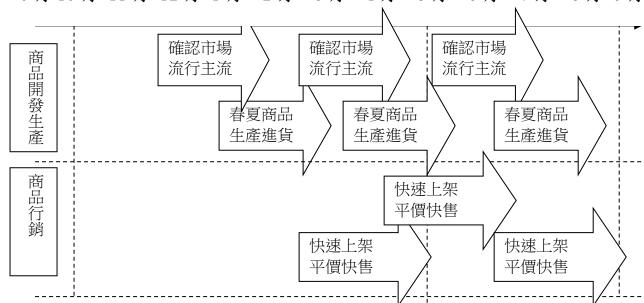
(傳統產銷模式模式)

9月10月11月12月1月2月3月4月5月6月7月8月9月



(快速流行產銷模式)

9月10月11月12月1月2月3月4月5月6月7月8月9月



傳統模式,商品在上市(2月)前半年就已完成開發,並且著手下單生產工作。當2月下旬正式上市前,已經有大約七成商品早已完成生產。快速流行模式,則是在上市前2個月才著手開發與生產,並且上市前只生產約2~3成的商品,其餘都在後續一邊銷售、一邊開發、生產或採購。也就是[延後生產]、[快速追趕]、[打帶跑]。

2. 多品牌企劃導向模式:強調風格企劃與協力廠商的經營模式 由於上述消費走向,服裝消費的目的已演化為嚮往生活的追求,消費者認為百貨專櫃銷售的 款式,多是大眾化商品,街頭門市能夠展現不同的 Life-Style,更有特色!於是服飾連鎖企業發展出以企劃導向的多品牌策略,與文化創意產業合作,為每一個品牌創造不同想像世界 讓消費者去體驗,藉此滲透各個區隔市場,占據各類商圈街頭在馬路上攔截消費。此模式著 眼在創造服裝價值,讓店裡每一件衣服都帶有生活風格的意義。



風格企劃指的是流行文化的價值塑造,整體視覺企劃、商品組合、設計企劃、環境與服務氛圍企劃。藉由和文化創意產業的專業廠商合作,一個服裝公司可以創造多種品牌代表多種生活風格。

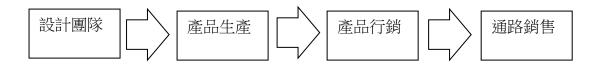
國內知名服飾集團 Bigi 正是採用這個策略模式,其下品牌包括:少女 裝(15~22 歲): BIGI、T-PARTS、PS、ine、PON DOU DOU、NOUIE、NUEE、0918、Nsns girl。少淑 女(22~35 歲): Rose Bullet、e-wear、Le SOUK、NR ,上班族:Bosch、INED、CRAIG、Xing、ICB、23 區、自由區、22 OCTOBER ,複合品牌:FLANDRE WORLD、TOKYO PLAZA。其中以日式風格為主力,涵蓋公主風、鄉村風、都會風、嘻哈風、109 辣妹風、淑女風、休閒風...,是國內企畫力最強的服飾集團。另外,國內以地中海浪漫風情為企畫的少女品牌 Alasha 也在近幾年內快速展店至 63 間門市,也是這個策略模式的成功案例。

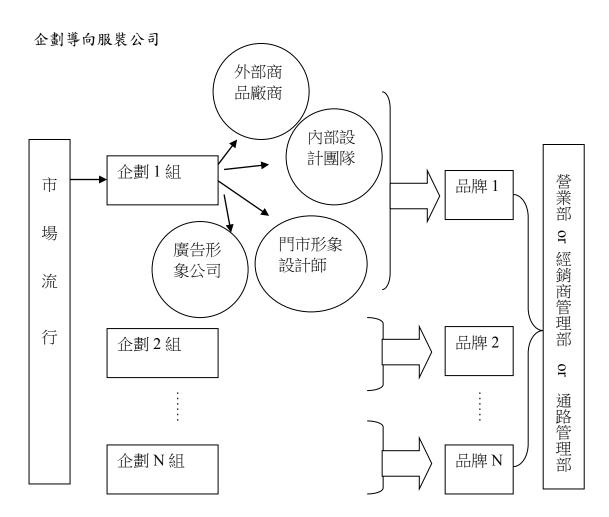
多品牌企劃導向模式與傳統服裝公司的差異如圖二所示:



圖 2.傳統產品導向服裝公司與企劃導向服裝公司的策略差異

傳統產品導向服裝公司





傳統的服裝公司都是產品導向,由設計師團隊企劃下一季的商品,開發與生產後,交由行銷 部門去包裝、通路營銷。而企劃導向的服裝公司,則是以市場流行為基礎,企劃多種品牌,與外 部廠商合作組合符合品牌企劃的商品、門市形態、廣告形態,再將多個完整的品牌交由公司的營 業部門,依照通路性質或區域特質分配適合品牌。當市場流行改變,可再企劃新品牌去掌握商機 或結束退流行的品牌。

3. 主將主導在地化經營模式:強調主將與現代化供應鏈的經營模式

商店主將的人格特質賦予商店靈魂,讓連鎖品牌的個別商店之間有了個性差別。人能融入社區,如果人與商店結合一體,商店就能融入社區,主將成為社區目標客群的時尚顧問、商店成為社區的專屬衣櫥。也就是在連鎖品牌的架構下,同中求異。以[同]取得品牌信任度、規模經濟。再以[異]滲透社區,深度耕耘。

此策略模式的前提,是必須由主將主導公司對商店的商品、販促、價格、賣場的動態經營。與傳統服裝公司的差異如圖 3 所示。傳統模式,公司制訂所有規則,營業部門的幹部或



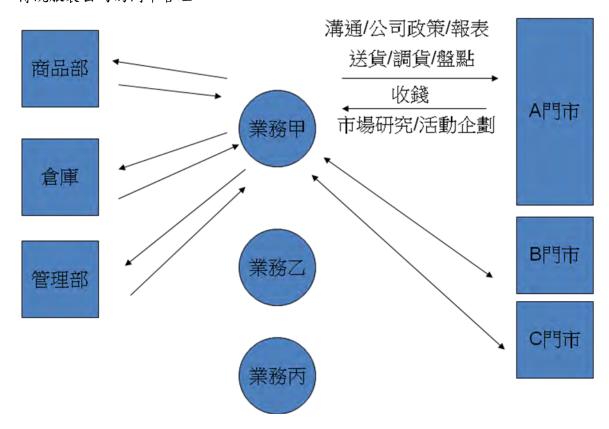
是業務負責管理多間門市,控制門市符合公司所制訂的各項規則、流程、行銷計畫。公司各部門對門市的溝通、門市對公司的各項需求與意見都是透過中間這個幹部或業務。以主將主導的模式,則是商店主將依照當地商圈的需要,規畫行銷計畫,行銷計畫所需各部門的支援,由主將直接向公司內各部門溝通與協調,取得資源,贏得商圈勝利。

為達到此策略的成效,又要兼具規模經濟的發揮,同時還需要將[金流]、[物流]、[商流]、[資訊流]等供應鏈流程獨立,如圖4所示。成為現代化供應鏈的經營模式。

區域在地化經營是最能瓦解大型連鎖門市標準化經營的最強攻勢。佢商名品就是採用這個策略,在短期內取得許多商圈競爭的勝利。然而,此模式因為主將培訓不易,展店速度較慢,但是每間商店滲透社區力強,商店的利潤貢獻度高,佢商每間商店的經營績效是業界平均的2~3倍,經常可以看到在社圈擊退大型連鎖門市的例子。



圖 3.傳統服裝公司與主將主導服裝公司的差異傳統服裝公司的門市管理



主將主導的門市管理

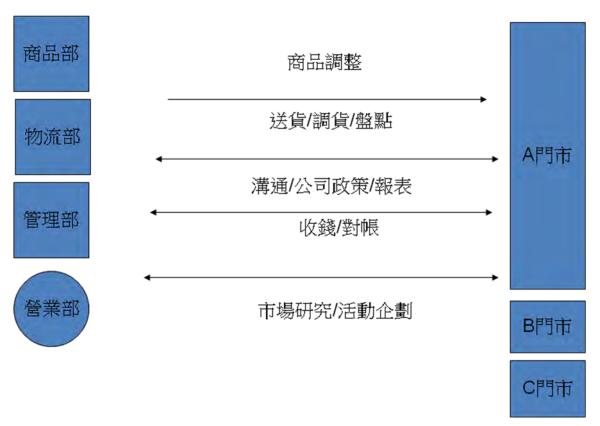
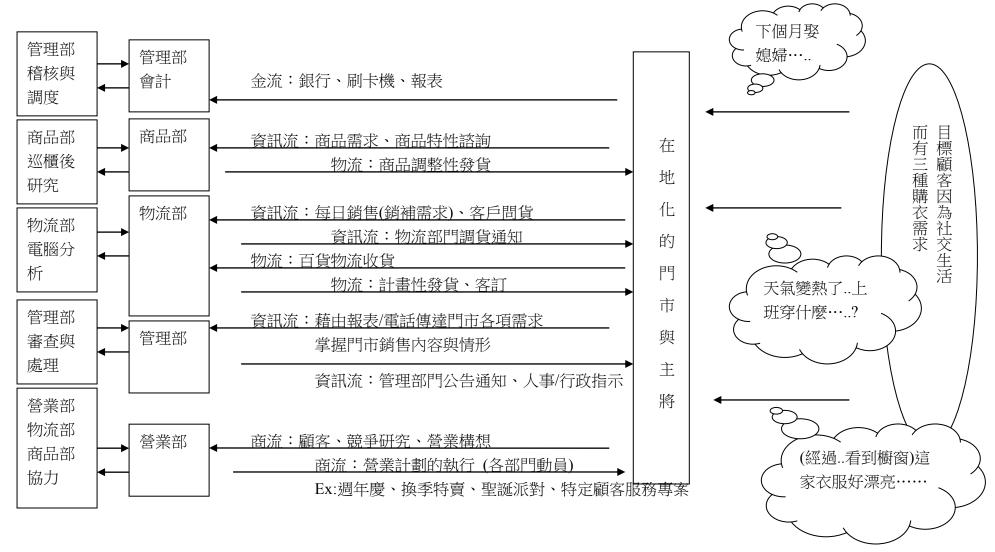




圖 4.現代化供應鏈流程(四流獨立)的運作圖示





商事如戰事,要贏,在戰場上的每件事情都必須要:顧客導向化、專業導向化、系統導向化。由主將主導的經營模式,商店的行銷策略,包括商品組合、促銷活動、訂價方式、門市設計與陳列方式,都是主將依照商圈與目標客群的需求、競爭考量下所設定的。將四流獨立後,門市需要更具美感的櫥窗陳列、商品陳列、流行資訊,都是主將直接與公司商品部門溝通,尋求幫助,得到的是最專業的協助。商品的流通則是由物流部門依照電腦系統分析的結果,直接與各門市主將進行商品進退貨的溝通與要求,例行化的建構在電腦系統上。並且各項與公司內部有關的事務都被專業分工、流程化。如此才能用最少的人把最多的商店做到最好。上述的主將主導、強調供應鏈現代化管理的策略模式有以下幾點策略重點:

- (1) 人治改成組織化
- (2) 系統化與電腦化創造競爭優勢
- (3) 門市人員由銷售員變成商店經營者
- (4) 專業化: 陳列與組合的調整交由時尚素養高的商品部達成、帳務交由會計素養的管理部完成、商品調轉交給電腦專業分析去完成
- (5) 可靠與效率: 更少人做更多事且作更好
- (6) 在地化掌握真正的商機

真正的問題都在看不到的時候,市場與競爭與顧客需求,只有商店經營者才有答案,所以培育主將並且主導公司各部門運作,才能真正在商圈獲得勝利。

五、結論與建議

過去採用產銷一條龍模式的服裝公司,重點在於生產資源、生產效率、品質與設計,屬於產品導向!但瞬息萬變的市場裡,自己開發、生產,可能會變成拖慢反應市場的包袱,工廠須安排產程,難以掌握流行驅動的猛爆性需求,或是因為生產資源、技術的限制、開發創意瓶頸,而無法滿足流行企劃的需求,而失去競爭力。上述三種模式主要目標是把握商品新鮮期或是創造、延長商品的保值期、避免降價,追求高毛利作戰,所增加的毛利高於將設計/生產外包造成的成本加成。所以產品的開發與生產,多仰賴國際上更多元的創意與生產管道,以滿足企劃及市場變化的需求。

另外,目前仍有許多傳統模式的服裝公司在國內佔據重要的競爭位置,強調品質形象的連鎖企業,規模是它們最大的競爭優勢,例如:國內單一品牌的服飾龍頭:奇威名品就是採用這個策略模式,經營上強調供應鏈管理、行銷策略著眼於好品質宣傳。有的業者從便利商店的加盟方式得到啟發,讓加盟主只需取得商店,由總部出資裝修商店委託經營,再由每月貨款扣抵,加盟主資本投入少、對未來有期待!藉此加盟模式在外縣市迅速拓展規模,得以和大型連鎖企業抗衡,其中以[伊蕾名品]最為成功。

不論哪種經營模式,都應設法將供應鏈升級,建立物流中心、將商流/金流/資訊流/物流獨立專業化,強化採購力、顧客關係管理等基本工夫,追求 3 好 1 公道(商品好、環境好、服務好、價格公道),才能在街頭割喉戰獲勝。未來,貨幣寬鬆、廠商們大量展店,面臨的風險是政府打房後可能導致的經濟衰退,結果可能造成資金週轉困難、低價出清存貨、毛利降低!如果因為大陸資金進入,讓台灣避開了經濟泡沫,也會帶來更高的房價、通貨膨脹,更嚴重的 M 型社會現象。建議廠商應保守經營,或考慮調整商品配合 M 型社會消費型態,或調整通路以配合大陸觀光客的新商機。

另一方面,貨幣寬鬆導致資本競賽。建議尋求專業會計師規畫稅務,以及報稅的財報,將短中長期資金規畫好,就可以利用銀行低利資金,在相同的自備資本、相同價格下提供更好的商品、環境、服務來滿足市場。此外,政府擴大財政支出又降低所得稅,代表的就是更積極查稅,也會從〔勞、健、退〕等環節尋找國庫所需資金,近日就看到了服飾連鎖企業遭罰高額稅金。然而這也代表未來服裝產業有更高的進入障礙以及更公平競爭的稅賦環境。因此,尋求專業的會計師協助,將稅務、勞/健/退制度正常化,反而是掌握未來更穩建經營的機會。



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探討應用孫子兵法九地篇在商業談判過程中之實務應用的可能,其結果是否具關連性的影響?

An Application of the Game Theory on the Sun-Tzu Art of War—An Example of Business Negotiation

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摘要

在企業經營過程中是最常聽見的一句俗語,「商場如戰場」這句話。直覺的告訴我們,企業競爭的過程中就有如作戰般的激烈,惟作戰非得拼得「你死我活」,最終必有輸家與贏家,但企業生存來自利潤,所有商業競爭的行為均以「利益」為前題,於是各種行銷戰術的運用就有如作戰般的重要。

膏. 九地篇

孫子說:「用兵之法,有散、輕、爭、交、衢、重、圯、圍、死九地。九地之變,屈伸之利, 人情之理,不可不察。」在戰場上因狀況不同,作戰方法各不相同,大約可歸為九種:

一、「散地」:

原指在自己的國內作戰,在商場上意謂在自己熟悉的市場競爭。當業務人員提出報價至客戶處,營業主管通常會有底價授權給業務承辦人。我方民國 94 年提出鍋爐水處理藥劑,報價至台灣青啤公司,營業部業務承辦人提出每公斤 60 元未稅價格,當採購人員通知議價時,營業主管給了 53 元每公斤單價時,也就是給了 7 元的讓步空間,面對客戶強制的壓力仍以 53 元的底價簽約。如圖 2-2:

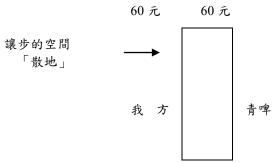


圖 2-2:孫子兵法「散地」

資料來源:劉必榮:談判兵法·先覺出版,頁 258。

二、「輕地」:

原指進攻他國,但尚未深入時要使部隊密切聯繫。我方公司剛成立時,為能取得市場佔有,惟深入各工業區及加工區積極的拜訪客戶,雖成功機率不大,但也有成功案例。台南地區原不屬於我方經銷區域,但因拜訪認識了「腎心診所」施董,恰好正有醫療用水之設備需求,我方提出之 proposal 及報價,滿足了施董對醫療用水的認知與設備需求他接受了,成為我方在台南地區的第一家客戶。



三、「爭地」:

原指對敵我雙方都有利的戰場。中鋼集團這個大公司,是國內所有水處理商必爭之地,商豪公司為一工程設備公司,也有中鋼的銷售實績。當熱軋廠開出系統之純水除氧設備(Water Server)需求時,我方與商豪公司皆能提供報價,惟商豪公司僅有工程設備安裝技術,卻無此除氧設備,而我方未能承包所有工程,最佳對策就是由我方提供除氧設備至商豪公司,由商豪公司統包承攬報價,於96年取得order,商豪及我方均是贏家。

四、「交地」:

原指敵我雙方都很容易到達的戰場。當今企業之「策略聯盟」或各種連鎖加盟店,所引用的方法。「清心烏龍綠茶」就是我方客戶人員中因逢退休,但又須有一份收入,所選擇的加盟店,借著清心獨特的配方及保證輔導獲利的情況下,對未曾有過生意經驗的友人,無不是一大福音。借由清心所傳授的經營方式,加上自己對地點做適當的選擇,友人以清心的知名度引用借力使力的方法,開創了他人生的第二事業。(2002. 遠見雜誌 222-224 頁)。

五、「衢地」:

原指各國的勢力都會滲透的地方,先得到控制時,獲得的力量較多。台灣可果美公司民國 91 年提出製程純水設備需求,由原供應商彰化鍊水公司報價,經日本顧問評估,建議參考我方 KURITA 提出之方案,經我方提出規劃及報價後,取得日籍顧問的支持,因為在可果美日本母公 司純水系統也是由我方提供,當然也較能採信我方技術順利的取得純水設備案,彰化鍊水原本以 為非他莫屬,最後仍敵不過可果美公司之選擇。

六、「重地」:

原指已深入敵後,攻擊敵方的據點和城市時。南科台灣康寧公司成立時,水處理藥品由 KURITA 取得,在取得前價格經一番廝殺,最後康寧公司副總開口:「現在的價格僅為期一年, 若我們一次簽五年價格該 down 多少?」,將球拋回 KURITA 當時的竹村先生與我商議願再降 5%, 副總也很爽快的答應,至今雙方仍維持合約。

七、「圯地」:

原指有山林、天險、沼澤等行軍困難的戰場。民國 94 年我方得力於客戶勤德公司介紹推荐 至正賢公司開發新客戶李老闆,李先生是位一貫道修行者,個性十分保守,當拜訪二三次同時提 出報價,正在研討中李老闆答應訂貨。我方立即詢問要開票或付現金,李老闆問說:如何收款?我 方之收款方式為貨到一個期票,當李先生點頭後,我方立即握手言謝走人,因為怕他反悔了,這 也是隔絕了有可能反悔的危機。

八、「圍地」:

原指被敵軍包圍時,對方可能會故意留一條路,讓我們往那走,也就引導我們沒有必死的門志。而我們必須將這個缺口堵起來,稱為「塞其缺」。企業與競爭者為相互競爭時,有時可以行動或「明確的聲明」說明我方決不放棄。民國 88 年高雄福華大飯店經與我方接洽,正逢競爭者競標時,我方主動提供所有加藥設備,且先行送一個月份的用藥量免費提供試用,這種具體的行動,讓對方相信我方已投入大量的成本,循予漸進的加碼方式,展現了我方決心,最後福華自然也選擇我們,競爭者當無機會進入。

九、「死地」:

原指作戰時前有強敵,後無退路,必須速戰速決的戰場。這就是告訴我們「要拼」,但孫子也告訴我們這是指情勢而言,非關國力大小,若拼不過別人還是要閃避。漢來大飯店開幕後第二年開始因工程之冷卻水系統保固期已完工,但在運轉一年後發現水量排放太大,且處理成效不彰,第二年由我方取得,但附帶的要求是,在處理過程中若發現因水處理不彰而產生之設備損失需由承包商無償提供,許多水處理商都不願接手,我方也感到壓力沉重,但畢竟這五星級大飯店是個大招牌,當了解問題點是水質管理及藥品方案的適切性後,並主動安裝自動排放裝設,也就承諾了這項合同。經處理多年後漢來也肯定我方能力,給予續約的承諾。



貳.「善用六不」

孫子說:「善用兵者,能使敵人前後不相及,眾寡不相持,貴賤不相救,上下不相收,率離而不集,兵河而不齊。」原意指作戰時能謀使敵軍無法相互支援,大小部隊無法接應,長官與部屬因相互的不信任而不相救助,上下作戰失去協調,兵力分散無法整合。經營企業更須鞏固企業本體之團結性,更要特別防止孫子所說的「前後不相及」等情況。

台化公司彰化廠與新港廠之動力工場,民國 85 年提出水質分析時間之急迫性需求,為的是能求冷卻水質的穩定,提高發電量。我方獲知結合技術部能研討,更自 KURITA 德國分公司購入由德國研發部自行開發之 on line 自動檢測儀器,但因全套配裝須由德籍技師來台安裝指導,為考量整體成本,我方僅購入主機,再經由技術部門自行以 sensor box 配裝,立即提供至台化公司,滿足了客戶的需求,同時也提升了我方在市場上的競爭力。這種結合本土與國外技術的長線經營,「前後相及」,隨時符合客戶的需求,有效的提升服務,將能面對更大的挑戰。

2.3.3 吳越同舟

孫子說:「夫吳人與越人相惡也,當其同舟而濟,遇風,其相救也,如左右手。」原意指有深仇大恨的吳越兩國人民,若同在一艘船上遇險時,都能互救,發揮「同舟共濟」的精神。國內企業經營情況能夠經營不錯的,除了本身實力外,之所以能屹立不搖,靠的就是良好的經營理念,及遇危機時都能發揮「同舟共濟」的精神。

東南亞「越南」地區屬 KURITA 海外泰國分公司之承辦區,慶豐水泥設廠於越南海防,原屬泰國接洽範圍,由於慶豐水泥為台商慶豐集團之海外公司,因此不乏台籍幹部駐越工作。當泰國派員接洽時,由於文化差異及對水泥製程之經驗不及在台的我方,因此自海外尋求我方的協助。一開始我方在路程及成本上的考量,一度不願相助,但經雙方協調由泰國為主,我方已在台之水泥廠處理之實績與成效,與泰國人員共同開發越南之水處理市場,一方面協助泰國 KURITA取得客戶,另一方面因台籍幹部中之廠長,副廠長在台工作時就是我方「嘉新水泥」與「建台水泥」的客戶,這下子更容易取得對方信賴,經我方首次拜訪了解現況需求,提出建議處理案及報價,也就順利的拿下訂單。所以,企業要能共患難,齊協力,要與其同歸於盡,不如通力合作,雙方都是贏家。

參. 無法之賞

孫子說:「施無法之賞,懸無政之令,犯三軍之眾,若使一人。」是指作有功的戰士,應懸賞,而犯法者,則需超出平時政令的嚴刑處罰,賞罰分明,人人皆能奮戰,指揮全體就如同指揮一人般的便利。新進之業務人員,當工作發生困難時,往往只會向主管報備並說明原因,卻無法提出對策方案。我方教育這些新人時總會提供主管及公司經驗供參考,若經幾次相同情況業務人員未能提昇時,公司當告之業務人員「球掉下來要有人去接」就是說當第一線的業務員接到工作上的難題需有擔當的責任,並非將問題丟給公司主管,因為惟有如此在業務工作上才能進步,也因此企業所訂定的紀律明白的告訴員工,個人權責需有擔當的責任,當處理不當時則應受公司之懲罰。下定正確的對策,則能統領整個企業順利的發展。

四.結論探討

小生意靠頭腦 大生意靠做人

胡雪嚴,中國第一商人,從錢莊的學徒開始走上經商之路,以「零資本」開設錢莊作為事業的起點,並不斷擴張,生意的觸角幾乎伸到了當時所有最賺錢的行業;生絲貿易、典當、軍火、水上貨運、藥店、地產等,並且在大多數行業都做了全國第一,從而構築起一個縱橫交錯、遍及全國的商業帝國。

中國有句話叫「做官要學曾國藩,經商要學胡雪巖。」胡雪巖傳奇般的賺錢神話,使得無數 人為之癡迷,成為所有商人的終極夢想,胡雪巖與呂不韋、陶朱公、沈萬三一起,被稱為中國四 大財神。

人脈:胡雪巖生逢亂世,從一個小伙計幹起,最終在官場、商場左右逢源,成為富甲天下的商賈奇人,與他龐大而牢固的人脈網路是分不開的。古語說,多個朋友 多條路,多個冤家多道牆,在胡雪巖看來,任何人都可以交朋友,任何人都有可用之處。賈賣生意本來就是人和人之間的事,長久生意需要有一群忠心的下屬;遇到 困難,需要各路朋友拳拳相助;關鍵時刻,更要靠命中貴人的提攜。成功,就是要讓自己的人際關係網路四通八達。



經營:胡雪巖生命中最輝 煌的時期,清朝國民總收入每年是八千一百萬兩白銀,而胡雪巖的收入卻是四千二百萬兩白銀,相當於整個中國的一半。胡雪巖能取得富甲天下的商業成就,是與他 睿智的經商藝術分不開的,他恪守商業競爭的遊戲規則,誠信待人,勇於風險投資,慷慨好施,任人唯賢,敢於授權等,所有這些,對我們今天的商人來說,仍然有 許多可以學習和借鑑之處。

處世:在胡雪巖看來,經商很簡單,賺錢也並不是什麼難事,只要遵循商業的基本規則就會成功。很多人不會做生意,首先是因為他不會為人處世。的確,經商與為人處世關係緊密,既要有自身的努力奮鬥,更要有各色人物的幫助提攜。胡雪巖之所以能成為中國第一商人,其最高的智慧就是「經營人心」。他是用自己為人處世的大智慧,吸引大批人才為自己創造財富。

這三點看似普通,實則展現了胡雪巖的全部人生智慧菁華,堪稱經商三絕。本書就以這三點為脈絡,把胡雪巖一生中所有經典故事編輯成書,願您在閱讀精采故事之餘,能領悟到賺錢經商的最高智慧,最終走向人生的輝煌。

當今社會現象到處可看到人際關係處理的困難,越年輕就越難處理,我想在經商多年的經驗心得告訴我,在人與人之間的相處,讓對方接受你的人,不管對方是主管或屬下甚至於老闆都是一樣的,更何況在生意場上,當客戶尚未接受你的人之前需以自身的靈敏度,去感受你與對方的相似點在那兒?找到了共同的相似點,那麼自然就會有許多的話題可談,當然在短時間的機會裡是有些難度,那麼若再運用你待人的態度謙虛點,就容易多了,所以人脈好的人,人緣好的人總是比別人多了些賺錢的機會。



節水便器的研發與展望

A Research and Development of Two Sets of Water-saving Toilet

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摘要

在現今全球氣候變遷以及人類大量開發與消耗下,造成有限的水資源日益減少,台灣是個水資源極度缺乏的國家,如何節約用水及省水成了國人重要課題。

本文介紹二種新式節水便器:第一種是「女生專用省水小便馬桶」;另一種是「男女兩用省水小便馬桶」,用水量只有現有的省水馬桶6分之1使用量,每年約可省下5億2084萬公噸的水資源。

關鍵詞:水資源、節水便器。

ABSTRACT

During to global climate change and human development and over consumption, water resources dwindled in past years. Taiwan has a serious shortage problem in water resources. It's an important issue how to save water and create water-saving facilities.

This article describes two sets of new water-saving urinals: the first one is the "female-specific water-saving urinal"; the other is the "dual-use water-saving urinal for male and female". By using two water-saving urinals, water consumption could be reduced five-sixth, which can save 520.84 million tons of water in a single year in Taiwan.

Keywords: Water Resource, Water-Saving Urinal.

一、緒論

湛藍的地球表面,水的總儲量約14億立方公里,不過卻有97%是海水,可使用的乾淨淡水只佔不到3%,不過這3%卻是地表生物賴以維生的唯一生命之源。

水資源相當可貴,今天我們看到的水在幾十億年前就已經存在這地球上了,扣除掉海洋,可以使用的淡水只有不到 3%,在這個不到 3%的淡水當中大部份是卻是冰天雪地,可以隨意取用的淡水只有不到 1%,除了供應人類飲用水外,也是地球許多物種,賴以維生的珍貴水源,這些水更造就了地球許多自然美景,地球蘊藏的淡水,雖然只有 3%,不過,就靠著這些珍貴水源,造就無數令人驚嘆的自然美景,也孕育了我們這個地球上,無數珍奇的生命物種。29

水不只用於經過水壩和蒸汽產生動力,也可以用來冷卻核子、煤、天然氣發電。這些火力和核能發電廠跟農業、工業和都市用電都在競爭水資源供應。由於工業化而產生的有毒工業廢水汙染地表水源,而隨著經濟的迅速發展,工業用水排擠了農業用水和生活用水,農業大量使用化肥

²⁹ TVBS 新聞: 【拯救水資源】淡水佔地球 3% 孕育萬物、造就美景,2010-4-28。



和畜牧業過度使用抗生素,都造成地下水的嚴重污染。人口不斷增加對乾淨水的需求量也跟著上升,但是全球卻有超過10億人口仍必須飲用或使用不乾淨的水源,每年3月22日是「世界水資源日」,第17屆「世界水資源日」更將主題定為「水質」,WWAP所提出的一個警訊是:水源嚴重污染。每天,地球上有兩百萬噸廢棄物進入河流和湖泊,這些源自工業、農業和家庭的垃圾殘渣嚴重影響健康。污水廢水帶來霍亂、傷寒、痢疾等傳染病,每年有150萬未滿5歲的幼童因為飲用髒水而夭折。發展中國家有80%的疾病可以直接歸咎於飲用水匱乏、污染以及衛生設備不足。

人類所製造的廢水在發展中國家由於欠缺法律規範,約百分之八十民眾日常使用的水都是未經處理的汙水。也呼籲大家謹慎面對聖嬰現象,以及目前各國發生的嚴重乾旱與農糧損失等議題。根據 2009 年花旗集團的報告指出,未經回收處理再利用的水資源,衍生出水源短缺問題,造成中國、印度、印尼、澳洲與美國西部經濟成長隱憂。另外根據財富 1000 的調查,超過 4 成的企業主認為,缺水對自己業務的成長是種「嚴重」的威脅。

「節能減碳」不再只是一個口號,而是全球民眾都該盡的一份心力,由於工業化及人口不斷增加,乾淨水的需求量也跟著上升,但全球有超過 10 億人仍必須飲用或使用不乾淨的水,2010 年第 17 屆「世界水資源日」主題定為「水質」,提醒人們謹慎面對聖嬰現象,以及目前各國發生的嚴重乾旱與農糧損失等議題。30

在現今全球氣候變遷以及人類大量開發與消耗下,造成有限的水資源日益減少,是以各國皆極力倡導節約用水之觀念,進而衍生出許多省水節能之新產品;而台灣是個水資源極度缺乏的國家,如何節約用水及省水成了國人重要課題,台灣自來水公司和經濟部水利署共同推動節水、省水措施。

例如位於新加坡東邊樟宜東弄的新生水廠,每天可生產 5000 萬加侖的「新生水」,正式啟用後,預估 5 座新生水廠,可應付新加坡 30%的每天用水需求。該國總理吳作棟強調,全球氣候變遷導致供水短缺的問題日益嚴重,這也將促使國際社會逐漸接受再生水,作為一種長期解決水源供應短缺的辦法。 31

新加坡的新生水需求量,已從 2003 年剛開始的每天 400 萬加侖,增加到目前每天 6000 萬加侖。新加坡由於地小缺水,過去必須向馬來西亞買水,但在馬來西亞發現水賣給新加坡後,經過重新淨化和包裝再賣回馬來西亞,價格反而更高,導致兩國爭執,最後新加坡決定自行開發水源,把家庭用水等廢水重新回收以薄膜技術淨化,變成循環再生水,稱為「新生水」。

新加坡水費是台灣 5 倍,而且飯店裡也不像台灣會提供 2 罐瓶裝水。早在 1998 年,新加坡為了省水開始民生廢水回收再利用計劃,叫作「新生水」。不只可以重新拿來給工商業使用,還可以直接喝。

氣候炎熱、乾燥的以色列,更研發出獨步全球的滴灌技術。他們將鑽有小孔的水管埋在植物根部,水就只從小孔直接滴到植物的根部,能省下4成用水量。這項技術已被 110 個國家所運用。

因為世界聖嬰現象、季節風雨遲到以及人為等因素,世上最大的稻米出口國泰國儲水量遽 降,已到了20 年來僅見的低水位。

台灣經濟部水利署(前水資源局)為鼓勵消費者選用省水產品,推動節水器材的使用與研發,於87年1月頒訂「省水標章作業要點」,全力推動省水標章制度,同時透過消費者對省水標章產品的支持,進而激勵製造廠商更能重視省水產品的研發與製造,而達到良性循環之目的。

二、產業背景分析

在國人每人每天生活用水 271 公升當中,經統計家庭各項日常用水比重依序是馬桶沖廁 (28%)、洗衣用水 (22%)、洗澡用水 (21%)、一般水龍頭用水 (15%)、清潔與其他用途 (14%)。我們將從用水比重排名第一的馬桶沖廁來達成節水、省水目標。 32

依照平均來算,一個正常的健康成人每日會上廁所六到十次,包括尿液與糞便的自然排泄物,所需要清潔環境的水源約為一百公升之多,而我們正常的攝取水分僅有三公升之多。因此,設計有省水、易潔等功能的馬桶,確實可以為地球之環保盡一份心力。

針對日常使用的馬桶來說,有業者研發兩段式按壓供水結構,其主要有大號用水 6 公升及小

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³⁰ 台灣醒報:世界水資源日,10億人沒乾淨水喝,2010-3-22。

³¹ 中央商情網, 吳作棟:每日新生水產量盼增至 7500 萬加侖, 2010-05-03。

³² 自由時報:去年每人每日生活用水 19 年來最少,2011-5-22。

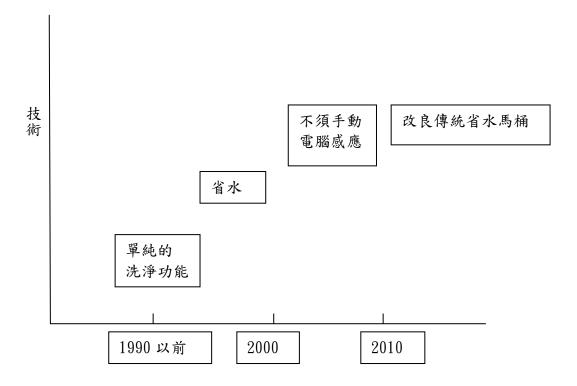


號用水 3 公升之區別,使用者可依需求選擇欲沖洗之水量,進而達到省水之目的。

雖然此種結構之馬桶沖水設備已被一般大眾所接受,且亦可產生省水之效果,但其仍存在有許多使用上之缺失,故列舉說明於後:

- (1) 以一般小號之沖水量 3 公升而言,相較於男用小便斗一次之沖水量 300 毫升,仍屬過於 大量,是以在小號沖洗用水之耗用上,應有可改善進步之空間。
- (2) 此種二段式按壓供水結構於長期之使用下,仍有產生故障之虞慮,如此不僅增加使用之麻煩性,使用者亦須更換專用開關結構,而若因馬桶型號老舊導致該項零件停產或有規格不符之情況,恐須換購新型之馬桶,如此實不符合經濟性之考量,據以有待設法加以解決改善者。

三、 中、長期技術路程圖 (Roadmap)



本研發產出在 Roadmap 中之定位

從馬桶的發展歷史以觀,無論是設計、品質與功能均有長足進步,從早期僅是單純的洗淨功能,到現今不但講求省水,且還能做到不須手動,僅靠機器感應即可沖水,以及清洗臀部、控制水溫與座位溫度等功能,除此之外,對於產品本身的材質要求與表面處理,也讓馬桶的質感更為提升,同時也讓清潔工作變得更加容易。

根據歐美科學家的研究預測,等到西元二〇一五年時,地球上的淨水將只僅剩 1% !水資源的日漸消逝讓地球陷入困境,人類除了要做到不浪費之外,如何節省也是重要的環節,因此在更換省水設備前,必須先評估自家的狀況,以免換了不適用的產品反而更浪費。

而且根據經濟部水利署的規定,居家中最常使用的馬桶,必須符合以下條件,才能稱為「省水」,因此在更換前可先在家中測試水流量,再決定要不要更換及選購哪種款式。

一段式:每次沖水量在6公升以下。

兩段式:每次沖水量,大號在6公升以下、小號在3公升以下。

雖然此種結構之馬桶沖水設備已被一般大眾所接受,且亦可產生省水之效果,但其仍存在有



許多使用上之缺失,故列舉說明於後:

- 以一般小號之沖水量3公升而言,相較於男用小便斗一次之沖水量300毫升,仍屬過於大量,是以在小號沖洗用水之耗用上,應有可改善進步之空間。
- 2. 此種二段式按壓供水結構於長期之使用下,仍有產生故障之虞慮,如此不僅增加使用之麻煩性,使用者亦須更換專用開關結構,而若因馬桶型號老舊導致該項零件停產或有規格不符之情況,恐須換購新型之馬桶,如此實不符合經濟性之考量,據以有待設法加以解決改善者。

綜上所述,本創作乃是針對傳統省水馬桶做改良,針對以往的馬桶設計做了修正,藉由馬桶 沖水方式及尿池部結構之改變以及馬桶座與尿斗之結合,產生極佳的省水功效與避免因男女使用 習慣不同所造成的衛生問題。

四、 研發與實證

國內公共場所的女廁數量普遍不足,女生如廁時老是要排隊;甚至有時外出經常找不到廁所,相信很多女性朋友都有這種痛苦經驗,有的甚至長時間憋尿忍下去造成尿道發炎。女性同胞在公共場所上洗手間,是不是經常有等上 10 幾 20 分鐘的經驗呢?其實目前在台灣只有 5%左右的公廁男女比例達1:5 的規定。像車站、電影院或學校,不少男女廁數量都是1:1 或1:2,男女廁面積規劃不應相等,女廁應多於男廁才能使女性如廁舒適。因為女生上廁所時間比男生長,(男性 約 48 秒,女性約 123 秒),男女比例應該達1:5 如能以此比例設置廁所,方能讓女性朋友內急時不用排隊等待。造成女廁擠爆,男廁卻冷飕飕。

一般人平均一天的「大、小事」約略在 6~8 次,大號最多約 2 次、小號約 6 次,相信大家都有共同的體驗那就是一每天一大早總是會有家人在廁所外面喊著『好了沒』?如果將「方便」的事大小有別,相信能讓老爸在廁所內看完他想看的報紙。針對日常使用的馬桶來說,現有業者研發省水馬桶兩段式按壓供水結構,其主要有大號用水 6 公升及小號用水 3 公升之區別,使用者可依需求選擇欲沖洗之水量,進而達到省水之目的。但以一般小號之沖水量約 3 公升及一般男用小便斗一次之沖水量約 2 公升而言,我們認為在小號沖洗用水之耗用上仍屬過於大量,應有可改善進步之空間。

本創作有二種:第一種是「女生專用省水小便馬桶」,由於使用目的明確因此能加速公共場所小便馬桶的轉換使用率,避免女士上廁所要大排長龍或是擠爆女廁之窘境。另一種是「男女兩用省水小便馬桶」,藉由馬桶座與尿斗之結合專供家庭使用。小便之專用馬桶係利用簡易彎曲管路藉由馬桶沖水方式及尿池底部結構之改變。能用極少的水量約0.5公升來沖洗便體將尿液完全排出,留下乾淨的水隔絕污臭的空氣進而達到降低沖洗水量之極佳的省水功效。「方便的事」使用次數不變、用水量只有現有的省水馬桶6分之1使用量,我們相信不僅能省水更能進一步省電。分述如下:

(一)小便專用省水馬桶

本研發創作係有關於一種小便專用省水馬桶,更詳而言之,特別是指藉由馬桶槽體與沖水結構之改變,而賦予其小便專用之省水節能裝置者。

有鑑於針對以往馬桶小號沖洗水量所需改進之缺點,是以創作人基於從事相關行業之多年經



驗與技術,特著手研究解決之道,進而研創出本創作之小便專用省水馬桶,即其主要目的有兩點:

- 藉由馬桶沖水方式及尿池部結構之改變,使其僅供小便之專用,進而透過如男用小便斗之 沖洗水量對馬桶槽體進行沖洗,據以產生極佳的省水功效。
- 該上環部內環設有一導水管路,是以透過沖水開關之按壓,得使沖洗水自導水管路之出水 孔中流出,進而確保馬桶槽體之全面沖洗,使其保持衛生乾淨之狀態者。

(二)男女兩用省水小便馬桶

本研發創作係有關於一種男女兩用省水小便馬桶,更詳而言之,特別是指藉由馬桶座與尿斗 之結合,使提供小便之專用,並賦予男女姿勢之適用結構者。

有鑑於針對以往馬桶小號沖洗水量所需改進之缺點,是以創作人基於從事相關行業之多年經 驗與技術,特著手研究解決之道,進而研創出本創作之男女兩用省水小便馬桶,即其主要目的有 三點:

- 藉由馬桶座與尿斗之結合,並僅供男女小便之專用,進而透過如男用小便斗之沖洗水量對馬桶槽體進行沖洗,據以達到有效省水之節能功效。
- 該尿斗上端設有一沖水孔,而尿斗內部兩側至馬桶座之上環部亦設有相通之導水管路,是 以透過沖水開關之按壓,得使沖洗水自沖水孔及導水管路之出水孔中流出,進而確保馬桶 槽體之全面沖洗,使其保持衛生乾淨之狀態者。
- 3. 利用馬桶座與尿斗所結合之小便專用馬桶,除了賦予其極佳的省水效益外,對於男女小便姿勢之通用,得以省略如使用一般馬桶時,掀起或蓋合該馬桶座墊之動作,據以即可避免因男女使用習慣不同所造成的衛生問題者。

五、 結論

11 WO WH

在現今全球氣候變遷以及人類大量開發與消耗下,造成有限的水資源日益減少,是以各國皆極力倡導節約用水之觀念,進而衍生出許多省水節能之新產品;而台灣是個水資源極度缺乏的國家,如何節約用水及省水成了國人重要課題。

本文介紹二種新式節水便器:第一種是「女生專用省水小便馬桶」;另一種是「男女兩用省水小便馬桶」,藉由馬桶座與尿斗之結合專供家庭使用。小便之專用馬桶係利用簡易彎曲管路藉由馬桶沖水方式及尿池底部結構之改變。能用極少的水量約0.5公升來沖洗便體將尿液完全排出。在「方便的事」使用次數不變、用水量只有現有的省水馬桶6分之1使用量,每年約可省下5億2084萬公噸的水資源。33

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³³ 每天每人用水量 271 升×廁所用水 28%×節水比率 5/6×365 天×2300 人≒538,843,833 噸。



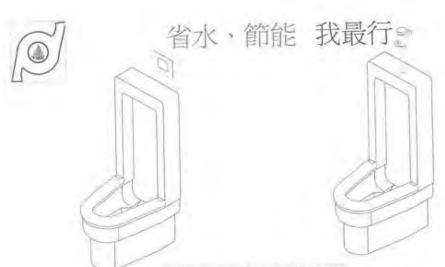


省水、節能 我最行





讓女生們「方便」的時候,更方便 是一款專爲女生設計的省水小便專用馬桶,借由 極少的水量來沖洗便體。利用簡易彎曲管線將尿液 完全排出,留下乾淨的水隔絕污臭的空氣。



「方便」的事,大小有别

是一款專爲一般家庭設計的女/男共用省水小便專用 馬桶,借由極少的水量來沖洗便體。利用簡易彎曲管線 將尿液完全排出,留下乾淨的水隔絕污臭的空氣。



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契約性人力進用與人力資源管理績效相關性之研究

A Performance-Related Research of Contract Employment and Human Resource Management

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摘要

本研究主要在探討*契約*性人力進用者之公平認知程度與工作績效之關係,比較不同背景變項之差異情形,並進行背景變項與組織公平認知對工作績效影響性的探討。研究者搜集相關文獻和理論依據,建立研究架構;並以深圳地區某高科技公司之定期契約工與其直屬主管為研究物件,進行問卷調查,共調查154份配對樣本,以驗證研究假設。主要之研究結果為:

- 一、不同的背景變項在組織公平認知及工作績效構面上有顯著差異。
- 二、組織公平認知與工作績效有顯著的相關。
- 三、背景變項與組織公平認知對工作績效有顯著的影響。

因此本研究推論:對於*契約*性人力而言,著重程式公平與互動公平的管理制度設計,將有助於提升整體工作績效。

關鍵字:契約性人力、組織公平認知、工作績效

ABSTRACT

Shenzhen. The results showed:

The objective of this research is to study the relationship between the equity cognitive of contract employment and job performance. Compare the differences of different background variability and research the background variability and equity cognitive of organization to job performance.

Researcher collects the literature based on theoretical assumptions to build the research framework; survey 154 samples that based on contract employment and employer from one high tech company in

- 1. The differences of different background variability for equity cognitive of organization and job performance are significant.
 - 2 The correlation of equity cognitive of organization and job performance are significant.
 - 3 Background variability and equity cognitive of organization are significant to job performance.

The results of this study show that emphasize the designing management system of system equity and mutual equity will help to raise the entire job performance for contract employment.



Keywords: Contract Employment, Perception of Organization Equity, Work Performance

壹、緒論

一、研究動機

經理人應該要瞭解並非所有應徵者都具有企業核心能力的技能,也並非所有的員工都具有與 策略一樣重要的知識與技能。而且因為人力資源的任用直接關係到組織的效能,影響既深且遠, 所以作好人力資源的雇用管理,是企業運用人力資源的首要工作,也是決定一個企業能否永續經 營與發展、建立組織的競爭優勢的重要條件。員工取得之途徑很多,從自行發展、市場交易、契 約外包以至於聯盟合作等,在考慮人力資源的強化與維持之下,如何運用員工取得之途徑,除可 避免企業有限資源之浪費外,更將有助於企業能有效地管理與運用所取得之員工。

Adams (1975) 發展出著名的公平理論 (Equity Theory),指出員工會將自己的付出與所得的 比率,將它拿來和相關的人做比較。倘若比率與他人相同時則表示「公平」,他們會感到自己所 處的環境是公平、公正的;如果不公平,員工會衡量自己的獲得是偏低或偏高,並設法修正這種 不公平現象。許多實證研究都發現若是員工覺察到「不公平」,對組織有負面的影響,將會導致 生產力下降、離職、怠工、訴願、不滿等現象增多。此時加薪是否就是最有效的解決方法?加薪 以後若員工仍然不滿足呢?再加薪嗎?

1990 年代以後,深圳地區的產業環境產生不少的變化,除了工資上漲、土地取得不易,對傳統勞力密集產業的經營產生相當不利的影響外,水、電供給等基礎資源的不足、環保意識的普遍抬頭,也使得高耗能、高污染產業的發展受到相當的限制。

面對此一情勢,深圳地區身企業在政經環境的變遷、政策法規的轉向與產業結構的競爭等種種不確定因素之下,企業在擬定人力資源策略以建立競爭優勢時,普遍的因應方法之一就是採用所謂「勞動市場彈性化」的策略與措施,亦即「非典型聘雇」 (Atypical Employment) 之運用。

「非典型聘雇」的提供讓企業能夠依據市場狀況調整勞動力的運用,以降低企業用人薪資及 非薪資的成本的支出,以減輕企業財務的負擔和有助於企業人力資源的彈性運用。因此,「非典 型聘雇」與企業的發展息息相關,成為企業成本控制的重要機制。

面臨全球化經濟競爭日趨激烈,經濟衰退與失業問題已經成為深圳地區最受關注的經濟議



題。由於需求面與供給面的改變,可預期的,非典型聘雇的工作型態在未來將是一個增加的趨勢。已有多項研究針對「非典型聘雇」之運用所衍生的問題進行探討及提出建議,但對如何有效管理並運用非典型聘雇,亦即工作績效,並無一客觀之模式進行評估,以確定效益或目標是否達成,同時檢討並改正錯誤。因此觸發本研究之動機,希望藉由探討非典型聘雇工作型態之定期契約工的組織公平認知與工作績效之間的關係,藉由研究成果,以提供企業作為人力資源管理規劃之參考。

二、研究目的

為因應市場變動之不確定性及降低勞動成本,個案公司於 1999 年起逐步引進定期契約工之 非典型聘雇的工作型態,定期契約方式以六個月為一期,主要從事製造現場之生產性工作。至 2008年2月止,該型態之人數已達 553人,占比已達 28.5%。

然而定期契約工的運用十分複雜,與一般正式員工之管理模式不盡相同,與組織的運作若缺 乏有效果及效率的互動,則往往對工作績效造成重大影響,故本研究擬針對定期契約工之背景與 組織公平認知予以探討及分析,期望運用工作績效管理的成果,以達到協助企業增加利潤,降低 勞動成本,同時提高企業競爭力之目的。具體而言,本研究目的如下:

- (一)、瞭解定期契約工對「組織公平」之認知程度與其「工作績效」在個案公司之實際情形。
 - (二)、瞭解定期契約工之「組織公平」認知程度與其「工作績效」之間的相關程度。
 - (三)、瞭解定期契約工之「背景變項」在「組織公平」各構面間之差異情形。
 - (四)、瞭解定期契約工之「背景變項」在「工作績效」各構面間之差異情形。
- (五)、探討定期契約工之「背景變項」、「組織公平」對「工作績效」之影響程度與預測效果。

貳、文獻探討

一、非典型聘雇工作型態之種類與定期契約工之定義

李誠、成之約、辛炳隆 (2005) 等學者認為非典型聘雇關係所指涉的是一種非全時、非長期受雇于一個雇主或一家企業的關係。大體上包括部份工時勞動、定期契約勞動、電傳勞動、派遣勞動、外包等不同類型的工作。這樣的聘雇關係與一般不定期性、全時工作、勞務提供物件是單一雇主、以及受到非法解雇保護的聘雇關係是不同的。

由於上述學者之研究已綜合各國學者之論述,且以本地之產業環境為研究物件,較符合本研究之背景,故本研究採用李誠等學者 (2000) 針對非典型聘雇之定義。

我國有關勞動法規將勞動契約區分為定期契約及不定期契約。臨時性、短期性、季節性及特定性工作得為定期契約,且規定前後簽訂之定期契約需超過三十天;反之,有繼續性工作應為不定期契約。定期契約所包含的臨時性、短期性、季節性及特定性工作的認定標準如下:

- (一)、臨時性工作:系指無法預期之非繼續性工作,其工作期間在六個月以內者。
- (二)、短期性工作:系指可預期於六個月內完成之非繼續性工作。



- (三)、季節性工作:系指受季節性原料、材料來源或市場銷售影響之非繼續性工作,其工 作期間在九個月以內者。
- (四)、特定性工作:系指可在特定期間完成之非繼續性工作。其工作期間超過一年者,應報請主管機關核備。

個案公司引進之定期契約勞動工作型態,其定期契約方式是以六個月為一期,主要從事製造現場之生產性工作,並依據勞動基準法之規定辦理。

二、組織公平之相關理論

Homans (1961) 為社會心理學家中最早宣導分配公平觀念的學者,其所提出之社會交換理論 (Social Exchange Theory) 中的分配公平法則是指:個人在交換關係中會有兩種預期,一是個人之報酬應與成本成比例,二是淨報酬應與投資成比例;且在第三者提供報酬給兩人以上時,個人會預期分配者應維持各受償者之投資報酬比例于相同水準(梁凱雯,2008)。

Adams (1965) 引申 Homans (1961) 的觀念,加上其他學者的主張,發展出著名的公平理論 (Equity Theory)。公平理論指出:員工隨時處於一種社會性比較的狀態,員工將會把自己所獲報 償與投入的比率與他人相比較,當此比率達到相等時,則員工將感覺公平而處於最為滿足的狀態。

過去學者常將組織公平區分為「分配公平」與「程式公平」兩構面 (Folger & Greenberg, 1985)。其中分配公平 (Distributive Justice) 意指獎酬的分配結果是否公平。而程式公平 (Procedural Justice) 則是指在進行獎懲決策時,所依據的決策準則及方法是否符合公平原則。

Bies & Moag (1986) 等學者認為過去學者的程式公平概念中,忽略了在組織程式的執行過程中,員工對於所受到的人際互動品質的感受,包括對於員工的尊重、提供決策的說明與解釋、同理心的展現等,因此提出互動公平 (Interactional Justice) 的構面來強調程式進行時的人際互動。

近年來的組織公平研究中,許多學者對於組織公平逐漸採用分配公平、程式公平以及互動公平三構面的區分方式進行研究,如 Moorman (1991)、Niehoff & Moorman (1993) 等。本研究綜合以上學者的觀點,採用三種公平,包括了分配公平、程式公平及互動公平,探討定期契約工的組織公平認知對工作績效的關係與影響。

三、工作績效之相關理論

在大多數組織行為的實證研究中,工作績效 (Job Performance) 通常都被定義為依變項,用來探討工作者的行為與輸出。但由於各種產業之目標與組織結構不同,故其績效目標也不同;工作績效的研究構面也因此常因研究物件不同而有差異,例如領導行為、報酬結構、組織設計、員工激勵或流程再造等,其目的均是在追求組織績效、達成目標效益。以下針對各界學者對工作績效的定義與看法,分述如次。

Campbell (1990) 認為工作績效是指「成員為了完成組織對他的期望、規範及因應組織中正式角色的需要,而表現出來的一種個人行為」。

Borman & Motowidlo (1993) 將工作績效定義為「所有與組織目標有關的行為,而且此行為可依個體對組織目標貢獻程度的高低予以測量」,並根據 Campbell (1990) 的研究架構提出另外一種分類方法,他們將工作績效區分為任務績效 (Task Performance) 與情境績效 (Contextual



Performance)。任務績效是指直接與組織技術核心 (Technical Core) 有關的行為,即組織將原始資源轉換成為產品的歷程;而其他或許與核心技術並無直接關係,但確有助於支援技術核心運作時所需之組織社會及心理等環境的行為表現,則稱之為情境績效。

隨著工作績效多樣化的取向,情境績效越來越受重視,由於其強調的是行為的特性,而非 角色的期待或行動者的意向,所以最能代表除了任務績效之外的其他個人績效,故本研究採用 Borman & Motowidlo (1996) 之研究的分類模式,亦即將工作績效區分為任務績效與情境績效進 行衡量,以作為本研究之依據。

四、組織公平與工作績效之相關研究

Moorman (1991) 的研究顯示,分配公平及程式公平與組織公民行為的大部份構面均呈明顯正相關,進一步做複回歸分析後發現,員工公平認知各構面對其任務績效並無顯著性影響,對情境績效則有顯著性影響。

在薪酬公平、程式公正與組織承諾、組織公民行為關係之研究中發現,電子資訊業員工之薪酬公平與程式公正認知均與組織公民行為呈正相關。

曹采華 (2006) 針對派遣員工對工作滿意,組織承諾,組織公民行為,工作績效的影響之研究中發現不同年齡、不同派遣年資、不同教育程度組別的派遣人員在組織承諾的程度上有顯著差異;不同年齡、不同婚姻狀態、不同教育程度組別的派遣人員在組織公民行為及工作績效的表現上均有顯著差異。

黄家齊 (2005a) 在其對人力資源管理活動認知與員工態度、績效之關聯性差異分析的研究中發現製造業之員工的程式公平及互動公平認知,均與其任務績效及組織公民行為有顯著相關,存在有正向關係。

黄家齊 (2005b) 於組織公正與組織公民行為的研究中探討分配公平、程式公平及互動公平 如何透過不同信任構面影響組織公民行為,研究結果進一步厘清了組織公平、信任以及組織公民 行為各構面的關聯性。

綜合上述之研究可知組織公平認知會影響工作績效。「績效」一直是研究組織行為的重要依據,不管是領導行為、員工激勵或工作設計,最終目的都是要提升組織績效。換句話說,不論組織內員工的聘雇的型態,管理者最終目的仍是要達到所有的員工都能表現正面的工作態度與工作行為。

本研究的分析物件是企業組織內的定期契約工,同樣不能忽略情境績效或組織公民行為, 因此,本研究由組織公平認知切入,將工作績效分成任務績效與情境績效兩部份對定期契約工進 行探討。

參、研究方法

一、研究架構

由前述的文獻探討可發現已有許多研究探討了員工的公平認知如何影響其工作績效,但對定期契約工之討論卻是付之闕如。由於工作型態之特殊性,可能存在有較多的變異,且企業採用定期契約工有逐漸增加之趨勢,因此以定期契約工為研究物件,具有其實務上重要的意義。本研



究一方面印證組織公平學者之推論,其次,驗證其觀點在定期契約勞動的適用性,並建立較為完整的觀念架構。

為達成上述之研究目的,除進行文獻探討外,並採用問卷調查方式,經由研究工具的編制與施測,收集客觀具體的資料,利用統計方法加以分析處理,以瞭解不同變項之間的各種關係。

本研究依據研究問題和目的及參考國內外有關文獻,擬定之研究架構如圖1所示。

组织公平

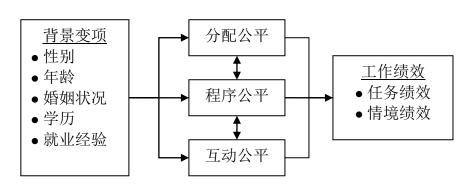


图 1 研究架构图

其中受測者之背景變項包含性別、年齡、婚姻狀況、學歷、就業經驗及員工卡號,以瞭解本研究所搜集的樣本型態。¹

組織公平則為仲介變項,使用林鉦棽 (1996)、黃家齊 (2002b) 依據 Moorman (1991) 研究中所編制的量表,分成分配公平、程式公平、互動公平3個構面,共18題,由定期契約工填答。

工作績效為結果變項,使用 Motowidlo & Van Scotter (1994)研究中所編制的量表,分成任務績效及情境績效兩個構面,共23題,由定期契約工之直屬主管填答。

以上本研究所使用量表之評分方式皆以李克特 5 點尺度加以測量填答者對於該題項敍述的同意程度,1表示「極不同意」,5表示「非常同意」。

各變項之操作型定義如下:

- 1. 組織公平
 - (1) 分配公平:員工對組織在分配資源的結果是否公平的知覺。
 - (2) 程式公平:員工對組織決策過程的知覺。
 - (3) 互動公平:員工對組織在完成決策以前是否有被公平對待的知覺。
- 2. 工作績效
 - (1) 任務績效:工作者對組織技術核心有所貢獻,在份內工作範圍以內的活動所表現的 熟練度。
 - (2) 情境績效:工作者對任務活動以外,而對組織效能有貢獻的其他活動所表現的熟練 度。

二、研究假設

依上述研究目的,本研究建構下列五項虛無假設,並以 α=0.05 檢驗之:

假設1. 「組織公平」與「工作績效」各構面間,無顯著相關。

假設 2. 不同「背景變項」對「組織公平」、「工作績效」各構面間,無顯著差異。

假設 3. 「背景變項」對「工作績效」各構面間,無顯著影響。

假設 4. 「組織公平」對「工作績效」各構面間,無顯著影響。

假設 5. 「背景變項」透過「組織公平」所產生的仲介作用對「工作績效」,無顯著影響。

三、資料搜集與樣本選擇

本研究問卷區分為員工問卷以及主管問卷兩種,分別由定期契約工及其直屬主管進行填



答。員工問卷中之填答項目包括其員工卡號、背景資料、組織公平量表;主管問卷之填答項目則包括該受評員工之卡號、工作績效量表。

由於個案公司之定期契約工主要從事製造現場之生產性工作,但由於職場型態與工作內容均有所差異,故以 11 個製造課之定期契約工及其直屬主管為抽樣架構 (Sampling Frame),采分層抽樣 (Stratified Sampling),於各製造課隨機抽取多人進行問卷配對調查。在考慮成本及錯誤風險下,本研究採用比例分配法,並考慮新進員工可能對組織運作模式有尚未瞭解之虞,故僅針對任職已超過三個月之定期契約工,按 25%之比例抽樣進行問卷調查。合計發出問卷 154 份,回收有效問卷計 154 份,有效回收率為 100%。

由於本問卷填答方式要求受測人員填上其員工卡號以作為配對分析,故可追蹤填寫不完全 之問卷;再加上個案公司高階主管之全力協助,對於問卷回收情形可完全有效掌握,故所回收之 154份問卷全為完整且有效之樣本。



四、效度與信度

(一)、組織公平量表:

原始量表信度、效度均佳,如表1所示。

表 1 組織公平原始量表信度、效度

量表來源	構面名稱	信度 (α)	效度
林鉦棽 (1996)	分配公平	.90	.67
	程式公平	.92	.67
	互動公平	.92	.75
黄家齊 (2002b)	分配公平	.95	-
	程式公平	.91	-
	互動公平	.94	-

本研究之問卷題項雖皆是修改整理自國內外文獻並經由多位學者于相關研究中加以實證研究所得之題項,但為重新建構各變項之構面,仍采因素分析 (Factor Analysis) 以確認符合本研究產業所適合之因素構面並確認其效度。

經由因素分析之主成份分析法萃取出 3 個特徵值大於 1 之因素,衡量題項符合原始量表之因素結構,3 個因素之累積解釋變異量達 72.209%。

在信度分析方面,整體量表之 Cronbach's α 值為 .9049,信度相當高;各構面的 Cronbach's α 值,也在 .9019 \sim .9502 間,信度亦高,如表 2 所示。

表 2 組織公平量表信度

構面名稱	題數	信度 Cronbach's α值
分配公平	5	.9502
程式公平	7	.9139
互動公平	6	.9019
組織公平整體量表	18	.9049

(二)、工作績效量表:

原始量表信度、效度均佳,如表3所示。

表 3 組織公平原始量表信度、效度

量表來源	構面名稱	信度 (α)	效度
Campbell (1987)	任務績效	.95	-
Motowidlo & Van Scotter (1994)	情境績效	.96	-
余德成 (1996)	任務績效	.8175	.6071
	情境績效	.9008	.6617
林澄貴 (2001)	任務績效	.8367	-
	情境績效	.8795	-

資料來源:張峯銘 (2002)。

經由兩次因素分析後刪除 3 個題項,共萃取出 2 個特徵值大於 1 之因素,衡量題項符合原始量表之因素結構,2 個因素之累積解釋變異量達 66.689%。

在信度分析方面,整體量表之 Cronbach's α 值為 .9476,信度相當高;各構面的 Cronbach's α 值,依序為:任務績效 .9474、情境績效 .9414,信度亦高,如表 4 所示。



表 4 工作績效量表信度

構面名稱	題數	信度 Cronbach's α值
任務績效	8	.9474
情境績效	12	.9414
工作績效整體量表	20	.9476

肆、研究結果

一、樣本描述

受測物件的描述性統計資料顯示,女性占 56.5%。年齡階層則以 $20\sim24$ 歲最多,占 49.4%, $25\sim30$ 歲占 26.0%, 30 歲以上占 18.2%, 20 歲以下占 6.5%。未婚者占 74.0%。學歷方面,高中/ 高職占 70.1%,專科 24.0%,大學 5.8%。有就業經驗者則占 86.4%。

表 5 為定期契約工對組織公平的認知狀況,大多數的定期契約工都能知覺到組織公平,而以程式公平認知程度最佳,分配公平的認知程度較低。表 6 為主管對定期契約工之工作績效的認同程度,大多數的定期契約員工之工作績效良好。

表 5 定期契約工組織公平認知之摘要

構面名稱	題數	平均數	標準差
分配公平	5	3.19	.95
程式公平	7	3.67	.70
互動公平	6	3.64	.66
組織公平整體量表	18	3.53	.56

表 6 定期契約工工作績效之摘要

構面名稱	題數	平均數	標準差
任務績效	8	3.73	.74
情境績效	12	3.79	.61
工作績效整體量表	20	3.76	.58

二、相關分析

組織公平認知程度與其工作績效的各相關係數如表 7 所示,研究假設 1 獲得統計上的部份支持。



表 7 相關分析表

構面	分配公平	程式公平	互動公平	任務績效	情境績效
分配公平	1.000				
程式公平	.266* (.001)	1.000			
互動公平	.211*	.444*	1.000		
	(.009) 202*	(.000) .471*	.072	1.000	
任務績效	(.012)	(.000)	.072	1.000	
情境績效	148	.032	.344* (.000)	.519* (.000)	1.000

注:*p<.05

三、差異分析

定期契約工背景變項之差異分析顯示,不同性別者,在組織公平及工作績效兩個構面均沒有顯著性的差異。不同年齡階層者,在分配公平有顯著性的差異,其中30歲以上者顯著低於20~24歲者及20歲以下者;在程式公平及任務績效有顯著性的差異,20歲以下者均顯著低於其他年齡階層者;在其餘構面上則沒有顯著性的差異。不同婚姻狀況者,在任務績效有顯著性的差異,已婚者顯著高於未婚者;在其餘構面上則沒有顯著性的差異。不同學歷背景者在分配公平有顯著性的差異,大學學歷者均顯著低於其他學歷背景者;在其餘構面上則沒有顯著性的差異。不同就業經驗的定期契約工,在分配公平有顯著性的差異,且無就業經驗者顯著高於有就業經驗者;在互動公平及情境績效有顯著性的差異,有就業經驗者顯著高於無就業經驗者;在其餘構面上則沒有顯著性的差異。研究假設2獲得統計上的部份支持。

四、複回歸分析

背景變項及組織公平對任務績效回歸分析結果如表 8 所示,說明如下:

- (一)、「模式一」: 背景變項對任務績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 14.2%。其中年齡變項對任務績效有正向且顯著的影響,其餘的變項則無顯著的影響。
- (二)、「模式二」:組織公平對任務績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 35.1%。其中分配公平對任務績效有負向且顯著的影響;程式公平對任務績效有正向且顯著的影響,其餘的變項則無顯著的影響。
- (三)、「模式三」:背景變項與組織公平對任務績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 36.5%。 其中分配公平對任務績效有負向且顯著的影響;程式公平對任務績效有正向且顯著的影響,其餘 的變項則無顯著的影響。

「模式三」的結果顯示「背景變項」的確會經由「組織公平」的仲介作用對「任務績效」產生影響,其仲介作用的增量判定係數 $(\triangle R^2)$ 達到 22.3%,整體模式三對任務績效的 F 考驗亦達顯著。



表 8 背景變項及組織公平對任務績效之複回歸分析

	依變項		任務績效	
	_	模式一	模式二	模式三
		標準化	標準化	標準化
自變項		回歸係數	回歸係數	回歸係數
-th	性別	076		.001
背 景	年齢	.347*		.058
京變	婚姻	.023		072
变 項	學歷	.065		.047
块	就業經驗	055		023
組織	分配公平		339*	285*
組織 公平	程式公平		.620*	.581*
ムー	互動公平		132	129
	F	4.917*	27.020*	10.401*
	\mathbb{R}^2	.142	.351	.365
	$\triangle R^2$.014	.223	-

注:*p<.05

背景變項及組織公平對情境績效回歸分析結果如表 9 所示,說明如下:

- (一)、「模式一」: 背景變項對情境績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 9.8%。其中就業經驗 變項對情境績效有負向且顯著的影響,其餘的變項則無顯著的影響。
- (二)、「模式二」:組織公平對情境績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 17.7%。其中分配公平對情境績效有負向且顯著的影響;互動公平對情境績效有正向且顯著的影響,其餘的變項則無顯著的影響。
- (三)、「模式三」: 背景變項與組織公平對情境績效有顯著之直線關係,解釋力為 19.3%。 其中互動公平對情境績效有正向且顯著的影響,其餘的變項則無顯著的影響。

「模式三」的結果顯示「背景變項」的確會經由「組織公平」的仲介作用對「情境績效」產生影響,其仲介作用的增量判定係數 $(\triangle R^2)$ 達到 9.5%,整體模式三對情境績效的 F 考驗亦達顯著。



表 9 背景變項及組織公平對情境績效之複回歸分析

	依變項		情境績效	
	_	模式一	模式二	模式三
		標準化	標準化	標準化
自變項		回歸係數	回歸係數	回歸係數
北	性別	018		019
背景	年龄	036		025
京變	婚姻	.027		003
变 項	學歷	.164		.029
块	就業經驗	274*		139
des - s	分配公平		211*	171
組織 公平	程式公平		105	101
公十	互動公平		.435*	.380*
	F	3.204*	10.784*	4.347*
	R^2	.098	.177	.193
	$\triangle R^2$.016	.095	-

注:*p<.05

綜合上述結果,研究假設3、4、5均未獲得統計上的支持。



伍、結論與建議

一、結論

根據本研究實證結果,確認不同的背景變項在組織公平認知及工作績效構面上確有差異存在;且會受到組織公平認知的仲介作用,進而影響其工作績效,故本研究之研究架構獲得支持。

同時,針對定期契約工,本研究確認組織公平的概念應該區分為分配公平、程式公平及互動公平進行分類,在信度與效度方面的檢定均有令人滿意的結果,證實了 Greenberg (1990) 的看法,且三者是為不同的概念。

(一) 背景變項與組織公平認知之關係

- 1. 從分配公平認知的構面來分析,本研究發現年齡、學歷背景及就業經驗等定期契約工的 人口統計特徵在分配公平認知上有顯著的差異。
- 2. 由程式公平認知的構面來分析,僅有年齡階層在程式公平認知上有顯著的差異,而在其 他的人口統計特徵上則無顯著差異。
- 3. 在互動公平認知的構面上,本研究發現僅有就業經驗在互動公平認知上有顯著的差異, 而在其他的人口統計特徵上則無顯著差異。

(二) 背景變項與工作績效之關係

- 1. 從任務績效的構面來分析,本研究發現年齡及婚姻狀況等定期契約工的人口統計特徵在 任務績效上有顯著的差異而在其他的人口統計特徵上則無顯著差異。
- 2. 從情境績效的構面來分析,僅有就業經驗在情境績效上有顯著的差異,而在其他的人口統計特徵上則無顯著差異。
 - (三) 背景變項、組織公平認知與工作績效之關係
- 1. 定期契約工之組織公平認知與其工作績效有顯著的相關存在。其中,分配公平認知與任務績效呈現顯著負相關;程式公平認知與任務績效呈現顯著正相關;互動公平認知與情境績效呈現顯著正相關。
- 2. 定期契約工之背景變項與組織公平認知對任務績效有顯著的顯著的直線關係,解釋力為 36.5%。其中「分配公平」有顯著的負向影響、「程式公平」有顯著的正向影響。且背景變項會 透過組織公平認知的仲介作用,進而影響其任務績效。
- 3. 定期契約工之背景變項與組織公平認知對情境績效有顯著的顯著的直線關係,解釋力為 19.3%。其中「互動公平」有顯著的正向影響。且背景變項會透過組織公平認知的仲介作用,進 而影響其情境績效。

由此可見,組織公平的影響力的確高於「背景變項」的作用,意即背景變項對定期契約工的工作績效影響很小,預測力很低。換言之,不論定期契約工之背景變項為何,只要組織在制定工作決策時,與定期契約工的互動越好,展現關懷與尊重,使其對程式公平與互動公平的認知愈高,則愈容易回報予組織正向的工作績效。

二、建議

研究結果提供若干實務意涵,單純由上述分析結果可初步推論出個案公司今後在遴選定期契約工時,可優先遴選年齡階層大於20歲、已婚及有就業經驗者,以期待有較佳的工作績效表現。



由於定期契約工之程式公平認知與任務績效呈現顯著正相關;互動公平認知與情境績效呈現顯著正相關,故對於組織而言,著重程式公平與互動公平的管理制度設計,將有助於提升整體工作績效。

另外,值得注意的是定期契約工對分配公平的認知程度普遍偏低,相對於正式員工而言,所 謂彈性的人力資源策略,也意味著定期契約工必須承擔隨時失去工作的風險。故本研究也建議個 案公司在靈活運用勞動彈性化的人力資源政策之余,也應視定期契約工為投資的資產,重視其生 涯發展與在職訓練,改善組織氣氛,注重員工發展,讓其能在工作崗位上呈現更好的績效;進一 步可考慮廣設提供晉升為正職員工的管道,一方面可產生激勵作用;一方面可節省再訓練人才之 時間與成本,以達到最大之組織效益。

本研究所建立之研究架構,經由回歸分析後所得到的解釋力分別為 36.5%與 19.3%,明顯偏低,代表組織公平與工作績效間可能存在其他的重要仲介機制,如林鉦棽 (1986)、黃家齊 (2002b)的研究中即指出了信任機制之影響效果。本研究囿于時間、資源及個人能力,僅探討定期契約工之組織公平認知與工作績效的關係,並未探討其他仲介機制,因此仍無法充分瞭解其對組織的確實影響,後續研究可逐步加入其他的仲介因素,以增加模式的解釋力。

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策略故事與策略管理

Narrative Strategy Story and Strategic Management

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摘要

策略管理從 1960 年代發展至今堪稱歷史相當悠久之顯學,而策略管理之研究是由策略選擇與策略變化所構成。然而策略學者多聚焦於企業特定期間所採取策略之探討,仍偏向靜態性之研究,本研究所述策略選擇之概念即屬於此種靜態之概念。近年來,動態性觀點在此領域中亦逐漸取代靜態觀點,策略變化概念之發展即為代表。而具有動態觀點之生命故事之概念同時也成為管理研究領域中一個重要的議題。本研究嘗試透過敘述性故事之動態觀點來探討企業在不同時期所選擇之不同策略手段間的組合,藉此描繪出企業策略變化之軌跡,並以鋼鐵產業中兩大集團企業:中鋼集團與義聯集團為個案企業,嘗試歸納出策略故事之概念及內容。

關鍵字:策略選擇、策略變化、策略故事

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we profound the perspective of Narrative Strategy Story from social science to explain Strategic Selection and Strategic Change of the firms, and we employ a Case-Oriented Comparative Method for examining how the proposed model can be analyze strategic choices and change of four Taiwanese firms. Finally, empirical and managerial implications about narrative strategy story are drawn from this research.



一、緒論

生命故事(Life Story)又可稱為故事、生活故事或是生命物語。常見於近年來社會科學中逐漸興 起的質性研究方法-敘說探究法(Narrative Inquiry)中,其除了採用故事之觀點來描述不管是社會文 化或現象,更將意義衍伸至組織管理之研究領域中(蔡敦浩, 2011)。而近幾年來在動態性觀點之 驅動下,生命故事之概念逐漸在策略管理研究領域形成新興的研究力量,不同於以往策略管理多 為靜態性之研究,生命故事觀點之帶入除了在策略管理傳統典範與思維架構中點燃新的可能性之 外,亦將策略管理之研究領域延伸至本研究所述之策略故事的概念。例如日本學者楠木建(2010) 即指出競爭策略是一種敘述性故事(Narrative Story)。加入策略故事之概念後,策略除了是指『企 業如何成長與競爭之論理或手法』(蔡展維、2005)之外,更是一種『敘述性故事(Narrative Story)』。 前者之定義代表著傳統策略管理研究對策略之看法,等同將策略視為靜止畫,在此定義下企業的 策略是企業對其未來之成長方式或對其目前所處之產業與市場之關鍵性經濟活動所做的最佳決 策。換言之,企業主在追求企業成長與企業競爭時必需從其策略清單中挑選相應之策略手段,此 一概念在本研究中我們將其稱為策略選擇(Strategic Selection)。而在後者之定義之中我們將策略 視為是動書,策略在此具有變化與故事之特質。隨著時間經過,企業管理者在不同發展階段因為 環境變化之影響(Chandler,1962; Ansoff,1965)或策略意圖之變更(Child,1972; Hamel & Prahaldad,1991)會選擇不同之策略,此則構成了企業策略變化之軌跡(蔡展維,2005; 洪世章、譚丹 琪、廖曉青,2007)。但如果只是散亂地依照當時狀況打出不同策略,那公司的策略便不具完整性, 企業也難以永續生存。策略應該是不同時間點之策略手段之組合,而此組合應該更具有意義及條 理,才能幫助企業持續成長並獲取持續性之競爭優勢。才會對企業之永續經營造成貢獻。前者之 概念在本研究中我們將隨著其稱為策略變化(Strategic Change),而具有意義之策略變化我們更將 其視為『策略故事(Narrative Story of Strategy』。

在本研究中,我們將依照蔡展維(2004;2005;2009)之研究結果,整理出四種基本策略類型以代表企業策略選擇之行動清單。(1)計畫的策略:策略必須是管理者之意圖,且是深思熟慮的結果,事前必須籌劃與制訂,而且是未來之指針或行動方針。具體來說古典之策略概念如成長策略(Chandler,1962)、多角化策略、與併購策略均屬於本學派之理論範圍。(2)創發的策略:策略是具有未來規劃與過去行動之二元性,而且是行動或決策的模式。具體來說事業部之自律性行動與社內創業均屬於此策略行動之範籌。(3)定位的策略:為了確保事業部之市場定位,強調外部環境分析與策略內容之重要性。具體來說即為 Porter(1980; 1985)所提倡之競爭策略之觀點。(4)資源的策略:策略是企業行動的基本依據,意味著經營者所採取的經營角度,策略是由組織內部往外看。具體來說核心競爭力、RBV與策略聯盟均屬於從企業資源去思考策略之具體型式。本研究將依此四大基本策略類型,採用個案導向式之比較研究方法(Case-Oriented Comparative Method)(Eisenhardt,1989;洪世章・譚丹琪・廖曉青,2007)來探討台灣具代表性之兩家多角化企業之策略選擇與策略變化,並嘗試找出各自所代表之策略故事以歸納出策略故事之概念及內容。

二、理論探討(策略的本質)

如 Mintzberg et al.(1998)所述,大部份的時間一個組織可以以其組織特性的某些穩定型態的角度來描述:在於一個可以明顯區分的時期內,組織會採取能夠配合特殊情境的某種特殊情境的某種特殊形式的結構,致使組織會從事某種特殊的行為以制定一系列特殊的策略,而這些穩定的時期,偶爾會被某些轉型的過程(急遽跳躍到另外一種形態)所打斷而其特殊之策略行為亦會隨之改變。換句話說,策略管理領域之研究應不僅限於專注於企業經營的某一時期之策略,而亦應該觀察企業長時間之內從草創期到目前為止所採行之策略有何不同。而前者之靜態性觀點本研究將其視為策略選擇,而後者之動態性概念即為策略變化及策略故事之概念。為了清楚說明本研究之理論平台,本節將分別檢討策略選擇、策略變化以及本研究所欲探究之策略故事等三個概念。

2.1 策略選擇

策略選擇就是假設企業在面對多變之外在環境時對於其資源分配與策略手段之履行有自由判斷的能力與執行之自主性(Child,1972)。換言之,管理者對於經營目的與策略型態之選擇會隨著外在環境與企業發展時期之不同而有所差異,而策略選擇之概念指的就是企業在不同且互相對立之策略取徑中選擇相應的手段並加以執行。做為策略選擇之對象本研究將依據蔡展維(2005)所述理論性架構中:計劃學派、創發學派、定位學派、資源學派之四個互相對立之策略取徑作為企業策略選擇之依據。在此為了方便導出本研究測量個案企業之主要事件內容在此將四個學派分述如下:



環境重視

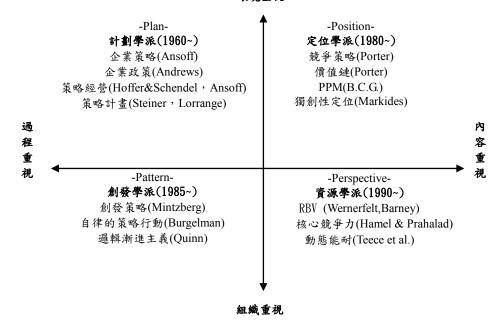


圖 1 策略管理之分析架構

資料來源:蔡展維(2005)

(1)計劃學派(The Plan Approach) (由上至下之策略)

此學派中之策略思考是『由上而下(Top-Down)』的。策略必須是管理者之意圖,且是深思熟慮 的結果,事前必須籌劃與制訂,而且是未來之指針或行動方針。具體來說古典之策略概念如成長 策略、多角化策略、與併購策略均屬於本學派之理論範圍。此外計畫學派是屬於環境重視及過程 重視之策略取徑,而且此學派是策略管理中關於策略制定模式的發展過程中最具影響力的學派, 也稱為古典學派。計畫學派是起源於 Chandler(1962)所執筆的古典名著「Strategy and Structure」, 這本名著也強烈影響到計畫學派的思維。Chandler(1962)探討 1920 年代的美國企業,包括杜邦 (DuPort)、通用汽車(General Motor;GM)及標準石油(Standard Oil)等已採取多角化策略的企業後, 得知了策略與組織結構之間的關係是屬於高度相關的。而他認為策略是「長遠的眼光,為了達成 企業的目的與目標,必須調整組織結構與資源分配」。他基於這個理由認為策略是先行於結構之 前,於是提出了第一命題,也就是「結構追隨策略(Structure follows Strategy)」。而為了配合因外 在環境的變化所擬定出來的策略所以需要相對應的組織結構。簡單來說,就是為了成功達成策略 所以必須要有合適的組織結構。Chandler(1962)在研究美國企業的經營史之後,更提出了企業成 長策略之主要內容,分別是1.量的擴大;2.地理的擴張;3.垂直整合;4.多角化策略。也就是說, Chandler 認為美國的企業在經營初期主要著重於本身銷售量的擴大,以尋求生存並站穩腳步,在 銷售量擴大之後會開始到相鄰的地理區域設置據點,進而慢慢擴展其經營範圍,等到經營範圍擴 大到一定程度之後,會嘗試進行該產業的上下游垂直整合,在進行完垂直整合之後,最後會開始 執行多角化策略。而 Ansoff 等初期的計畫學派的學者都是受到 Chandler(1962)之強烈影響,以多 角化策略和事業部組織為理論發展之大前提,除了其策略目的為成長之外更強調以策略來統制企 業之策略行為。其學說內容主要圍繞著下面2個研究課題展開。 第1,企業應如何選擇其成長 策略,換言之企業應該如何去補強其現有事業分野或發展其新興事業以追求企業之成長,也就是 有關企業公司策略之概念。 第2,與策略實施有關,事業部組織之控制的問題。也就是說總公 司或總公司之計畫部門應如何管理一系列的事業單位。前者之問題點的主要是 SWOT 分析 (Andrews, 1971)、Ansoff(1965)之經營策略與 1970 年代中一連串有關公司策略內容之研究,例如 水平整合策略與收購與合併等概念均在此學派中。而重視後者之研究即是在 1970 年代盛行一時 之策略計劃之研究與 PPM 等研究。

(2)創發學派(The Emergment Approach)

策略思考是『由下而上(Bottom-Up)』的學派。此學派學者認為策略是具有未來規劃與過去行動之二元性,而且是行動或決策的模式。具體來說事業部之自律性行動與社內創業均屬於此學派之



策略行動。此外此學派的特徵是組織重視和過程重視。也就是說企業家思考策略時是考慮組織內 部的行動,並且將焦點放在組織的策略形成過程中。其主張從「組織內部自發性的行動來創造策 略₁,也就是說從進行中的行動裡歸納出策略的研究。創發學派的代表學者是 Mintzberg,他認為 策略是對未來行動的計劃,並且要與過去的行動有一致性(類型),這就是 Mintzberg(1985)關於創 發策略的研究核心。換言之,策略是描繪出未來意圖中的行動,只是必須與過去的行動有所關聯。 Quinn(1978:1980)主要是以九家企業為研究對象,在進行完關於策略變化的實證研究之後得到的 結論是,儘管制訂計劃時高階主管們無法描述他們如何擬訂策略,但是符合基本邏輯的漸進主 義,可以把不連貫的事物拼湊起來。於是 Quinn(1978;1980)將這樣過程稱為邏輯漸進主義(logical incrementalism)。而 Mintzberg(1987)將此概念發展為著名的創發策略(emergency strategy),指的是 透過行動的實踐,終於了解那些意圖應該是最具優先性的,而它強調的是學習(Learning)的概念。 總而言之,對於 Mintzberg 而言,所謂的策略是透過組織和環境以及組織內相互作用的創發過程 所創造出來的行動類型。所以策略可以用於企業的環境變化或決定策略的決策方針,或者寧可是 企業內外部的互相作用之後形成的決策,甚至是組織學習的成果。最後,Burgelman 透過對 Intel 的長期研究,證實了其結果如同 Mintzberg 所述,在現實生活的策略之中,如果有已實現的策略 出現的話會經過兩種不同的路線。一個為誘發型策略過程,而另一個為自律型策略過程(社內創 業)。而蔡展維(2005)更將此策略定義為由下往上(Bottom-up Startegy)之策略,即是指由事業部主 導之企業策略與成為企業成長之策略關鍵之功能策略。整體而言,計畫策略和創發策略最根本的 不同在於前者專注在方向與控制上,後者則開創了策略性學習(向過去與下屬學習)這個概念。

(三)定位學派(Position Approach)(由外至內之策略)

定位學派的起源是來自波士頓顧問公司(BCG)所提出之 PPM 理論,也就是俗稱的 BCG 矩陣,此概念提到了關於資源分配及公司策略方面的問題,但對於個別事業部所採取之策略卻著墨甚少,直到 Porter(1980)將產業經濟學中 SCP 的概念導入之後才有所定論。而 Porter(1980)於 1980 年所提出之競爭策略的概念是指透過五力分析讓企業知道該採取何種一般策略,這樣的做法使得企業得以取得競爭優勢的概念,再次於學界和產業界引爆有關策略管理之話題,而 Porter(1985)於 1985 年更進一步提出價值鏈是維持競爭優勢的來源,其講求的就是價值鏈中各個功能活動之間相互配適的概念,而這樣的論述使得競爭策略幾乎與策略管理劃上等號。

(四)資源學派(Resource Approach)(由內而外之策略)

此學派與定位學派雖然在經營目的上同屬追求企業之競爭,但在競爭優識的來源卻有著內外不 同之見解,這也間接促成此兩學派之理論對立。資源學派是起源於 Penrose(1959)所著的企業成 長理論以及個體經濟學中關於地租的概念,而 Wernerfelt(1984)將 Penrose 的概念發展成著名的 Resource-Based View of the Firm,也就是俗稱的 RBV 理論。而 Rumelt(1984)則於同年提出有關資 源的隔離機制,最後 Barney(1988;1991)則結合以上兩位學者的相關研究,進而提出策略要素市 場以及 VRIO 理論。到目前為止的學者是從資源的角度去解釋企業競爭優勢的來源與維持的方 法。但隨著資源學派的持續發展,後續的學者如 Grant(1991)和 Stalk(1992)認為資源是企業能力 的起源,而能力則是競爭優勢的來源,並將企業的能力解釋為將數種不同資源組合在一起的能 力。最後,資源學派中從學習的角度去解釋的學者有 Prahalad & Hamel(1990)[26]以及 Teece(1997),他們認為企業的能力是企業競爭優勢的最終來源,而能力取得的方式則是透過學 習。他們並根據此概念提出著名的核心競爭力、動態能力以及策略聯盟等概念。總而言之,資源 學派的學者是從資源的觀點出發,認為企業競爭優勢的最大來源是資源,不論是無形或是有形的 資源都包含在內,在取得資源之後必須保護它不讓競爭對手輕易模仿,所以必須設計一套隔離機 制,這樣才能讓資源有其不可模仿、獨特、稀少和價值性存在。除此之外,如何將不同資源組合 在一起的能力,也可以成為企業競爭優勢的來源之一。然而,當企業迫切需要某些資源來補強其 核心競爭力時,也可透過購併的方式取得相關資源,而這一切都是為了讓企業的資源持續不斷的 透過學習來維持其競爭優勢。

透過以上四個學派之分類,我們可得知在策略管理之研究領域中至少存在著四種不同的策略定義,分別是計劃(Plan)、定位(Position)、觀點(Perspective)與行動的模式(Pattern)。另外上述的四個學派,依照過程重視與內容重視和組織重視與環境重視這兩個分析視點可以得知,強調過程重視與內容重視的計畫學派和創發學派屬於公司策略,而組織重視與環境重視的定位學派和資源學派則是屬於事業策略。而此分類更可清楚說明目前存在於策略管理領域中兩大理論之間的對立。屬於公司策略層級的計劃學派與創發學派代表著在公司策略之研究領域中經常被提及之計劃性重視和創發性重視之理論對立(發生於1990年代Ansoff vs. Mintzberg之論戰)。另外,屬於事業



策略層級的定位學派與資源學派兩者之間的不同,則代表著近年來引人注目的 Porter 的競爭策略和 RBV 的理論之間的對立(2000 年代發生的 Porter vs. Barney 之論戰)。

2.2 策略變化

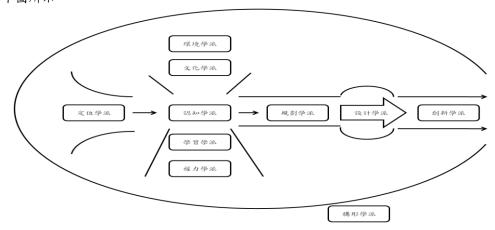
變化是無所不在且多方向的(Pettigrew,1993)。在管理的研究領域中,變化之研究其來有自也一直是一個廣被探討之議題。在組織理論之領域中首先探討變化概念的是 Lewin(1951)所提出之變化模型。Lewin 所述之組織變革模型包含解凍、變革、再凍結等三個步驟,是有計劃性的組織變革模型,用以解釋和指導如何發動、管理和穩定變革之過程。強調的是有階段性、有步驟、是偏向靜態的研究,並廣汎被應用於組織行為與組織發展之理論研究。而在組織設計理論中,受了Lewin 之影響除了 Penrose 從組織資源蓄積觀點來解釋企業成長之變化過程外,Chandler(1962)、Stopford & Wells(1973)、 Franko(1976)、Galbraith & Nathanson(1978)等學者亦從組織成長段階持續地說明組織變化之概念。相對於 Lewin(1951)及 Penrose(1962)重視變化機制之概念,Chandler等人採用了權變理論之觀點較重視組織形態間之變化並將策略視為權變因子(Contingency factor)探討策略與組織間之互動關係。

然而做為組織理論之近親之策略管理中,變化亦成為其發展之重要概念。正如 Hoskisson et al.(1999)所述, 策略管理是一門涵蓋多範圍之學科, 因此對於策略變化之研究, 學者們所採取之 理論視角或方法均有其差異性,換句話說,學者們從不同角度的探索與研究,形成了策略變化之 多樣的研究視角。其次,學者們對於「Change」(原為改變之意)一詞於概念上也有不同之見解, 改變有可能是變化亦可能是變革,甚至有學者另外提出 Innovation(創新) 、Transformation(轉型) 之概念來加以描述。在 Chandler 之概念下,策略管理原本即是以環境變化為基礎發展之理論。 所謂環境變化包括了經濟環境之變化、政治環境之變化、市場與消費者喜好之變化。當這些變化 發生時企業之策略自然會產生變化。此外組織內部之演化過程亦是造成策略變化之重要因素。早 期探討策略變化之學者即是以此兩大觀點出發,並發展出其獨特之變化機制之模型。首先 Pettigrew(1985; 1987)所提出之策略變化模型主要包含三個要素,而透過此策略變化模型,研究者 在觀察企業之策略變化時,在獲取內容上能達到縱向與橫向的水平,並能夠以時間的概念來捕捉 組織情境的關係。首先在內容 (Content)的部分,其意思是說明將發生變化、或是什麼樣的變化, 指的是一個基礎的理論或是策略的內容;而過程(Process)則是一個描述如何發生策略之變化,其 過程為何;最後情境(Context)就是解釋為什麼這些變化會發生,而情境又可以分為二個部分:1. 組織內部情境:指的是組織結構、企業文化、權力或國情;2.組織外部情境:指的是社會、經濟、 政治以及競爭的環境。他針對英國著名的化學公司皇家化學工業做出的研究除了說明此觀點外, 她更將公司的策略變化視為非單一的事件,而是一系列插曲事件的組合,包含理性與政治、效率 和權力的追求、特殊人事與極端情況的角色、機會或是環境中的種種影響力量,這也就是模型中 提到的情境的部分,在這些情況中會混合出現的某些情境,便是策略變化之過程。而 Rajagopalan & Spreitzer(1997)更進一步將策略變革依其動因之不同更細分成三種模式:理性觀點模式、學習 觀點模式與認知觀點模式。從上述既存文獻研究之整理可以發現,早期對於策略變化之研究,其 實就是一種「變化機制(Change Mechanism)」模型的概念。在社會科學中,「機制 (Mechanism)」 指的是一定機構或組織的機能,以及這個機構或組織與其機能之間的相互作用關系,也就是一個 工作系統的組織或部分之間相互作用的過程和方式,而在此,機制指的便是策略之內容或過程是 如何受到組織或環境之作用的概念。換言之,學者們往往傾向於提供一個變化的機制來闡述是什 麼原因造成策略之變化。

相對於這些早期之學者,後期之策略變化學者亦開始從策略創新、策略刷新等概念來進一步說明策略變化之重要性。但與 Chandler 等學者相同,重視形態間之變化即為提唱策略轉型(Strategic Transformation)之學者。轉型一詞主要是依據日文中「事業轉換」而來,其意思主要是指企業為了因應經營環境的變遷,而改變企業經營型態的一種方法。也就是說策略其實是會有所轉型,並非一成不變的實行下去。Mintzberg et al.(1998)在整理了策略轉形之諸研究後認為:1.不管是策略或是組織結構,其在特定的時間點下,必然會表現出一種形態。例如 Pradip Khandwalla(1970)提出的論點,組織就像是一座森林的生態循環,包括成長、保護以及建設性破壞等三種形態;Danny Miller(1970a)亦提出十種策略形成過程的原形;而 Miles & Snow(1978) 也將形態(指的是技術、組織結構和策略過程相關聯的特殊形態。)分為防衛者(defender)、探勘者(prospector)、分析者 (analyzer)、反應者(reactor)等。總而言之,形態必然會存在於世界上任何一種領域,策略、組織結構亦是如此。2.具備了形態的概念,接著才能探討轉型之定義。由於企業在不同時間點所面臨



到的經營環境有所差異,因此以不同的經營時期來說,不管是策略型態或是組織形態(Mintzberg et al.,1998 所述為策略型態)必然有所差異。也就是說,特定時期只會具備特定一種形態,但是經營環境的快速變遷,也導致了策略型態亦會有所轉變。Mintzberg et al.(1998)所要闡述的是,不同的策略型態間其過程到底是如何轉變,也就是策略過程為何。為了表示策略之形成過程,Mintzberg et al.(1998)將各個學派在策略形成過程這樣一個完整過程之內部與外圍所佔據的位置繪製成如下圖所示。



總而言之,過去是無法捕捉且記述困難的東西,但不代表它不重要(Weick, 1979)。流向與變化的管理正是管理者工作之本質所在(Burgelman,2010)。換言之,策略會受環境變化與企業演化之影響產生形態上之改變。在上節中我們說明了策略管理中策略選擇之概念,並透過說明策略管理中互相對立之四大學派解釋了企業選擇之策略手段內容,此四大學派代表著企業主追求不同目的之基本思考邏輯與策略形態之不同。例如某企業主在擁有龐大資金且市場機會眾多,他即會針對環境進行分析以找出企業重要發展方向並透過策略計劃以確保其採取之策略可獲實現,此時他的策略邏輯與企業之策略形態即屬於計劃學派,策略行動即傾向於成長策略中之諸概念。當然隨著企業環境與內部狀況之變化,企業主之策略邏輯與企業之策略形態亦會隨之變化,此為本研究中策略變化之概念。依據過去及現在之情境管理此策略變化為企業獲取競爭優勢及永續經營之重要手段。而企業為了有效創造利潤與價值,必定會在其策略行動上有其特殊之處且不同時間之策略行為間更應具有連結性。而本研究將此種不同策略行為間之連結稱為策略故事(Narrative Story of Strategy)。

2.3 策略故事

相對於策略變化之概念,本論文中敘說之策略故事中故事(Life Story)之觀點並非源起於經營管理之研究範籌。生命故事之觀點由來已久,最早出現於近年來被廣汎使用於社會研究之敘說探究方法(Narrative Inquiry)中。依 Polkinghome (1988)所述,所謂敘述探究是指研究人員可透過質性研究方法中的深度訪談、文件蒐集、資料的方式,針對管理者想法進行「抽絲剝繭」來深入探討並解釋管理者對組織變革的真正詮釋過程,其中情節的功能除了將事件串連成有意義的故事之外,情節也能將理解與事件整合成具有一貫性的故事,而另一位學者 Johansson(2004)更建議採取「訴說生命故事」 (Life Story Telling)的方式來進行個人資料採集與質問式問答,也就是只針對問題或具體事實進行資料採集,其中訴說生命故事指的是詢問企業創業至今的過程,並探討這些過程之中又存在哪些關聯。而依蔡敦浩、李慶芳(2008)所述,「敘說探究」是以故事(Life Story)的形式展現一個人的生命歷程;敘說的形式無所不在的包含了我們的文化和社會,在研究的自然現象中,提供生動的、完整的、深入的描述,來理解脈絡中的社會複雜現象。換句話說,對敘說探究之學者而言,故事即類似個案研究者之個案,它是由一連串具有相互邏輯性之不同事件所組成,每個不同事件均有其發生之背景與脈絡,而這些事件互相串連之結果即為故事之概念。近年來在動態視點與盛之影響下,此一故事之概念也開始被應用於策略管理之研究領域中。就目前之發展來看,大略有以下兩種不同取向。

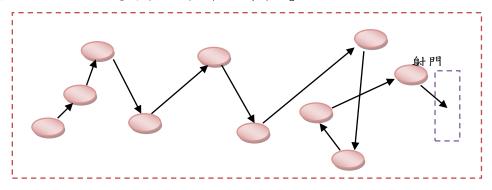
首先在早期之策略研究中,有不少學者將策略視為一種實踐過程(Practice Process)中之故事。而此種觀點在本研究主要是屬於創發學派之研究者之研究焦點,其研究焦點均在於透過個案故事及特定理論觀點以解釋實現策略(Realized Strategy)中非計劃性之形成過程。例如Pascale(1984)從 Honda 在美國成功之個案故事及學習理論來說明 Honda 策略之形成過程、而



Mintzberg(2007)亦透過加拿大國家電影公司與加拿大航空等數個個案故事來說明真實企業中之 策略形成過程。而 Burgelman(2002)更透過 Intel 之個案故事,清楚證實了其結果如同 Mintzberg 所述,在現實生活的策略之中,如果有已實現的策略出現的話會經過兩種不同的路線。一個為誘 發型策略過程,而另一個為自律型策略過程(社內創業)。而 Pettigrew(1985,1987a)亦針對英國著 名的化學公司皇家化學工業的個案故事來說明企業策略變化之過程及內容。她將公司的策略變化 視為非單一的插曲事件,而是一系列插曲事件的組合,包含理性與政治、效率和權力的追求、特 殊人事與極端情況的角色、機會或是環境中的種種影響力量,這也就是他的模型中提到的情境的 部分,在這些情況中會混合出現的某些情境,便是策略變化之過程。Pettigrew(1985,1987a)針對 皇家化學工業所做的研究,提出了以下幾點結論:1.變化的發生並不是一種持續性循序漸進的過 程。2.變化的模式適用於週期性間隔其間發生的劇烈變革時期,這些時期該公司在策略邏輯上、 組織結構上以及企業策略上都出現實質重大的變化。3.這些變化活動頻繁的每一個時期,都與世 界經濟衰退有所關聯,換句話說,皇家化學工業只有在陷於嚴重經濟困境時,才會採取重大的變 革,而另一個關鍵因素是由企業經理人所干預並採取之策略。4.革命性時期的變革與其內部領導 人更改內部權力有所關聯。總而言之,依 Pettigrew(1985,1987a)之研究表示,策略變化事實上是 掺雜於高階決策制定者的核心信念之調適,隨之而來在組織結構、制度以及獎勵措施上,進行變 化的一種錯綜複雜的混合狀態。

綜上所述,我們可清楚得知早期之學者雖然均嘗試透過個案研究描述故事之手法來解釋策略之 形成過程或變化之過程,但這些研究仍較偏重以故事來詮釋特定理論之內容,並非探討企業長時 間之策略變化對企業競爭優勢之影響。

相對於偏重策略之實踐觀點之之研究,第二種研究取徑是將策略視為一種敘說(Strategy as a type of 非 narrative)(蔡敦浩,2011)。此種觀點認為有效的策略除了要滿足內外之需求外,更需要 具有邏輯性與說服力以有效推動策略,因此也要將策略視為一種敘說性故事。Barry&Elmes(1997) 就認為從敘說的角度看來,策略需要其可信度與新奇性。因為要有可信度,企業之策略必需要講 究其情節之內容,情節之次序安排與情節所構成之策略故事之可讀性。換句話說,策略並非只是 對於既存策略手段之策略選擇之結果,而應該是一個可供企業之現場部門解讀或公關部門可以清 楚宣導之敘述性故事。此外,楠木建(2010)更將此種概念延伸運用至競爭策略之研究領域中,首 先他將策略定義為短話長說之故事(短い話を長くするストーリー)。他認為現今之策略管理研 究,例如定位學派與資源學派之學說較傾向實證主義與靜態之概念,換句話說均屬於長話短說之 研究方法。在此概念下策略僅是某一時間點策略選擇之結果,學者企業之策略行為應屬於短話長 說。換句話說,企業之策略應是由不同行為所構築而成之敘述性故事。關於敘述性故事之概念我 們以足球比賽為例做了以下清楚之說明。圖 3.1 為我們在體育類之足球報導中常見之進球示意 圖。如果從策略選擇之概念來看,策略管理存在著成長與競爭兩大目的,而為了達成目的企業必 需要在互相矛盾且對立之策略行動中選擇相應且有效之經營手段。在此所敘說之達成目的相對於 足球比賽中『得點』之概念,而從四個不同且互相對立之策略學派中選擇關鍵有效之手段即為『射 門』之概念。在足球比賽中當然得點較多的隊伍會得到勝利這是在既存之策略研究中思考企業策 略之基本概念。然而如果將策略視為敘述性故事的話,策略便不只是單指射門那一剎那,而是包 括以球門為目標不停的進行之各式各樣的『傳球』之概念。換句話說,敘述性故事觀點下之傳球 是指企業在不同時空背景下選擇不同的策略手段,而這些不同的策略手段之有意義的組合,也就 是足球比賽中不同傳球以至於射門之一連串『連結』。依楠木健(2010)所述,此種策略手段間之 連結即為故事,它是競爭策略理論中,產業的構造、定位與組織能力之外之第四個競爭優勢之來 源,因此他將此一概念稱為『做為故事之競爭策略』。





在本研究中我们更將此概念延伸之策略變化之研究中。在前一節中我們說明了策略管理中互相對立之四大學派,此四大學派代表著企業主追求不同目的之基本思考邏輯之不同。例如某企業主在擁有龐大資金且市場機會眾多,他即會針對環境進行分析以找出企業重要發展方向並透過策略計劃以確保其採取之策略可獲實現,此時他的策略邏輯即屬於計劃學派,策略行動即倾向於成長策略中之諸概念。當然如同 Pettigrew(1985,1987a)所述,隨著企業環境與內部狀況之變化,企業主之策略邏輯亦會隨之變化,企業之策略行動亦會發生變化。換句話說,不同時空背景下會形成不同的策略選擇,而這些策略選擇會構成企業特有的策略變化,此為本研究中策略變化之概念。而企業為了有效創造利潤與價值,必定會在其策略行動上有其特殊之處且不同時間之策略行為間更應具有連結性。而本研究將此種不同策略行為間之連結稱為策略故事(Narrative Story of Strategy),不同的策略選擇構成策略變化,而具有條理與意義且可供敘說的策略變化即為本研究中之策略故事之定義。

總而言之,如果策略選擇代表策略之靜態面,那策略變化即為動態之層面,嘗試從敘述性故事之動態觀點來檢討企業策略之本質為本研究之最大出發點。

三、研究設計

本研究並非否定遵循一般法則(Covering Law)並以統計學與自然科學為基礎之正統派策略管理研究,而是嘗試從敘述性故事觀點來解釋策略本質中較無法以數字且較傾向藝術之整合(Thesis)之層面。此外本研究之研究主題並非探討策略行動與經營績效間之關係,而是探討不同時間點之企業策略選擇與策略變化之軌跡以了解企業如何透過策略來發展其事業版圖進而勾勒出其特定之策略故事。因此我們將以鋼鐵產業中之中鋼、義聯等兩家企業為實證對象,針對其策略選擇與策略變化之內容以時間性系列事件為基礎進行調查與分析,並依實證結果構築其策略故事。本研究之研究設計主要分為以下四階段進行。首先我們先以四個完整之策略學派中之理論概念推導事件以進行不同個案之策略模式之階段式分析,事件推導表如表 3.1。

加以整合
台

表 3.1 策略學派事件表

第二階段中我們將針對台灣企業策略變化較顯著與業績較理想之四家多角化企業進行次級與 初級資料的蒐集與分析並作成個案企業歷史年表。初級資料方面主要訪談企業之資深高階經理人



與低階之產品經理以了解企業之發展歷史與全面策略運用。主要訪談對象為研究者之碩士在職專班學生及人際關係介紹。而次級資料來源主要係根據天下雜誌、商業週刊、企業相關著作(如中鋼推手:趙耀東先生口述歷史,2001)]、工商時報、企業官方網站、「公開資訊觀測站」等次級資料之蒐集,藉此整理出個案企業之重大企業事件,再依 Yin(1984)所描述之時間序列分析(Analysis of Time Series)來加以先後排序,歸納出企業事件年表。接下來第三階段我們將個案企業的歷史年表與策略事件兩者加以結合以描繪出個案企業的策略事件之時間序列,並藉此描繪出個案企業的策略變化之軌跡。而在第三階段我們將針過對各學派中之事件進行進一步之分類與計算以找出各學派中較顯著出現之策略事件,藉此觀察企業於不同時期之策略變化及策略手段演變歷程,是否具有前後連貫的意義,並將這些事件所代表之策略理論串連起來以勾劃出該公司之策略故事。最後在第四階段,我們將針對不同個案進行比較分析並且找出其中之差異性與共通性以歸納出研究發現及策略故事之概念及內容。

在研究對象方面,本研究挑選鋼鐵產業中之中鋼集團與義聯集團為目標個案之原因,主要是基於下列幾點:1.鋼鐵產業為工業發展之火車頭,更是台灣經濟起步之關鍵性產業,而中鋼集團與義聯集團更為鋼鐵產業中 NO.1 與 NO.2 之企業集團,其差異性與共同性值得本研究探討。2. 中鋼集團與義聯集團之歷史發展與集團規模均有一定程度以上,適合透過長時間來觀察其策略選擇、策略變化以及策略故事之意涵。3.國營企業與民營企業在其策略選擇、策略變化以及策略故事之概念中是否存在著差異性與共通性,亦值得本研究深入探討。

肆、個案分析與討論

根據表 1 之策略學派事件分類,本研究將針對個案企業進行分析,並將個案企業之重大策略事件依其事件內涵予以分類至所屬策略手段。接著按照不同的劃分時期來觀察策略事件與策略手段之頻率,並藉此繪製出策略故事圖。



4.1 個案一:中鋼集團策略事件與策略手段之頻率分析

表 4.1 即為中鋼集團之實證分析結果。

	表 4.1 中鋼之策略手段頻率表									
	策略年代									
	hite is a son	1970	~1977		78~1987		8~1999	2000	~2011	
	策略手段		等級	策 野 野 目	等級	策 手 數 目	等級	策略手 段數目	等級	
	市場滲透 市場開發	2/4	H(50%)	2/5	M(40%)	24/77	M(31%)	63/129	M(49%)	
計劃學派	垂直整合	0/4	0%(N)	1/5	L(20%)	6/77	L(8%)	10/129	L(8%)	
劃與	相關事業多角化	0/4	0%(N)	1/5	L(20%)	2/77	L(3%)	0/129	0%(N)	
子派	非相關事業多角化	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	5/77	L(7%)	2/129	L(1%)	
,,,,	併購	0/4	0%(N)	1/5	L(20%)	35/77	M(45%)	45/129	M(35%)	
	合資	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%N	3/129	L(2%)	
	合計	2/4	H(50%)	5/5	H(100%)	72/77	H(94%)	123/129	H(95%)	
定	低成本	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	4/77	L(5%)	1/129	L(1%)	
位	差異化	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%N	0/129	0%(N)	
位學派	合計	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	4/77	L(5%)	1/129	L(1%)	
	自律性的策略行動	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	1/77	L(1%)	1/129	L(1%)	
發	功能創新	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%(N)	0/129	0%(N)	
創發學派	合計	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	1/77	L(1%)	1/129	L(1%)	
	開發獨特資源	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%(N)	1/129	L(1%)	
資源學	核心競爭力	0/4	0%(N)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%(N)	0/129	0%(N)	
學	策略聯盟	2/4	H(50%)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%(N)	3/129	L(2%)	
派	合計	2/4	H(50%)	0/5	0%(N)	0/77	0%(N)	4/129	L(3%)	



依上表分析其策略手段出現頻率後,再依其歷史沿革將其策略發展繪製成策略故事如圖 4.1 所示。

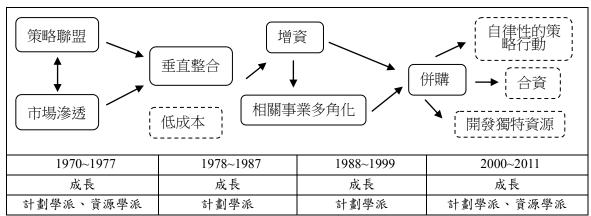


圖 4.1 中鋼集團之策略故事

如上圖 4.1 所示,中鋼於 1970 年代之初,鑒於種種困難因素(鋼鐵產品技術層面複雜、原料取得亦有難度、國內資金又不易籌措等),便決議尋求國外投資夥伴。之後便於高雄設立工地辦事處,將建廠工程分為四階段並逐一動工。換句話說,中鋼此時期在本身內部能力尚未完整下,以追求成長為其策略目的。而由於大鋼廠第一、二階段建廠工程均已竣工,第三階段擴建工程亦緊接在後,中鋼也隨之邁入營運擴建期,走向生產階段。在接到日本訂單後國內下游業者亦認同中鋼品質,轉而向中鋼採購鋼料。為輔導發展下游工業,並擴展鋼板在國內的用途,及配合擴建工程鋼架之需要,中鋼設立中國鋼鐵結構股份有限公司協助下游工業發展。換句話說,中鋼此時期仍然以成長為其策略目的,不斷擴建工廠以降低成本。不斷擴張其經營規模,加上四階段的擴廠工程,促使中鋼需要大量的資金運用,因此在事業成長期時便不斷透過增資來從事擴廠或是研究發展之工作,以鋼鐵本業為核心,在轉型民營化後朝市場、生產、能源、汙染防治四個方向發展關聯性的新事業,積極擴大產業規模。換句話說,中鋼透過優勢的本業經營,繼續朝成長之策略目的前進。經營規模不斷擴大,中鋼隨之進入集團化時期,此時期除了在鋼鐵本業持續發展外,也能開發新的事業領域,中鋼集團版圖儼然成形。而此時期於鋼鐵本業的投資上,中鋼以參與新公司或購併既有事業為主要方式,藉此改善企業間經營缺乏效能的現象,減少彼此過度競爭而無利可圖的情形。



4.2 個案二:義聯集團策略事件與策略手段之頻率分析 表 4.2 即為義聯集團之實證分析結果。

表 4.2 義聯之策略手段頻率表										
		策略年代								
	the second	1975	5~1982		3~1989		~2001	2002	~2011	
	策略手段		等級	策 手 數 目	等級	策 野 野 目	等級	策略手 段數目	等級	
	市場滲透 市場開發	0/3	0%(N)	3/9	33%(M)	19/37	52%(H)	35/200	18%(L)	
計	垂直整合	0/3	0%(N)	3/9	33%(M)	2/37	6%(L)	2/200	1%(L)	
劃學派	相關事業多角化	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	0/200	0%(N)	
學	非相關事業多角化	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	2/37	6%(L)	4/200	2%(L)	
W.	併購	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	4/37	11%(L)	19/200	10%(L)	
	合資	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	0/200	0%(N)	
	合計	0/3	0%(N))	6/9	67%(H)	27/37	73%(H)	60/200	30%(M)	
定	低成本	3/3	100%(H)	3/9	33%(M)	8/37	22%(L)	22/200	11%(L)	
位 學	差異化	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	1/37	3%(L)	16/200	8%(L)	
派	合計	0/3	0%(N)	3/9	33%(M)	9/37	24%(L)	38/200	19%(L)	
創發學	自律性的策略行動	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	1/37	3%(L)	26/200	13%(L)	
發與	功能創新	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	0/200	0%(N)	
字派	合計	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	26/200	13%(L)	
	開發獨特資源	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	29/200	15%(L)	
資源學	核心競爭力	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	37/200	19%(L)	
學	策略聯盟	0/3	0%(N))	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	4/200	2%(L)	
派	合計	0/3	0%(N)	0/9	0%(N)	0/37	0%(N)	70/200	36%(M)	

根據上表所示,義聯集團在特定經營時期會採取特定之策略學派,接著本研究探討其策略學派間 所實施之策略手段演變歷程,藉此觀察企業於不同時期之策略變化,是否具有前後連貫的意義,並 將其繪製成策略故事圖,如下圖所示:

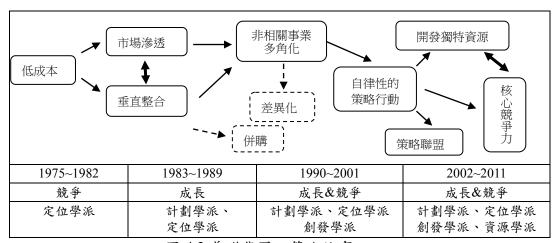


圖 4.2 義聯集團之策略故事



根據上圖可以發現,早期由於中鋼大鋼廠之興建,義聯等國內業者在原料的限制下只能從其 下游做起。直到 1978 年,普通鋼條狀類鋼品在國內的生產量已超越消費量,縱使國內需求仍持 續成長,但民間業者所面臨的市場壓力也逐漸增大,普通鋼市場的飽和讓義聯決定進攻其他產 品,以不銹鋼產品為首要目標,並於同年成立燁興企業股份有限公司,至此可觀察出此時期義聯 集團主要是以定位學派為主。而 1983 年政府重新開放有關新設或擴充煉鋼設施的投資申請,義 聯便開始積極設廠,先後成立了燁隆企業股份有限公司,相繼擴充設備包括燁隆高雄廠、燁隆大 發一廠等。1985 年成立之高雄工學院(後更名為義守大學),為林義守先生針對上、下游垂直整合 之第一步,其初期成立之宗旨乃是為了提供義聯充沛的人才運用使然。後來於 1988 年更成立了 燁聯鋼鐵股份有限公司,並蓋了東南亞最大之一貫化不銹鋼廠,正式跨足不銹鋼上游,為垂直整 合的第二步。不僅如此,此時期由於鋼鐵產業發展漸漸從內銷轉為出口,因此下游的銷售通路便 成為林義守先生的另一個目標,其同年又成立了燁茂實業股份有限公司來從事鋼品之進出口貿易 與內銷相關事務,並於隔年成立聯統鋼鐵股份有限公司(後更名為聯綱重工股份有限公司),主要 從事各式鋼品加工買賣、各式鋼結構製造安裝及各式重型機械製造安裝為主。縱使義聯鋼鐵本業 規模不斷擴大,然其最大競爭對手乃是國內最具競爭實力的中鋼集團,為避免僧多粥少,義聯決 議朝向其他非關聯性的產業作一發展。1990 年代後,義大開發股份有限公司與山海觀建設股份 有限公司(後更名為泛喬股份有限公司)相繼成立,前者以休閒、娛樂、購物、餐飲及飯店等商業 地產開發經營為主,而後者主要以不動產投資開發、設計規劃、興建與租售為其業務範圍。最後 甚至跨足高科技產業與醫療產業,成立聯聖科技與義大醫院。綜合上述,義聯集團除了經營鋼鐵 本業外,教育事業、商業地產開發、高科技產業及醫療產業皆有其足跡,而各產業的經營上間較 不受鋼鐵本業的約束,彼此能獨立採取必要之策略手段亦能共同合作開發獨特資源或是創造核心 競爭力。最重要的是,其從鋼鐵本業發展至今的產業版圖,並非毫無邏輯可言,事實上是緊密地 結合在一起並且按照其經營者的思維一步一步推動。

伍、結論

依照企業所處之內外環境選擇適合的策略手段是策略研究之一貫主張,而在加入策略故事之觀點後企業更需思考前後策略手段之關聯性。本研究根據蔡展維(2005)所述之策略管理四個學派推演出策略學派事件分類表,並將其與次級資料所整理出的個案企業事件年表作一對照分析,藉此觀察出中鋼、台塑、義聯、遠雄四家個案企業從成立至今,在不同時間點所採取之不同策略選擇內容與策略變化之軌跡,並描繪出其策略故事。透過實證分析,本研究可歸納出以下 2 項重要結論:

第一,策略選擇指的是企業於特定經營時期中,從互相對立之策略學派間採取相對應之策略選擇,以達成企業之成長或競爭之目的,透過實證分析本研究可以歸納以下兩點發現:首先,如圖5-1 所示,中鋼集團與台塑集團兩家個案企業所執行之策略選擇其重心皆偏向計劃學派,換句話說,此二家企業之策略選擇趨向於保守,以計劃學派為其主軸逐次發揮來達成企業成長之目的;反觀義聯集團與遠雄集團,其策略選擇主要考慮之因素為競爭者之壓力。換句話說義聯集團初期是以定位學派為主,藉由不銹鋼產品起家來避免與中鋼正面衝突;而遠雄集團則嘗試採取新的定位:廠辦大樓之興建,來進入一個全新的市場領域。直到第三時期,義聯集團創發學派之概念逐



漸出現,事業部自行創業以及相繼引進新技術為此階段之重心,遠雄集團則是透過以量制價、低成本的方式進行造鎮計劃。最後第四時期,義聯集團與遠雄集團在長時間多角化企業的成長過程中,積累了相當豐富之資源,並在此時藉由事業部間的整合來達成企業競爭之目的。綜上所述,此二家個案企業之策略選擇再因應環境變化之挑戰時採取較為開放之策略彈性。

時期	第一時期	第二時期	第三時期	第四時期
企業				
中鋼	計劃	計劃	計劃	計劃+資源
義聯	定位	計劃+定位	計劃+定位+創發	計劃+定位+
				創發+資源

根據以上策略變化分析,我們發現策略變化中存在著一次性策略變化(First Change)與二次性策略變化(Secondary Change)兩種不同之概念。中鋼集團為國內大鋼廠之先驅,而鋼鐵本來就是一個高資本密集的產業,加上其受到政府的約束力量較為強大,因此其策略變化較為單調,主要以成長為其主要策略目的,也就是計劃學派不斷地延伸;而其策略變化之內容均集中在成長策略間之變化,此為一次性策略變化之概念。而義聯集團之策略變化亦較為豐富,涵蓋了計劃、定位與資源之等不同策略取徑,此為二次性策略變化之概念。

第二、策略故事(Narrative Story of Strategy)指的是具有一定涵理(意涵與條理)與意義之策略 選擇,其彼此於型態轉換間存在著一定的連結性與互動性之策略變化概念。關於策略故事之概念 我們可以舉在體育類之足球報導中常見之足球進球來說明。如果從策略選擇之概念來看,策略管 理存在著成長與競爭兩大目的,而為了達成目的企業必需要在互相矛盾且對立之策略行動中選擇 相應且有效之經營手段。在此所敘說之達成目的相對於足球比賽中『得點』之概念,而從四個不 同且互相對立之策略學派中選擇關鍵有效之手段即為『射門』之概念。在足球比賽中當然得點較 多的隊伍會得到勝利這是在既存之策略研究中思考企業策略之基本概念。然而如果將策略視為敘 述性故事的話,策略便不只是單指射門那一剎那,而是包括以球門為目標不停的進行之各式各樣 的『傳球』之概念。換句話說,敘述性故事觀點下之傳球是指企業在不同時空背景下選擇不同的 策略手段,而這些不同的策略手段之有意義的組合,也就是足球比審中不同傳球以至於射門之一 連串『連結』,此種策略手段間之連結即為策略故事。總而言之在策略故事中,「涵理」是相當重 要的。而策略的本質是「除了做出差異性外,更重要的是必須將其連結起來」。換句話說,企業 為了實現長遠的利益,提出與競爭對手有所不同之策略手段,並透過這些手段的相互作用以做一 個有意義的連結或者相互作用。而在此一概念下,策略即具有差異性及連結之兩種特質。透過實 證分析,本研究將兩家個案企業「傳球」與「射門」之概念分別論述如下:對於中鋼集團來說, 「傳球」指的是從策略聯盟→市場滲透→垂直整合→增資→相關事業多角化→併購之連結過程, 而「射門」則指的是相關事業多角化,換句話說其代表的意思是中鋼集團最為重要且關鍵之策略 手段,前面的傳球都是為了這個策略手段而不斷地相互連結進而導致其產生;而義聯集團之傳球 概念指的是從低成本→市場滲透→垂直整合→非相關事業多角化→自律性的策略行動→開發獨 特資源→核心競爭力之一連串連結過程,而其關鍵之策略手段則為非相關事業多角化,也就是射 門之概念。換句話說鋼鐵產業之僧多粥少的競爭環境,促使了非相關事業多角化之誕生,也讓義 聯集團之規模擴張到前所未見的經營版圖。

總而言之,環境是快速變化且充滿不確定性的,對於國營與民營企業來說,其所採取的策略



手段也各有其差異性。國營企業在面對環境時,受到政府之影響依然固守計劃學派之策略,其策略故事屬於一次性變化之策略故事;而民營企業其經營彈性較高,於是便可針對不同環境來採取相對應之策略手段,其策略故事則屬於二次性變化之策略故事。雖然企業採取之策略不盡相同,但其仍然在產業中屹立不搖,也就是說重要的是其不同時間點所採取之策略手段是否具有前後邏輯性,描述此一前後邏輯性之概念即為策略故事之概念。企業除了依照企業所處之內外環境選擇適合的策略手段之外,更需找出『隱藏在特殊文脈中之特殊解』之策略本質以創構其獨特之策略故事。

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以廠商與消費者觀點探討有機農業供應與需求缺口

Exploring the Gap between Supply and Demand of Organic Agriculture Industry based on Firms' and Consumers' Perspective

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摘要

農業發展為消費者日常生活之基石,更身兼生產、生活、生態等功能,對於台灣社會的發展與人文素養的提升具有重要性,然而台灣農業產值佔全國 GDP 的比例(1.6%)卻逐年下降。因此,針對不同食品類型進行嚴謹消費者行為研究,或是協助廠商整合並建構一套鎮密的市場區隔機制,以深入瞭解消費者需求,可做為發展農業生產或行銷策略之基石。本研究以深度訪談法同時調查 12 家廠商以及 20 位購買有機食品之消費者。訪談成果以內容分析法進行檢測,結果發現:消費者所需要的有機食品網站功能與擔憂事項,其實與網站業者所提供的有所差異。對於消費者而言,他們所需要的是清楚的知識與資訊,例如對有機食品的辨視知識、交易雙方的保障等資訊。然而,網站業者大多(60%)將網站定位為公司活動資訊提供站、過於繁雜無系統的有機資訊,或是不對等的交易模式(如偏向有利公司的付款機制),因此兩方並未在此形成完整的互動模式。

關鍵字:有機農業、廠商觀點、消費者觀點、缺口分析

ABSTRACT

The development of agriculture was the basis of consumer's daily life; it also includes the functions of production, daily life, and ecology. Hence, agriculture industry was important element to enhance the quality of Taiwan's sociality and humanity. However, the GDP ratio of agriculture industry was decrease every year. Therefore, doing precise consumer behavior research with different food type or helping business managers to create a deliberate market segmentation mechanism could understand consumer's need deeply. These results could be the foundation to create appropriate production or marketing strategies for agriculture industry. This study adopts interview method to examine twelve firms and twenty consumers simultaneously. The interview results indicated that consumers need clearly knowledge and information, such as the identify knowledge for organic food and the basis information between firms and consumers. However, organic food website firms (about 60%) only provide marketing activities information, complexity organic food information, or unfair exchange model (e.g., unfair payment mechanism) in their website. Therefore, entrepreneur and consumer do not create comprehensive interactive model.

Keywords: Organic Agriculture, Firm's Perspective, Consumer's Perspective, Gap Analysis.

一、緒論

農業發展為消費者日常生活之基石,更身兼生產、生活、生態等功能,對於台灣社會的發展與人文素養的提升具有重要性,然而台灣農業產值佔全國 GDP 的比例(1.6%)卻逐年下降(例如其他服務業 36.7%)(農糧署,2005)。農委會為此不斷、積極協助台灣農業進行轉型、發展優質農業以提升市場競爭力,並且將農業傳統生產模式轉型為強調品質、品牌包裝與精緻多樣的市場導向生產模式,例如推動國產優良農產品品牌計劃(如吉園圃蔬果)。

另一方面,農委會為發展優質農業,以追求精緻農業的模式,在近年推動有機農業倍增計劃,試圖以增加產量(值)的方式,增加農民的收入與改善環境。針對此類現象,學者認為:針對不同食品(例如生鮮食品、有機食品、冷凍/冷藏農產品)類型進行嚴謹消費者行為研究(Kesić, Piri Rajh, and Helena(2008)已深入瞭解消費者需求,可做為發展農業生產或行銷策略之基石。但是,對於



大多數(如中小型企業)食品公司而言,聚焦在消費者需求並且區隔、運用顧客類型,以調查消費者在各類食品的消費型態或行為,是極為少見的(Traill and Grunert, 1997; Ryan et al., 2004)。有鑑於此,本研究主張:「瞭解消費者在食品需求的區隔類型與消費行為,是食品業者發展農產品行銷策略,以及建立競爭優勢的重要基礎」,因而以消費者觀點探討其對於有機農產品的需求與消費行為。此外,整合並建構一套鎮密的市場區隔機制(如 Ryan, Cowan, McCarthy, and Sullivan, 2004),乃是提升公司的競爭優勢,以及更適當地瞭解目標市場的核心。幫助管理者在產品發展流程中,更貼近目標市場的需求(Kotler and Keller, 2006),深入了解目標區隔市場的態度與動機以增加創造與傳遞客製化產品或服務的可能性。因此,本研究亦以廠商觀點探討其對於有機農業的概念與供需現況的觀察結果。

綜上所述,本研究認為有機食品業者面臨競爭激烈的企業環境,需要針對顧客需求的市場需求,同時結合有機廠商對於有機產業現況的觀察結果,能夠有效深入瞭解消費者購買有機食品的消費行為,來評估及發展適切之行銷策略。

二、研究方法

本研究之研究方法可分成三個部份:第一,抽樣設計部份,可分為企業抽樣與消費者抽樣設計。第二,訪談題項部份:由過去研究成果(如曾玉惠,2010;陳天福,2010)、報章雜誌等,做為深度訪談調查法的問卷題目基礎,配合本研究目的發展適當之問項(如附件一),問卷內容以半結構式題項為主,在訪談過程依據訪談者的說明,添加新的問項。同時,內容分析法可做為分析訪談結果的基礎,本研究由3位研究人員以語幹分析法進行編碼,形成分析成果。

(一)抽樣設計

企業抽樣設計部份,係由研究助理聯繫與使用有機電子商城(http://eshop.organic.org.tw/supergood/front/bin/home.phtml)、Google 搜尋器挑選,並且以使用者流量為標準進行廠商抽樣,最後選擇:(1)使用者流量最高的廠商(使用者人數範圍為 30-120 萬人)、(2)有機電子商城推薦之有機農場,總計訪談 12 家廠商³⁴。其中,廠商可粗步區分為:(1)4 家農場、(2)7 家有機食品通路商、(3)1 家有機市集,年營業額從 1 百多萬元至 1.8 億元。同時,企業推動有機食品網站年資從 1-8 年,訪談對象則以部門經理人(例如電子商務部門總經理)或是農場負責人為主。本研究依據受訪時間,將企業受訪者編碼為 A1~A12。消費者抽樣設計部份,係由研究助理於 2011 年 5 月在有機市集中以立意非隨機抽樣方式挑選,總計 20 名消費者,並編碼為 B1~B20。受測者以女性居多(80%)、年齡為 30-49 歲(60%)、最常購買蔬果(90%)、選購市集內有機食品或至大型通路商購買(85%),詳細資料如表 1。

³⁴廠商名單,包含:苗栗縣2家有機農場(A1,A2)、台中2家通路商總部(A3,A4)與1家市集(A5)、 桃園1家通路商物流中心(A6)、台北1家有機農場(A7)與3家通路商總部(A8,A9,A12)、花蓮1 家通路商總部(A10)、澎湖1家有機農場(A11)。



(二) 訪談問題發展

訪談問題採用半結構式題項(附件一)。發展基礎來自於:(1)研究者搜集報章雜誌資訊、(2)過去文獻資料、(3)訪談者提供。因此,發展成 10 項問題,並且在訪談過程中,依據訪談者的說明,新增部份問題,以釐清有機發展之概念及執行過程遭遇之問題。

	企業調查對象			消費者調查對象	
性別	N	%	性別	N	%
男	8		男	4	20%
女	4		女	16	80%
年龄			年龄		
30-39 歲	3		30-39 歲	6	30%
40-49 歲	4		40-49 歲	6	30%
50-59 歲	5		50-59 歲	5	25%
			60 歲以上	3	15%
職務			學歷		
總經理	3		國中小	1	5%
經理	2		高中職	6	30%
企業負責人	7		大學	6	30%
			研究所	7	35%
企業類別			職業		
有機農場	4		服務業	4	20%
通路商	7		醫療業	1	5%
市集	1		軍公教	6	30%
			家管/退休	5	25%
			自由業	2	10%

表 1 調查對象資料整理表

三、分析結果

本研究以內容分析法作為分析工具,並且將訪談內容依據語幹分析法配合轉譯及百分比法說明。透過內容分析法系統地分析報章雜誌、文件、廣告、或是訪談(Sayre, 1992),或對於訪談內容的語句屬性,藉由系統化及客觀化標準加以描述(Liu, and Chen, 2005; Macias, and Lewis, 2004; Srnka, and Koeszegi, 2007: p.35),可進一步確認訪談結果之正確性與一致性。另外,本研究方法透過不同方法(文獻回顧與訪談)、來源(不同訪談對象)、分析者 (3 位分析人員),與理論-觀點 (按照內容分析、信度檢測等多種觀點取向詮釋資料)(Patton, 1990)進行三角測量。最後,以 Holsti (1969)的相互同意度公式35,以及 Wimmer and Dominick(2003)的信度公式36進行檢定,如表 2 所示可知 3 位研究人員的相互同意度達.83、信度值達.93,故符合檢定標準,適合繼續進行分析結果之說明。

	秋 1 MA CIT 工门心及							
	編碼者1	編碼者 2	編碼者3					
編碼者 2	0.85							
編碼者3	0.83	0.81						

表 2 編碼者之相互同意度

首先,多數受訪者(90%)均認為有機食品的推動理念,在於處理:(1)土地環境的利用問題、(2)個人/消費者健康問題、(3)協助/輔導農友有銷售管道、(4)生活品質的提升,以及(5)為家人

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³⁵ 相互同意度=(2×2 位分析者共同同意次數)/(A 分析者同意次數+B 分析者同意次數)

³⁶ 信度=(N×平均相互同意度)/{1+[(N-1)×平均相互同意度]}



(朋友)準備食品等重要議題。同時,土地環境的問題,例如環境保護、資源運用等,是多數受訪者最擔憂與強調的問題;其次則是認為有機食品能夠解決身體健康上的問題。舉例而言,A3受訪者認為有機食品主要是回歸到最原始的生活飲食習慣,以降低身體的負擔。

其實有機食品就是一個,想用一個最原始、最簡單的一個生活飲食的方式,然後希望說,人開始 去傳達一個,所謂的有機的生活態度開始的,那這個有機生活態度,或是希望人類吃這些東西的 時候,吃這些食品近來的時候,它是一個對身體無負擔的。

然而,雖然多數企業受訪者認同健康與環境的重要性,在其中卻有些許差別。舉例而言,A10受訪者認為有機農業的發展可以解決環境染污(碳排放)與使用的問題,A2 則認為有機農業帶動人們對土地使用的看法。因此本研究認為有機食品的推行可以強調上述的論點。但是,更為重要的是回歸到最重要的議題—土地利用與規劃。A10受訪者指出:

吃是最大的力量。你講有機食品,其實原點就是城鄉規劃,因為透過空間的規劃要對城鄉土地跟人的生活產生改變,是不容易、更是本末倒置的,空間是因為活動需要然後產生空間需要。所以,吃決定了環境,大部份的環境破壞不是來自於空,工業汙染。是來自於集體的噴灑,跟化學藥物的施用,所以因為越多人吃,那那個最大的汙染源就會被改變,所以我們最大汙染源不在工業污染,工業污染產生的碳大概只有15%吧,農業產生的大概有50~60%,所以最大的碳排放不在工業,是在農業方式,農業方式錯了。

購買有機食品的顧客類型與原因,可分成:(1)具養生概念的消費族群、(2)有經濟自主權、小家庭且生活/工作具壓力者、(3)知識分子、(4)軍公教人員、(5)年長者(40歲以上者)、(6)病人,或醫師建議其調整飲食習慣者。另外,A3受訪者指出其消費族群較為特別,大多購買其有機食品的消費者(台中市區)以30-40歲的年輕有經濟能力族群為主;A12受測者則指出其消費族群(台北市)為20-50歲之女性族群,較具有養生概念並樂於分享與他人。本研究認為,企業認為消費者的區隔其實並不明確,僅有少數企業針對消費者進行實際的調查(例A3、A6),其餘僅是針對經理人印象加以區分。因此,進行更精確的消費者區隔與行為調查有其必要性。

顧客受訪者中,每日煮食者約 65%(13 人),並認為透過網路購買的原因則是:(1)方便、(2)價格可接受、(3)品項多;但是擔憂網路購買的原因:(1)無法看見成品、(2)品質沒有保證、(3)沒有保障、(4)感覺網路購物常有糾紛。由此可知,有機食品透過網路購買的優點與缺點,與過去線上購物常見的調查結果類似(如 Yahoo!Kimo 進行的網路購物調查),未來可參考國內線上購物的演變方式進行消費者教育與溝通。舉例而言,B19 與 B20 認為:

擔心上網購買,不知道是真是假或從哪裡來?因為如果到市集的話,可以實地用眼睛看,市場現場的人員也有專業性,像我們來現場的話能看見、會問比較清楚,也就是可以看到、聽到、感覺的。

此外,有機食品市場的機會與問題,企業受測者認為機會可分為:(1)消費者近年逐漸重視環保與健康議題、(2)宅配系統提供了推展有機食品配送的通路、(3)政府單位(如農委會)大力推廣、(4)大型企業導入有機市場;問題則是:(1)消費者對有機食品/市場的知識不足、(2)商品價格偏高、(3)市場競爭,造成劣幣(假有機)驅逐良幣(真有機)、(4)小農眾多造成單打獨門,缺乏門當戶對的配合通路。本研究認為,門當戶對的配合通路,是小農最需要的銷售管道,例如 A10 受訪者提到,他們是一種小型的社會企業通路,他們既關心消費者,也關心生產者(小農),才能提供小農一條生路,以及符合消費者期待的有機食品:

現在是一種社會企業,既是產銷(產銷合作社),又是消費合作社,它的功能是這兩個的總合。它關心這一群生產人的銷售,它的生活,他也關心這一群人的食物的健康,他們的生活,這個是未來。更為重要的是,食物在長大,我們跟食物的關係、種的人你都要非常關切,因為你不能離生產者太遠、離接受者太近。當你不去了解食物的時候,這會對我們非常困擾,因為我們不能確定食物的品質,能不能符合消費者的需求。

A11 受訪者則認為社區與農友間的情誼、交易機制的建立,為推動有機農業的模式,並且可成為世界推動有機機制的先驅:

我一個小農戶可以先種菜阿,我沒有肥料,也沒有農藥更好,就想辦法種,竟然也是種出來。我要成為就是這種社區種菜自給自足的一種供應鏈。就連古巴當時被貿易限制時都能將危機轉變成轉機,發展有機產業。那當我們先把台灣這一塊變成有機島,如果台灣成為有機島,世界的人會不會來這邊取經,會啊。



本研究認為教育推廣以及門當戶對的通路,乃是政府推動有機農業倍增的重要課題,原因除了上述機會與問題所舗陳之外,更隱含著消費者 "知"與"行"的差距。消費者雖有瞭解有機食品的想法,或是一部份的瞭解(誤解),卻因為不夠全面清楚而不願購買或是沒有信心。因此,不論是企業或消費受訪者,兩者所主張的都是消費族群/企業對有機市場上認知的不足。企業方面,認為推廣教育缺乏完整的有機教育制度,因而消費者有機的概念、有機的作法與食物的真相必須從小紮根;消費者方面則認為他們缺乏有機相關知識,因而信心不足者只到市集購買,而不願意到有機商店或網站購買。同時,有機理念必須長期且持續的推動,而不僅是追求短期效益而己,例如 A4 與 A6 受訪者指出:

我也覺得說,我幹嘛要實行有機的概念,還用有機清潔用品、教育員工呢?因為員工問我,我想了很久才知道怎麼樣去說服他們。像是垃圾分類的問題,其實垃圾分類在二、三十年前是不存在的,在當初呂秀蓮還在中壢、桃園當縣長的時候,由主婦聯盟開始推動垃圾分類,當初那一群人也是默默的在做。經過呂秀蓮的時代到經過這個都龍斌、馬英九,才實現了全台灣垃圾不落地。經過這樣走了三十年,如果沒有當初這些人在推動,就不會有二三十年後台灣實行整個垃圾分類,也可以算是世界的一種標竿啦。

四、結論與建議

(一) 結論

本研究之期中成果在於瞭解有機食品企業(農場、通路商及市集)之看法,並透過多家企業中、高階經理人的訪談,能更多元化的瞭解其經營理念、現況與困境。同時,亦在消費者對於有機網站的購買商品情況、原因,希冀新增之功能上有所瞭解。吾人發現消費者所需要的有機食品網站功能與擔憂事項,其實與網站業者所提供的有所差異。對於消費者而言,他們所需要的是清楚的知識與資訊,例如對有機食品的辨視知識、交易雙方的保障等資訊。然而,網站業者大多(60%)將網站定位為公司活動資訊提供站、過於繁雜無系統的有機資訊,或是不對等的交易模式(如偏向有利公司的付款機制),因此兩方並未在此形成完整的互動模式。最後,基於內容分析之成果比較企業/消費者間相同與不同看法,形成下列建議:

第一,消費者、通路商與有機農場彼此間的知識/專業不足:有機農場/通路商對於各自專業(如通路知識、產品知識)均有其顯著瞭解與知識;然而,對於有機農場與通路商間的合作機制,卻有知識差異的不足之處。例如,有機農場被通路商要求降低價格、被通路商欺騙,拿不到貨款等問題層出不窮。通路商仍強調零售為主的概念,但卻未真實體會到:(1)農產品有時間落差、(2)種植收獲的不確定性問題,或(3)期待維持穩定的獲利空間,因而片面地要求農場配合其通路策略。因此,有機農場與通路商間在合作與雙方知識上有極大差異存在。本研究認為,政府需要提供一個互動平台,使得通路商與有機農場間可平等對話,降低雙方經營落差。此外,亦可藉由優秀有機農產品選拔等(如十大優秀農產)等方式,藉由媒體的曝光,增加消費者知曉的機會。同時,消費者對有機食品有強烈的不信任感,原因在於消費者並無有機食品的相關知識,或是道聽塗說,缺乏辨視正確有機產品的概念,因而為降低可能損失,而不願意購買;或是只相信親友的介紹。因此,信任的重要性在目前推廣有機食品極為重要。

第二,經營理念的重要性:本研究訪談業者,大多在有機市場上推廣 5-7 年,多數均成立 10 多年以上。在經營理念上,業者均有其強調的背景,例如:「為朋友準備菜」、「我家吃的菜就是賣給消費者的」、「散播健康、散播愛」、「親身經歷有機對身體的改善」等,因而在現今有機消費能力尚且不足的現況中,仍積極推動有機概念與開發新產品。因此,當企業有其經營理念上的強化時,亦形成特定的品牌形象,有助於吸引適當之消費族群。例如,企業創辦人深受疾病之苦,因而透過有機食品的調理,而深知身體健康的重要等,就會形成消費者認同其健康訴求的理念,因此樂於購買與支持該企業。

第三,有機市場的推廣方向:本研究發現企業/消費者均對有機食品的推廣有所逃思。例如,約 40%的企業受訪者認為推廣教育極為重要,但是對於推廣什麼、如何推廣均有其缺失。在現今網路使用者眾多的市場情勢,有機食品業網站提供的資訊仍處於:公司行銷/促銷活動訊息、產品/食品訊息,或是使用/烹煮 DM 介紹,仍屬於片斷式的資訊提供者。反觀消費者,亦缺乏有機食品的辨視能力,例如何為有機、自然或無毒耕法,何為有機食品,仍不清楚,因而只敢相信有機市集內的農場人員之口頭說明及市集舉辦單位。然而,此種推廣方法仍有限制性。因此,本研究認為有機食品為一種說明性商品,必須透過講解與互動溝通的方式,循序漸進的教育消費



者,因而向下紮根(國中小學的推廣),或是完整的推展有機農業/食品(例如巡迴演講搭配有機食品的實物介紹)為未來推廣、教育消費者可行之方式。

(二)研究限制

本研究有下列三項限制。第一,產業的限制:本研究為瞭解特定產品情境下的消費者食品生活型態與消費行為的關係,因此僅探討有機產品為調查焦點。然而,農食品仍具有許多不同類型,例如水產。未來研究應以其他產品類型進行探討,以擴展其應用範圍。第二,抽樣範圍的限制:本研究同時調查廠商與消費者,雖抽樣範圍以嚴謹條件加以設計,但並未包含全部樣本,建議未來研究應以不同族群進行分析(例如老年人、青壯年、上班族)。第三,分析方法限制:由於質性訪談並無效度分析,本研究嘗試以信度分析來確保分析內容的正確性,未來研究亦可採用其他分析方法,例如紮根理論進行訪談內容的整合。

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附件一:企業與消費者訪談問卷

本研究主題為探討消費者透過網路購買有機食品行為。本研究為學術型技術,討論內容僅就學術研討之用,不會對外公布或公開。謝謝您的大力協助。

敬祝:

平安喜樂

國立澎湖科技大學 行銷與物流管理系梁榮達 助理教授

- A. 企業訪談問題:
- 1. 貴公司對於經營有機食品的理念為何?
- 2. 是否有實體店面?
- 3. 銷售有機食品的類型?
- 4. 為什麼會有建構網站這樣的想法?
- 5. 成立網站多久的時間?
- 6. 網站通路大概的銷售狀況?(一年內) 顧客人數、性別、平均購買次數、顧客年齡以幾歲居多?
- 7. 網站內容的主要功能?例如公佈食品訊息、購買平台等?
- 8. 您認為在台灣的有機食品市場競爭情況如何?
- 對於有機食品市場自己有何感想?覺得有機食品最好的機會與最大的問題出 在那裡?
- 10. 您認為消費者透過網站購買有機食品的可能原因為何?大致購買的商品類型?
- B. 消費者訪談問題:
- 1. 性别
- 2. 年齡
- 3. 教育水準
- 4. 職業
- 5. 平常購買有機產品的頻率(生鮮、保健品,要註明是那一種)(只算有機店或市集)
- 6. 有沒有經常自己煮飯.(頻率)
- 7. 在有機市集裡經常購買的有機產品是? 蔬果生鮮類、保健品
- 8. 有沒有上網買過有機食品(生鮮類或保健品)?
- 9. 大約多久上網買一次有機食品 (至少要一個月一次)
- 10. 您最常上網選購的網站是?
- 11. 上網選購的商品類別最常是?
- 12. 您覺得在網路購買有機食品的好處跟壞處? 您覺得最常購買的那個網站,有 沒有什麼功能是您覺得很好的? 您覺得它應該再多什麼功能比較好。





建築產業之行為理性分析

Rationality Analysis of Taiwanese Residential Construction Industry

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ABSTRACT

The completions of Taiwanese residential construction industry were volatile in the 1990s. The residential completions in 1993 increased 215% comparing with that in 1990, intriguingly the demand in terms of population growth increased merely 2.91% (Hsieh 2002; Hsieh &Forster, 2007; Hsieh & Forster, 2004). Accordingly the performance and behavior of construction Industry are not completely affected by demand side. They could be influenced by individual and group factors of developer or builder. In today's turmoil and dynamic economic environment scrutinizing the developer's behavior being rational or irrational is important for government and construction Industry. The research basing on the rationale of SCP model examines the influence of factors in supply side and demand side imposing residential construction and developer's behavior (Residential approvals). The residential approvals of 23 cities and counties in Taiwan during 1999-2009 totaling 253 samples are examined. A simple multi-regression model is constructed to analyze the influence of demand and supply side factors on residential approvals. The results indicate that significant individual rationality which differs from general impression of irrationality of herding and pursuing construction. The positive and significant relation between the approvals and developer loans, economic growth, land price indicates rational decision of developer. Significantly the approvals burgeoned while vacancies being high, indicating that developers were able to ignore structural vacancies and focus on concurrent market demands continuing residential development. The individual rationality can be seen in the synchronizing growth of infrastructure improvement of high speed railway and approvals. However a negative direction of approval with global financial crisis, population density implies the risk aversion of developers. Empirical evidence suggests that developer makes decision by data, analysis, judgment and cognition, not by following other's behavior, which is essential to rational behavior. Under dynamic model investigated by Two Stage Least Square method (2SLS), the results reveal individual rationality as well.

Individual rationality does not commit group rationality. In the most scenarios it results in group irrationality due to synchronizing activity in particular oversupply and high vacancies in Taiwan. The consequences seem unavoidable and worsening given that individual developer making decision rational. Group irrationality incurs redundancy and inefficiency. Developer should differentiate, widen respective, and innovation such green building, design, segmenting market, without continuing emulating each other and creating indifferences.

Keywords: Residential Construction, Individual Rationality, Group Irrationality, Oversupply, Vacancy

摘要

台灣建築產業之產出以使用執照面積來看,在1990年代之波動甚大,建築產業產出在1993年是1990年之215%成長,而同時期之人口增加僅2.91%而已(Hsieh 2002; Hsieh & Forster, 2007; Hsieh & Forster, 2004),故建築業之產出績效與廠商之行為並非一定受需求面之影響,也深受建商個人與集體因素之影響。在景氣循環快速轉變的情況下,探討建築業廠商行為模式是理性與非理性是一重要的議題。本研究以結構-行為-績效(S-C-P)模型探討供給與需求因素對建築業廠商行為之影響,以台灣23個縣市從1999年至2009年間共253個樣本,以迴歸分析進行供給面與需求面變數對各縣市建商住宅建造執照申請之影響,顯示廠商行為有顯著之個別理性行為,與傳統之



認知不同。建築貸款餘額增加,顯示建商看好不動產景氣,積極推案;經濟成長率越高,消費者購屋需求增加,建商積極推案;地價越高,建商的愈積極競爭與爭取稀有資源,供給量會增加;放款利率越低,建商成本降低,會積極推案;空屋數越高,因市場存在過多結構性空屋,而建商在推新案時,不會考慮空屋數過多之問題,還是會繼續提供迎合消費者需求之住宅,進而繼續興建建案;金融風暴的發生,會降低建商推案心態;高鐵變數會使建商看好投資願景,增加推案,惟人口密度呈現負相關,與預期不符,其原因為人口數雖越來越多,但能繼續開發的土地有限,建商紛紛嚮往人口密度低的土地上開發。其實證結果大致上可證明個別建商之決策、認知是有根據與分析,是理性行為,並非跟隨他人之非理性行為。以二階段最小平方法之動態廠商行為分析,本研究加入結構性空屋率變數,發現對建照面積之關係為負相關且顯著,與預期相符,考慮市場之動態性亦出現個別理性之現象。

從個別行為之分析並不保證產業集體之行為具理性或有利之條件,從行為型態分析建商之理性行為卻造成集體之不理性行為,從台灣目前仍居高不下之空屋率與供給大於需求可以看出,這個別理性卻形成集體不理性之行為之管理意涵,在資訊愈形透明之際,建商之理性行為會愈高,但其集體之共同行為仍是不可避免的,正如同建商決策皆經過分析與市調所為之理性行為,並非跟隨,故其超額供給之現象是無法避免之常態,且有惡化之現象,因為每個人會堅持其理性分析,但會造成更多社會資源之浪費。因此建商應加大差異化、宏觀、避免採相同之行為或太小之差異,可以朝創新、綠建築、設計特色、區隔市場、不應以傳統之方式一再複製相同但僅作部分小差異之建築,而無特色,形成同質之超額供給。

關鍵字: 建築, 個別理性, 集體不理性, 超額供給, 空屋,

壹、前言

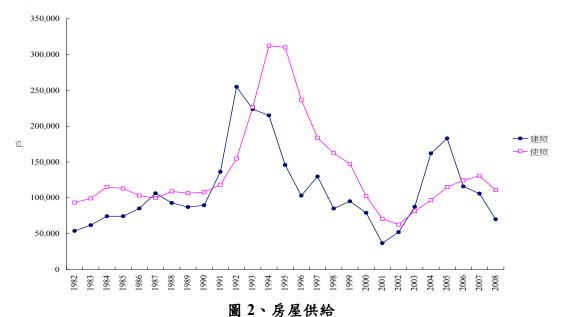
台灣之人口成長率呈現下降之趨勢,以目前人口增加率來看,每年增加人數為 42,000 人,平均每戶為 3.5 人,每年房屋需求約為 12,000 戶 (圖 1),但房屋供給每年約為 58,815 戶,如圖 2,這種反市場需求之變化似乎代表廠商行為之非理性。而台灣之空屋亦居高不下,如表 1 所示各縣市之空屋與空屋率在 2000、2005 之普查皆有百萬戶之多,似乎與我們認知之無殼蝸牛、居不易之房屋稀有、或供應不足完全不同,在 2000 年台灣之空屋數高達一百二十萬戶,而在 2005 年亦有一百多萬戶之空屋,其中台中市在 2000 年空屋率達 26%。依供需理論而言,當供給大於需求時,會產生空屋與價格下跌,在理性之假設下會減少生產(沈中華,2007; Hsieh,2002; 2005)。什麼原因造成這種非理性之超額供給?是建商之不理性行為造成嗎?但是考量其投資金額之龐大及建商之規模、資訊之容易取得,似乎不可能,但就整體之產業績效以供給量來看,卻是供過於求,且超額供給相多。



圖 1、房屋需求

資料來源: Hsieh, 2002; Hsieh, 2005;內政部統計處,2009





資料來源: Hsieh, 2002; Hsieh, 2005; 內政部營建署,2009; 行政院主計處,2009

表1 空屋數與空屋率普查

	1980		199				2005		
縣市區域	空屋	空屋率	空屋	空屋率	空屋	空屋率	空屋	空屋率	
北部區域	219241	14.47	320683	13.85	564266	17.6	386481	11.3	
宜蘭縣	13772	15.67	17963	16.61	30750	21.9	17731	12.2	
基隆市	10607	15.08	19056	19.53	35443	23.8	24478	16.2	
台北縣	88551	16.68	144354	16.7	221531	17.4	145391	10.9	
台北市	54873	11.31	71007	9.4	101102	12.2	82825	9.7	
桃園縣	36519	16.65	49833	15.09	132426	23.2	80948	12.5	
新竹市	8387	14.79	12871	15.42	25528	20	20544	15.2	
新竹縣	6532	10.06	5540	7.33	17486	14.8	14564	10.5	
中部區域	121605	13.12	149933	12.83	310504	18.9	284882	16.5	
苗栗縣	7458	7.72	7838	7.12	22449	15.6	16787	11.0	
台中市	18551	15.06	41385	19.69	101916	26	92676	21.9	
台中縣	38098	17.43	34287	11.9	66985	16.2	63130	14.3	
彰化縣	32676	14.11	38810	14	61701	17.2	61453	16.8	
南投縣	12214	11.78	13731	11.33	23645	16.1	15481	10.0	
雲林縣	12608	8.24	13882	8.62	33808	18.2	35355	18.4	
南部區域	124657	11.36	183635	12.73	316315	16.2	303899	14.7	
嘉義市	6556	13.2	12125	18.67	18384	20.4	15050	15.6	
嘉義縣	12540	11.03	14547	11.29	23251	15.3	18444	11.7	
台南市	16526	14.77	29698	16.86	47197	19.1	35117	13.3	
台南縣	19598	9.92	22413	9.6	44502	13.9	36487	11.0	
高雄市	30118	12.59	57868	16.18	82275	16.5	63482	11.6	
高雄縣	22594	11.36	27456	10.48	55518	15.2	82152	21.3	
屏東縣	14257	8.52	15652	7.99	39899	16	49710	19.1	
澎湖縣	2436	12.87	3795	16.17	5289	20.6	3457	12.9	
東部區域	14336	11.36	20066	13.58	37713	21	54614	29.3	
花蓮縣	9059	12.62	14795	16.66	24956	22.5	43686	37.7	
台東縣	5277	9.69	5271	8.95	12757	18.7	10928	15.6	
台灣地區	479839	13.09	674317	13.29	1228798	17.6	1029876	13.9	

Source: Peng and Chang 1995, Journal of Housing Studies No.3: p68

資料來源:行政院主計處 2000 年普查資料 http://www.dgbas.gov.tw/census~n/six/lue5/cen8904.rtf



貳、文獻與研究架構

探討空屋之原因之研究一般以供需、市場、經濟、社會、機制探討較多,也就是環境與績效端,比較少進行產業行為之分析,從供需理論方面分析者指出係供給大於需求所致(沈中華,2007;林祖嘉,2002)。從購買力與房價之關係影響房屋自有率與空屋者,認為因房價過高造成購買力不足引起空屋(薛立敏&陳繡里,1997),但事實上有些空屋之價格甚低,故價格可能非主因。空屋之認定錯誤造成假象之空屋數量,適時上空屋並非如此高(花敬群&張金鶚,1999),但從基本之計算每年之需求與供給仍可看出超額之資訊,在經濟之現象,預期心理之重要性往往大於實際,如擠兌、經濟信心等,故房屋之需求與供給之資訊之提供應足以供建商之判斷與分析,不需要有實際之普查資料,況普查資料亦非完全正確。文化與社會風俗不同,重視房地產為投資保值之觀念影響,"有土斯有財",是體制與機制問題造成(Chang & Peng,1998),但如此應該會不應求而非供過於求。就產業行為之分析方面,Mankelwicz & Kitahara (2010)提出具量化、數據化可提升理性與決策與績效。Haines et. al (2010)發現供應鍵之下端零售端商憑藉經驗與直覺下訂單,而非理性之計算分析需求數據,如人口初生率、需求成長數,可能僅依靠一時之缺貨而認為需求成長之非理性判斷,零售端一個訂單小變化,導致上游端之一連串供應鏈出現顯著與不合理之大變化,稱為長鞭效應(Bullwhip effect)。

在探討建築業的產業行為,常針對大環境與產業環境分析,在大環境方面包括政治、法律、 經濟、人口、金融等,對建築產業的影響,而在產業環境方面,如競爭、供給因素、需求因素亦 相當重要(Hsieh, 2002;Hsieh, 2005)。台灣之建築業受外在環境影響變動相大,自 1982 年以來建 築產業之產出以使用執照面積來看,其波動甚大(Hsieh,2002; Hsieh, 2005)。尤其在 1990 年代之 波動更大,1993 年建築產業產出是 1990 年之 215%,而同時期之人口增加僅 2.91%而已 (Hsieh 2002; Hsieh & Forster, 2007; Hsieh & Forster, 2004), 故建築業之產出績效與廠商之行為並非一定受 需求面之影響,也深受建商個人與集體因素之影響。依經濟學供需法則來看,假設其他條件不變, 在既定的時間內,在不同的價格下,產品的消費者,願意且有能力去購買的價格與數量的關係, 就稱為需求;假設其他條件不變,既定的時間內,在不同的價格下,產品的生產者,願意且有能 力去銷售的數量,這種價格與數量的關係,就稱為供給;則供給等於需求時則能決定供給量及價 格(沈中華,2007)。建築產業中市場的供給者為:建設公司與大眾售屋者;市場的需求者為:消 費需求者與投資需求者。假設供需任何一方大於相對的一方時,則會改變原有均衝的數量及價格 以下分為二種情況做假設:1、供給增加需求不變,則會使得數量增加則價格減少(如圖 3)。2、 供給不變需求增加,則會使得價格數量都增加(如圖 4)。Hsieh (2002; 2005)對建築業於 1990 年代 之擴充行為提出係因法令變化與放鬆信用管制,引起建商自主式之興建行為,係供給面拉動之現 象。惟 2000 年代之情形又與當時之背景不同。首先並無法令之變化,而市場之競爭更激烈,需 求面消費者之力量更大,而外在環境之複雜度亦增加,如金融危機、全球經濟不景氣、區域發展 如金磚四國之經濟繁榮帶動區域房地產之飆漲等,皆與以前之連動式經濟不同,而屬於區域經濟 板塊之獨立發展,故對於現階段影響台灣建築產業之因素與拉動之力量,在不同之時空下值得進 一步探討何種因素造成超額供給之原因。

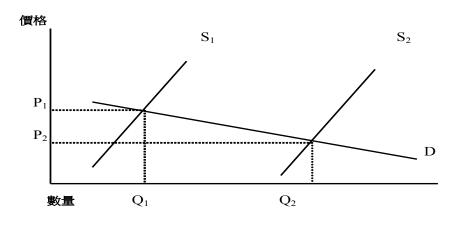
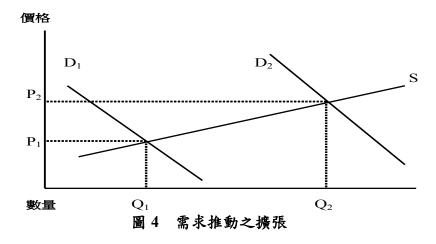


圖 3 供給拉動之擴張





但建築業係由眾多之廠商所組成,故其行為就會影響整體之產出,一般對建築業之供需探討 顯有從廠商之行為來分析。在建築產業裡,績效取決於申請使用執照之數量,而廠商之行為則表 現在建築執照之申請,反映廠商對供給面與需求面變數之認知,而採取之企圖與計畫。因此必須 先分析外部環境包括供給面與需求面,供給面包括建築貸款、建築執照之申請、完工之後申請之 使用執照、利率、貨幣供給及價格等,需求面包括人口數、經濟成長、平均每人國民所得、消費 者物價指數、消費性貸款、人口密度、供給、空屋率及價格等,以訂定對產業本身最有利的策略。 是故本研究可從結構-行為-績效(SCP)的分析架構來探討建築產業在 1999-2009 年之間,供需因素 對廠商行為之影響,以及在這段期間中特定事件發生與對建築產業行為與績效影響,研究架構如 圖 5。結構-行為-績效(SCP)的分析架構創始於 Harvard 大學的 E. S. Mason 教授, 而為其後繼者如 J. Bain & G. Stigler 等學者所闡揚,目前這個分析是產業經濟學的主要分析架構 (陳正倉等, 2007)。其論述主要是基本條件影響市場結構,市場結構影響廠商的行為而政府的政策同時會影 響市場結構與廠商行為,最後產生不同的經濟績效。由研究架構可看出外在環境結構影響建商之 行為,而其行為會影響其績效,而產業績效則會對社會與市場產生一定程度之效果與現象如空 屋、供過於求、交易時間等。在供給方面變數有建築貸款、建築執照申請、申請使用執照、利率、 貨幣供給及價格等變數;在需求方面變數有人口數、經濟成長、平均每人國民所得、消費者物價 指數、消費性貸款、人口密度、自有住宅率及價格等變數;特定事件的影響。以上這些變數造成 建築執造申請數量之變化及使用執照數量之變化,進而造成空屋數、交易時間、供需力量失衡及 房價之變化。

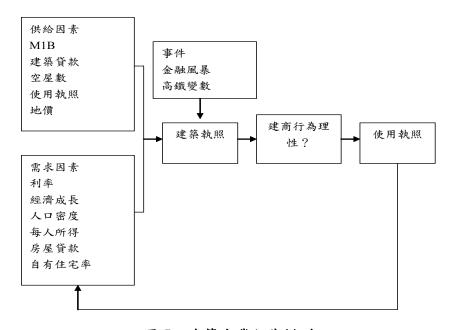


圖 5 建築產業行為模型



根據行為理論(Concept-Behaviour-Performance, CBP)之觀點(Carsrud & Brannback, 2011),理性指建商行為是根據資訊與認知知識深層內涵(C)而決策,而非理性是根據其他建商之行為或淺層知識(B)而來,對不動產整體之影響頗巨,並分析建築之網絡行為、與行為衡量指標(Proxy),如建築執照數量、面積、申請數。從 CBP 之觀念來看見商行為是理性或非理性,可分個別是理性行為,而整體造成不理性之行為,是根據 C 之行為,根據自己之判斷分析,但是集體作同一件事情,卻形成集體不理性行為。建商受外在環境之影響,對環境之認定不同,而有必要之行動,經由執行而有績效之產生,如下之模型。有兩種情形值得分析,1、建商之行為是不具理性,會一窩蜂跟隨他人行為、或搶建,故集體之產業行為亦形成不理性之行為;2、建商是理性行為,必經詳細之分析而後行動,但集體產業行為卻形成不理性,為何會有這麼多之差異與現象,管理意涵和經濟有相當值得探討之必要。本研究由建商之行為模式,探討其行為是否為理性。

参、實證分析

一般建商之行為可以用建築執照來衡量,而建築執照是建商向主管機構申請建物核准興建之書面正式文件,內載興建人、營造商、地點、興建樓層、面積、興建期間、金額、勘驗記錄、各樓層核准面積等。要核准建築必須委由建築師、結構技師依法規規劃與設計。衡量之方式有以數量、面積、與申請數。比較正確之作法是以面積來衡量較準確,因為數量會因房屋面積大小而變化,但事實上生產力不變。建築執照之申請反應其行為,而建築業之行則反應其對環境之看法,當其樂觀時,會增加建築執照之申請,但不見得會立即施工,故事意圖不是結果與績效,一般會用意圖來看供需是不對的,因為建商會放棄興建,因此興建是落後指標,而意圖是領先指標,如CBP,觀念影響行為,而行為影響績效,因此行為是反映廠商之看法,有效衡量領先指標與信心,是故看行為是衡量景氣與信心之有效方式。

本研究針對前述各項變數可能對建築產業之影響進行分析,以分析供給面以及需求面變數對建築產業行為面、績效面之影響。由於各變數差異甚大,本研究先以單位做標準化,使其差距變少,自變數與依變數間之關係,可能為曲線關係,不是直線關係,故本研究對依變數及自變數採取對數(log)之方法,進行直線迴歸之分析,以提高變數對其結果預測的準確度,對於有負值的自變數與依變數,本研究予以適當的平移,使其為正值,以進行分析。首先建立函數如下:

 $log(建築執照樓地板面積) = b_0 + b_1 log(貨幣供給額 M1B) + b_2 log(建築貸款餘額) + b_3 log(放款利率) + b_4 log(空屋數) + b_5 log(地價) + b_6 log(經濟成長率) + b_7 log(人口數) + b_8 log(平均每人國內生產毛額) + b_9 log(人口密度) + b_1 log(消費者購置住宅貸款) + b_1 log(自有住宅率) + b_1 log(儲蓄率) + b_1 log(消費者物價指數) + b_1 (金融風暴) + b_1 (高鐵變數) + e (公式 1)$

 $b_0 \neq 0 \\ b_1, b_2, b_6, b_7, b_8, b_9, b_{10}, b_{13}, b_{15} > 0 \\ b_3, b_4, b_{11}, b_{12}, b_{14} < 0 \\ b_5 = ?$

變數說明如表 2。



表 2 迴歸模型變數

	- VI / KI / KI	
係數編 號	依變數:建築執照樓地板面積	單位數
b1	供給面變數: 貨幣供給額 M1B:貨幣供給為日平均貨幣總 計數	新台幣百萬
b2	建築貸款餘額	新台幣百萬 元
b4	空屋數:23縣市空屋數	P
b6 b7	需求面變數: 經濟成長率 人口數:23 縣市人口數	% 千人
b8	平均每人國內生產毛額:GDP	新台幣元
b9	人口密度:23 縣市人/平方公里	人/平方公里
b10	消費者購置住宅貸款	新台幣百萬 元
b11	自有住宅率:現住房屋所有權屬戶內成員之 任何一人或其直系親屬者占總戶數比率	%
b12	儲蓄率:國民儲蓄率	%
b13	消費者物價指數:CPI	%
	同屬供給面與需求面變數:	
b5	地價:23 縣市土地價格	元/平方公尺
b3	放款加權平均利率:利率與得標金額加權平 均計算	%
	事件變數:	
b14	金融風暴	虛擬變數
b15	高鐵變數	虚擬變數

一、實證結果

本研究採取線性迴歸分析進行簡單迴歸模型建立,針對台灣23個縣市由1999年至2009年共計253個觀察值進行迴歸分析,採Pooled Cross-Sectional Time-Series 之方式進行分析,結果發現15個自變數對於依變數(建築執照樓地板面積)之整體解釋力為 $R^2=0.745$ 。惟貨幣供給額M1B、建築貸款餘額、經濟成長率、人口數、平均每人國內生產毛額、消費者購置住宅貸款、自有住宅率、儲蓄率、消費者物價指數、放款加權平均利率、金融風暴均呈共線性(Multi-Collinearity),因VIF>10,容忍度<0.1,即代表其相關性高(林震巖,2006; 彭建文&張金鶚 1995)。本研究去除相關性高的變數後,因建築執照樓地板面積之迴歸分析模型各變數間無共線性之問題,故可做為本研究探討各變數對建築執照樓地板面積的影響說明。本研究去除高度共線性之變數後進行迴歸分析,由表3改善後之建築執照樓地板面積迴歸模型所示,針對各自變數對依變數建築執照樓地板面積之間的相關性及顯著性說明。



表3 建商行為迴歸模型(改善後)

依變數:log(建築執照樓地板面積)

10 2 30 10 5 (AC)N 17 10	未標準化係數		標準化係 數	4	9r tt 1.1	共線性統計量	
	B 之估計 值	標準誤	Beta 分配	t	顯著性	容忍度	VIF
(常數)	-2.260	2.951		766	.2225		
Log(建築貸款餘額)	.393	.224	.122	1.753	.0405*	.246	4.058
Log(經濟成長率)	.106	.042	.195	2.495	.0065**	.196	5.099
Log(人口密度)	141	.047	186	-3.013	.0015**	.315	3.177
Log(儲蓄率)	024	2.118	001	011	.4955	.169	5.919
Log(地價)	.685	.110	.417	6.203	.000***	.266	3.759
Log(放款利率)	709	.174	257	-4.070	.000***	.303	3.305
Log(空屋數)	.769	.056	.603	13.66 6	.000***	.617	1.621
金融風暴	248	.082	231	-3.040	.0015**	.208	4.804
高鐵變數	.125	.070	.076	1.789	.0375*	.657	1.522

***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

R²=0.708, F=65.490***, N=253, 單尾檢定

迴歸分析必須先經過下列的檢定,以確定迴歸分析之有效性,1.常態性(Normality):依變數之標準化殘差必須成常態性分配,同時其殘差之P-P圖亦呈現常態;2.殘差平均值為零(Zero Mean of Residuals):殘差之平均數為零;3.誤差等分散性假設(Homoscedasticity):依變數對迴歸平面的變異數呈固定,可以由殘差(e)和預測值(y)之圖形來看,特定X水準的誤差項,除了應呈隨機化的常態分配且其變異量應相等稱為誤差等分散性,其散佈圖可看出南投縣之建照面積有極端值存在,係因1999年發生之921大地震,使大量的房屋倒塌,亦造成建商無信心推案,此數據為事實,仍有存在、保留之必要;4.自我相關(Autocorrelation):依變數之值是相互獨立的,代表殘差值之間是互相獨立的,殘差值與樣本數列顯示沒有特定的型態(Keller et al. 1990);5.共線性:自變數間的共線性問題,由容忍度、變異數膨脹因數加以判別,(1).容忍度:容忍度等於 $1-R^2$,其中 R^2 是此自變項與其他自辯項間的多元相關係數的平方,變項之 R^2 太大,代表模式中其他自變項可以有效解釋這個變項。容忍度的值介於 R^2 與其值若接近 R^2 太大,代表模式中其他自變項的線性組合,這個變項迴歸係數的估計值不夠穩定,本迴歸模型之容忍度皆大於零,模型無共線性。(2).變異數膨脹因素(Variance inflation factor;VIF)為容忍度的倒數,其值越大,表示自變項的容忍度越小,越有共線性問題。改善後之模型VIF皆小於 R^2 0,無共線性問題。

本研究採Pooled cross sectional time series 之分析,必須探討截距項是否影響,而關於截距項問題,Henry(2002)提出當樣本夠大,可以由各縣市人口變數來消除,若以各縣市為虛擬變數與各縣市人口變數進行迴歸分析,則 $\mathbf{R}^2 = 0.995$,顯示人口變數可以代表各截距項。本研究運用相同原理,採用人口密度(人/平方公里),以各縣市的虛擬變數進行迴歸分析,結果發現 $\mathbf{R}^2 = 1$,數值相當高,頗具區別力,可以來代表各縣市之特性,可以藉由人口密度變數來消除截距項的問題。

二、結果分析

空屋數對建築執照樓地板面積呈現顯著正相關(t=13.666,p=0.000***),此結果顯示空屋數越高,建築執照樓地板面積越多,研判是由於因結構性問題之房屋在市場上較難以銷售出去,因需求面對於結構性空屋的接受度頗低,而建商在推行新建案時,會提供符合當時市場上消費者需求之住宅,以增加銷售額,所以儘管在市場上結構性空屋仍多的情況下,建商仍繼續興建建案,故建築執照樓地板面積還是繼續上升,代表空屋數與對建商之行為無任何影響。就個體而言是理性之行為,但產業整體而言是非理性行為,造成更多空屋出現。

建築貸款餘額對建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且具顯著性(t=1.753,p=0.0405*),本研究預期受建築貸款餘額影響,建築產業因其增加金額如果幅度很大,顯示建築業之行為是由供給



面推動之現象,如果為有需求時,建商行為是必須自籌的,而建築貸款正是先建後售所必須之融資工具,顯示個別建商行為之主動性。放款加權平均利率對建築執照樓地板面積呈現負相關且具顯著性(t=-4.070,p=0.000**),顯示利率的下降會造成建築執照樓地板面積的增加。從供給面來看,建商必須辦理建築融資貸款,以利工程的進行,如果利率越低,可以降低建商貸款之負擔,進而成本減少;從需求面觀察,消費者有購屋之需求,亦有購屋貸款之行為,利率如下降,對消費者而言,購屋意願也會隨之增加。所以利率水準的下降,無論是供給面或需求面來看,都有助於房市的發展。就建商之行為而言,因採建築貸款方式之建築,利率低有利融資開發,而建商又採高財務槓桿經營,利率之訊息可傳達資金充裕容易取得,且資金成本相對低,故有利土地開發、取得、營建等理性之建商行為。

地價對建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且具顯著性(t=6.203,p=0.000***),顯示土地價格越高,建築執照樓地板面積越多,顯示建商行為對市場之預期並非從原料成本之取向,而是從原料之價值取向。土地是有其稀有性、不易替代性、價值性、可利用性等資源基礎理論之資源價值優勢特性,因此建商皆朝開發、取得有價值之土地資源努力,從重視營建之價值活動轉變成重視土地開發、設計之價值活動,因此土地成本會因建商集體之追逐而上漲,與建照成正相關,而當價格愈漲追逐爭取稀有資源越厲害。建築面積代表建商行為之表現,同樣也會反應集體之不理性而導致地價上揚,因為土地炙手可熱,相對也降低建商之競爭力與利潤,因為成本提高,從這個表現又顯示出集體不理性之現象,但就個別而言是理性的。

人口密度對建築執照樓地板面積呈現負相關且具顯著性(t=-3.013,p=0.0015**),邏輯上,人口密度越高,則代表同面積內人口數量多,居住環境理想能吸引許多人聚集,相對需求也越多,但人口密度高之區域也代表能繼續開發的土地有限,建商紛紛往人口密度低的土地上開發,而隨政府鼓勵人口外移,以免過份擁擠之市區,新的重劃區、新的市鎮、副都市中心等亦相繼出現,如台北市之建商紛紛往新北市發展,相對的鄰近之都市地價亦節節攀升。理論上人口密度高應該需求高,相對建商行為會增加在需求面高之地方,但是並不然,而卻離開,反向於人口密度低但易於開發之地點,從這種行為分析,顯示個別建商之行為尚稱理性,縱使整體行為與需求不符,看似非理性。

經濟成長率對建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且具顯著性(t=2.495,p=0.0065**),顯示經濟成長率越高,建築執照樓地板面積越高,就建商行為而言,經濟成長是推案重要之考慮與指標,因為建築行為有時間之落差,當下之經濟成長並不保證兩年後之房屋興建完成一定可以出售,但就建商之認知決定,當下之經濟數據、指標是目前行為重要之參考,故其行為會根據經濟成長來做決定,是符合個別理性行為之理論。

金融風暴對建築執照樓地板面積呈現負相關且具顯著性(t=-3.040,p=.0015**),建築產業會因大環境的不景氣,而導致不願對房市進行投資、保值的行為,故實證分析之結果來看,金融風暴與建築樓地板面積呈現負相關,表示受到金融風暴的影響,建商行為趨於保守,建照面積呈下降,符合個別之理性行為。

高鐵變數對建築執照樓地板面積呈現顯著正相關 (t=1.789, p=.0375*),顯示交通的便捷可以使南北二地時間縮短,縮小空間,高鐵通車會帶動附近商圈及房市的熱絡,建商會發現這個因公共建設所帶來之區域發展,而積極投入有關高鐵附近之開發與興建,正如同捷運站出口附近之個案是推案之主流。這是理性之判斷與分析,但也可能造成接運戰附近土地過高、推案過多、空屋率高、與房價下跌之產業集體不理性行為。這點與重劃區之推案量過大,因為大家皆看好而一起推出、或大家皆看好黃金檔期而推出,雖個別考慮是對的,但集體而言卻是個災難。

本研究彙整迴歸分析之結果,如表 4,各變數對於建築業廠商之行為的影響皆符合個別之理性行為但出現集體之不理性行為,造成與一般預期不符之情形,如人口密度不符原因係於人口數越來越多,能繼續開發的土地有限,建商紛紛嚮往人口密度低的土地上開發;其空屋數不符原因係台灣空屋本身多屬於結構性空屋,而建商在推新案時,不會考慮空屋數過多之問題,還是會繼續提供迎合消費者需求之住宅,進而繼續與建建案。但是否就市場動態循環下仍具此情形,本研究將以市場動態模型分析



表 4 建商行為之分析

依變數:建築執照樓地板面積

變數	相關性	個別行為	產業行為
空屋數	正相關	個別理性	集體不理性
建築貸款餘額	正相關	個別理性	集體不理性
放款加權平均利率	負相關	個別理性	集體不理性
地價	正相關	個別理性	集體不理性
人口密度	負相關	個別理性	集體不理性
經濟成長率	正相關	個別理性	集體不理性
金融風暴	負相關	個別理性	
高鐵變數	正相關	個別理性	集體不理性

三、動態市場模型分析

迴歸模型屬於靜態,較少探討變數間之互動關係,建築產業亦受到市場環境影響,而市場環境是屬於動態,變數之間會相互影響,故本研究進一步針對動態市場模型以二階段最小平方法模型(Two-stage least square method, 2SLS)進行市場模型下之廠商行為如何變化,市場模型架構如圖 6。市場動態模型分析各變數間之相互影響關係,如建照面積會受到空屋數以及地價之影響,建照面積與使照面積依法規和機制性之影響,建照面積會影響使照面積,故在動態模型本研究探討建照面積對使照面積的影響,而空屋數則會受到使照面積及地價影響,地價相對的亦會受到使照面積以及空屋數之影響,各變數間呈因果關係,本研究考慮變數因果關係,來探討市場動態下之廠商行為之影響情形。

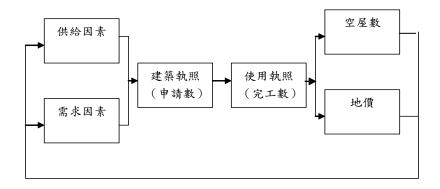


圖 6 動態市場模型

動態市場模型分別以建築執照樓地板面積、使用執照樓地板面積、空屋數、及地價等為依變數,做二階段最小平方法分析,如表 5。二階段最小平方法不針對其解釋力大小做衡量,主要是分析各變數間相互因果關聯後之關係為何,動態廠商行為分析以建照面積為依變數,其解釋變數為空屋數、地價、結構性空屋率、建築貸款、購屋貸款、高鐵變數、金融風暴,而外生變數(Exogeneous Variables)為建築貸款、放款利率、結構性空屋率、經濟成長率、人口數、GDP、人口密度、購屋貸款、自有住宅率、儲蓄率、CPI、高鐵變數、金融風暴,其中空屋數與地價為建照面積之內生變數(Endogeneous Variable)。



表 5 動態市場模型變數

依變數:	解釋變數	外生變數
建照面積	**空屋數 **空屋 **性空屋 養 養 養 養 養 養 養 養 素 素 素 素 素 素 素 素 素 。 金 融 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、 、	建放性原 質利空長數 等 其 整 其 整 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是

註:**代表內生變數

本研究依照二階段最小平方法模型,對於建照面積、空屋數與地價之間的互動關係做分析與 說明,經二階段最小平方法分析其結果如表 6。

表 6 建照面積為依變數之二階最小平方法分析

依變數:log(建照面積)

-22					
變數	В	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
(Constant)	-3.745138	2.465495		-1.519	.0650
Log(空屋數)	.886273	.070050	.694896	12.652	.0000***
log(地價)	.231596	.101202	.140853	2.288	.0115*
log(結構性空屋率)	-2.010508	.918670	089246	-2.188	.0148*
log(建築貸款)	.167659	.281536	.052213	.596	.2760
log(購屋貸款)	1.131126	.325478	.255943	3.475	.0003***
金融風暴	364129	.078234	339411	-4.654	.0000***
高鐵變數	.159546	.073408	.097847	2.173	.01535*

***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

R²=0.6629, F=68.82685***, N=253, 單尾檢定

建築執照樓地板面積與空屋數呈現正相關且顯著(t=12.652,p=0.0000***),代表如市場上空屋數增加,建商對建築投資不會受到空屋數增加而減少其行為。本研究認為其原因是因為結構性空屋的影響所致,而結構性空屋率與建築執照樓地板面積呈現負相關且顯著(t=-2.188,p=0.0148*),當結構性空屋率也加到解釋變數時,結構性空屋率為負相關且顯著,表示當空屋數增加,且結構性空屋之比例減少,表示增加之新建房屋是符合市場需求,故結構性空屋,如老舊、過時、太小、不合適居住之販厝之比例相對少與建商行為相反,即當市場上成交量增加,表示需求面力量增加,建商會積極推符合市場需求之建案,造成建築樓地板面積增加,而目前建商會以先見後售之方式進行,故空屋率增加,是一種合理之行為。

地價與與建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且顯著(t=2.288,p=0.0115*),與本研究預期相符。消費者購置住宅貸款與建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且顯著(t=3.475,p=0.0003***),與本研究預期相符。當消費者購屋需求增加時,購屋貸款亦會隨之增加,而建商更積極的推案,故建照面積也會增加。金融風暴與建築執照樓地板面積呈現負相關且顯著(t=-4.654,p=0.0000***),與本研究預期相符。大環境的景氣的低迷,會造成建商趨於保守,不願意投資房市,進而影響建築產業。高鐵變數與建築執照樓地板面積呈現正相關且顯著(t=2.173,p=0.01535*),與本研究預期相符。高鐵站的設立,造成交通方便,南北交通時間縮短,建商會基於交通便利而推案,而高鐵變數隨著時間的拉長,其效益更加顯著,如區域性之外溢效果(Spillover),故高鐵變數具有正面影響效果。



二階段最小平方法之動態廠商行為分析與迴歸分析之靜態廠商行為分析,同樣都是以建築執照樓地板面積為依變數,其建築貸款餘額、地價、空屋數、金融風暴、高鐵變數等變數實證結果相同,惟建築貸款餘額變的不顯著,原因是加入了消費者購置住宅貸款,其需求力道壓過於建築貸款餘額,而本研究加入結構性空屋率變數檢測,發現其對建照面積之關係為負相關且顯著,亦與預期相符如表7。

表 7 動態廠商行為分析

依變數:log 建照面積

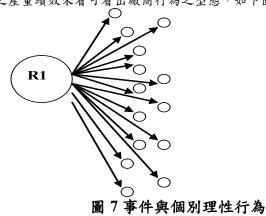
版交数 10g 之				
變數	t	顯著性	個別行為	產業行為
Log(空屋數)	12.652	.000***	個別理性	集體不理性
Log(地價)	2.288	.0115*	個別理性	集體不理性
Log(結構性空屋率)	-2.188	.0148*	個別理性	
Log(購屋貸款)	3.475	.0003***	個別理性	
金融風暴	-4.654	.000***	個別理性	集體不理性
高鐵變數	2.173	.01535*	個別理性	集體不理性

***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

綜上,理性行為指建築商之行為是否為理性或非理性在學術上是值得探究之議題。建商之行為常有爭議,但鮮有探討,因為不易衡量,且個別與集體之現象常有衝突,Hsieh(2002)有探討當個別之理性行為,在集體而言出現集體不理性行為,以容積率實施為背景之探討,說明這種現象。從建築業之整體而言常出現不理性之現象,如空屋率高、搶建、兢標等,但這種行為之意義必須探討其原因,是個別理性或個別不理性,從上述之實證發現建築業存在高度之個別理性,但集體之不理性。可以由以下之模型分析:

(一)、個別理性(Individual rationality)下之集體不理性

當一事件發生時,會引起先共同之注意與行動,而同時採取相同之行為,如規避法規、或搶建、或搶時機等,形成同時相同之行動,與一般流行之情形瀑布狀之行為模式不同。這種情形發生於當資訊對稱時,建商依他們自行之判斷進行之行為,短期間這種行為是由自己之判斷分析,以個別之行為理論分析,建築業之行為表現出理性之分析行為,決策有根據、分析、認知,並非跟隨或根據他人之行為而已。但就長期而言、或跨期間而言形成整體之擴張現象,形成集體之不理性行為(Group irrationality),如過量、競爭、供過於求等。集體不理性行為之表現在整體產業之績效上時,會出現同時增加產量之情形,產量之增加是同時增加,並未互相學習而形成氣候與數量,故從產業之產量績效來看可看出廠商行為之型態,如下圖。



建築活動



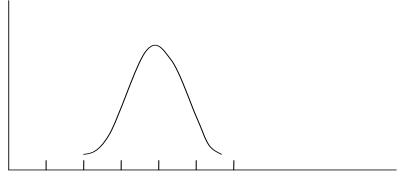


圖 8 集體不理性行為,但個別理性

時間

(二)、個別不理性(Individual irrationality)下之集體不理性行為

當一事件發生時,會引起先行者之注意與行動,而其他人亦會跟隨,逐漸形成風潮,如一般流行之情形,瀑布狀之行為模式。短期間這種情形發生於當資訊不對稱時,只能以他人之行為作判斷,而長期間形成集體不理性(Group irrationality),這種行為之表現在整體產業之績效上時,會出現逐漸增加產量之情形,產量之增加是逐漸增加,互相學習跟隨他人行為,而形成氣候與數量,如下圖。

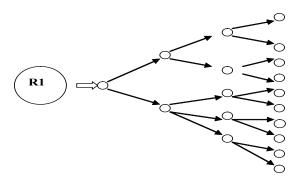
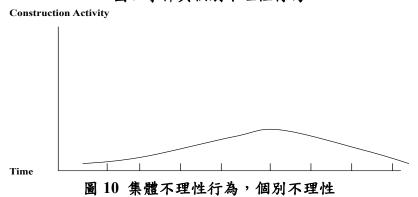


圖 9 事件與個別不理性行為



從產業之集體行為下可以看出兩種現象之不同,就目前之行為而言,比較趨向於這種大起大落之個別理性但造成集體之不理性現象,與實證相符。



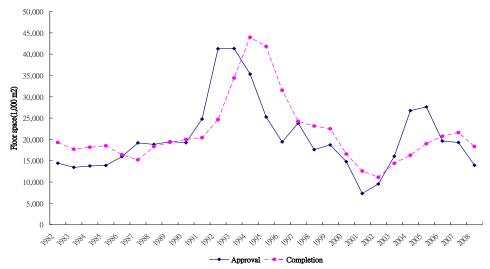


圖 11 建築執照與使用執照面積

資料來源: Hsieh, 2002; Hsieh, 2005; 內政部營建署,2009; 行政院主計處,2009

肆、結論

本研究針對廠商行為之研究,經由迴歸分析顯示,廠商行為有顯著之個別理性行為與傳統之認知不同,建築貸款餘額增加,顯示建商看好不動產景氣,積極推案;經濟成長率越高,消費者購屋需求增加,建商積極推案;地價越高,建商的愈積極競爭與爭取稀有資源,供給量會增加;放款利率越低,建商成本降低,會積極推案;空屋數越高,因市場存在過多結構性空屋,而建商在推新案時,不會考慮空屋數過多之問題,還是會繼續提供迎合消費者需求之住宅,進而繼續與建建案;金融風暴的發生,會降低建商推案心態;高鐵變數會使建商看好投資願景,增加推案,惟人口密度呈現負相關,與預期不符,其原因為人口數雖越來越多,但能繼續開發的土地有限,建商紛紛嚮往人口密度低的土地上開發。其實證結果大致上可證明個別建商之決策、認知是有根據與分析,是理性行為,並非跟隨他人之非理性行為不是根據事實、數據。

動態廠商行為分析,以建照面積為依變數,空屋數、結構性空屋率、地價、消費者購置住宅貸款、金融風暴以及高鐵變數均對廠商行為有影響,以二階段最小平方法之動態廠商行為分析與迴歸分析靜態廠商行為分析比較,其變數實證結果相同,本研究加入結構性空屋率變數,發現對建照面積之關係為負相關且顯著,與預期相符,考慮市場之動態性亦出現個別理性之現象。

從個別行為之分析並不保證產業集體之行為具理性或有利之條件,從行為型態分析建商之理性行為卻造成集體之不理性行為從台灣目前仍居高不下之空屋率與供給仍大於需求可以看出來,這個別理性卻形成集體不理性之行為之管理意涵,如果在資訊愈形透明之際,建商之理性行為愈高,其集體之共同行為是不可避免,正如同建商皆經過分析與市調所為之理性行為,並非跟隨與學習,故超額供給之現象是無法避免之常態,且有惡化之現象,因為每個人會堅持其理性分析,但會造成更多支社會資源浪費。

如何避免?對建商行為之假設,會影響政府政策制定之有效性,如果假設建商是非理性,因為集體不理性,相反的,其為個別之理性,應提供更透明資訊供其分析,除了個體決策之資訊外,亦有總體面之集體績效與資訊,供其判斷分析集體之產業行為,而這種資訊目前是缺乏的。建商個別之行為應朝宏觀之角度分析,正如競爭動態理論,策略之有效性並非考慮個別之策略而已,而必須考慮競爭者之行為,因他們之行為會使你的策略無效而無策略之意涵,如皆採價格競爭就無價格競爭之優勢。因此建商應加大差異化、宏觀、避免採相同之行為或太小之差異,可以朝創新、綠建築、設計特色、區隔市場、不應以傳統之方式一再複製相同但僅作部分小差異之建築,而無特色,形成同質之超額供給。



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摘要

本文研究探討以鬼谷子捭闔篇、反應篇在企業策略性行銷之研究,結合賽局理論之應用。個案在定價策略運用《鬼谷子》捭闔篇:剛柔弛張術,賽局理論之應用為囚犯困境之協調賽局;產品策略運用《鬼谷子》捭闔篇:守司門戶術,賽局理論之應用為單邊囚犯困境賽局;在促銷策略運用《鬼谷子》反應篇:欲取反與術,賽局理論之應用為福利賽局;通路策略運用《鬼谷子》反應篇:知之始己術,賽局理論之應用為沙灘賽局。以實際案例導入中國古籍經典《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點,分析企業策略性行銷之關鍵成功變數,並結合西方賽局理論的學理推導,驗證《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點在學理上的正確性與實證結果相近。研究發現《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點不但可以運用在商業實務,結合賽局理論更能提供一套有系統的方法協助人們預先模擬分析、發展策略,並運用在企業的經營管理上。

關鍵字:策略性行銷、鬼谷子學說、賽局理論

ABSTRACT

The contents of abstract in this thesis:

This thesis aims to explore the study on business strategic marketing based upon the Chapters Opening-and-Closing and Reaction by Guigu Zi as well as the combination of application of the Game Theory. The application of Sturdiness-and- Softness Method in the Chapter Opening-and-Closing by Guigu Zi with respect to pricing strategies was shown in this study. Applying the Game Theory illustrated the coordination of games for the predicament of prisoners. In the same vein, Defense-and-Management Method was employed in product strategies. In this way, the use of the Game Theory was aimed at the game of dilemma of the one-sided prisoners. In addition, the Release-and-Seizure as well as Bilateral Understanding Methods in the Chapter Reaction were capitalized on in promotion and outlet strategies. Accordingly, the application of the Game Theory was intended for welfare and beach games.

The study analyzed the key variables of success in corporation strategic marketing, and combined the theoretical inference of the western Game Theory by directing pragmatic cases into the theoretical



perspectives of the ancient Chinese classical book, Guigu Zi to further prove that the elucidated perspectives in Guigu Zi theory were theoretically close to the results of this research. We, consequently, discovered that not only could these viewpoints be employed in business affairs but they, by incorporating the Game Theory, could provide an array of systematic ways to aid people in simulating analyses, developing strategies, and could be applied in business management.

Keywords: Guigu Zi Theory, Strategic Marketing, Game Theory



壹、緒論

無論過去或現在,任何的商業賽局無不涉及市場的競爭、資源的競逐以及人力的競賽,彼此是一場思維的賽局。《鬼谷子》亦言:「凡事要靈活運用,不可拘泥於定法。」針對不同的人和不同的情境,如何靈活調整自己的應對之策,唯有宏觀全局的開闊眼界、透視古今和未來、洞察人性之思維,根據對方或強或弱的具體情況做出權變。藉由新舊文化的觀點和方法,讓企業界與學術界研究領域可以承接並運用,學術理論對實務運作亦能提供最佳策略。

一、研究背景與動機

《鬼谷子》的智慧精髓在於:「智用於眾人之所不能知,而能用於眾人之所不能見。」將視野延伸至運用東方中國古籍的智慧《鬼谷子》實踐的人生哲學,研究企業在策略性行銷之相關技巧,透過《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點,結合西方「賽局理論」(Game Theory)的研究方法,是為本研究的研究背景與動機。

二、研究目的

從企業策略性行銷結果導向推論問題變項間的相互關係,再建立分析資料的基礎,以研究影響企業行銷策略的變項因素。故本研究的目的如下:

- (一) 瞭解影響個案中的主要變數。
- (二)以實際案例導入中國古籍經典《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點,分析企業策略性行銷之關鍵成功變數。
- (三)結合西方「賽局理論」(Game Theory)的學理驗證推導,以驗證《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點在學理上之正確性。

貳、文獻探討

一、鬼谷子概述

鬼谷子在中國歷史上是一位富有神奇色彩的人物,古代縱橫家鼻祖、戰國時期遊說理論的創始人,精研心理揣摩、剛柔之勢及縱橫捭闔之術。「捭闔術」則是戰國時代縱橫家們進行遊說時主要運用之手段,如張弛、動靜、剛柔、方圓、陰陽的相互轉化。《鬼谷子》一書呈現各類智謀權術的應用方式,對當今社會、國家、政治、經濟具有影響深遠的實用價值。因有「捭闔」才有「反應」,內外層層相扣皆有關聯,非單一篇術運用而在靈活整合,故在企業策略性行銷的運用亦是關聯運用。概括《鬼谷子》一書的中心思想就在「揣摩」二字,懂得揣摩然後做出權變,成敗的關鍵取決於智慧,只有懂得巧妙掌握人們的心理,並善於運用策略,對於指導商業賽局將大有助益。

二、策略性行銷概述

(一)目標行銷

行銷學者 Kotler Philip(1991)在其所著的 Marketing Management 一書中論及現代策略性行銷(the modern strategic marketing)的核心為 STP 行銷,即市場區隔(Segmentation)、目標市場 (Targeting Market)、定位(Positioning),行銷理論將這三者合稱為「目標行銷」又稱為「STP」,為 企業在市場上策略性行銷之架構。STP 行銷即目標行銷(target marketing)在於企業應先區分主 要的市場區隔,然後選擇這些區隔中的一個或多個,針對所選定的每一個市場區隔發展合適的行銷策略,圖表(2-1)為目標行銷的三個主要步驟。





圖 2-1 策略行銷三步曲

資料來源:休閒事業管理:張宮熊,林鉦棽著,揚智文化,2002年

(二) 行銷組合

現代的行銷策略是以消費者為導向重視消費者的需求,完整的行銷應有效整合四個構面即產品(product)、價格(price)、通路(place)、促銷(promotion)簡稱「4P」又稱為行銷組合。

三、賽局理論

(一) 賽局理論概述

賽局理論(Game Theory)是透過「玩遊戲」而獲得的人生競爭知識的理論,又稱遊戲理論、對策論、博弈論、競局理論、對局論等,為策略性思考的系統邏輯方法,藉由系統性的思考方式來制定策略。賽局理論於 1944 年由美國普林斯頓大學教授 John von Neumann 和 Oskar Morgenstern 合著《賽局理論與經濟行為》(Theory of Games and Economic Behavior)一書發展出來的零合賽局後,將賽局理論應用於經濟行為的分析。直到 1950 年,由 John Nash 發展出零合賽局及提出一般性均衡,又稱「納許均衡」(Nash Equilibrium)後,賽局理論才得以發揚光大,成為一門顯學。Ho &Weigelt 以策略臍帶(Strategic)形容參賽者間的連帶互動關係,並指出賽局理論可為正規的思考方法以協助分析、預測競爭對手的策略行動。D.M.Kreps 亦指出賽局理論對經濟最偉大之貢獻在於幫人們提出問題的重心,且提供策略模型有效解決應對的競爭問題。賽局理論提供一個有系統的方法,分析這種相互影響的策略,藉由推導以決定賽局參與者在理性追求自身利益前提下,該採取何種決策?以及如此選擇會產生什麼結果,如企業在策略性行銷採取何種方案方能達成對其有利的形勢或策略目標。(張宮熊, 2009)

(二) 賽局理論的基本元素:

賽局理論主要是研究參賽者間策略行為(Strategic Behavior)互動的關係(Interaction),故不同的賽局類型將產生不同的結果(梁文貴 1998)。基本元素包括:1.誰是參賽者(Player) 2.所有參賽者可以選擇的行動策略(Strategy) 3.所有參賽者的報酬函數(Utility)

(三)賽局理論的內涵與應用

賽局理論是一種策略的相互依存狀況,你的「選擇」即「策略」,將會得到什麼結果是取決於另一方有目的的參賽者之選擇,任何一場賽局具有決策權的參賽者構成一個決策主體。賽局理論在邏輯推演上可說是數學模式的衍生應用,其內涵為研究互動形式的決策模式。賽局被廣泛應用於各個領域案例的模擬分析,如企業間的價格競爭策略或商業談判等,部分學者結合賽局理論應用之研究(如:張宮熊、黃凱揚、楊秋紋,2004;張宮熊、呂維恭、蔡宜儒,2004;張宮熊、黃耀慶、林景汶,2004;張宮熊、蘇愛玲、鄭靜雯,2004;張文郎,2006;葉信宏,2007;黃嘉怡,2007;賴偉正,2008)。



參、研究方法

本研究主要是透過「文獻整理」與「個案分析」,以蒐集研究相關的原始資料、次級資料、 文獻資料、國內外專業書籍、期刊、網路資訊、學術論文等文獻,作為理論延伸的學習。以描述、 解釋、演繹、歸納出結論,運用鬼谷子學說在企業策略性行銷及運用賽局理論之推演,將個案實 務與相關理論做學術性探討。

肆、個案研究

個案 A 公司所產製的大豆製品含高營養價值,可吸引已經了解營養對健康的重要性之消費者,並進入更多關心健康的消費者心中。制定有效的行銷策略是企業成功的關鍵,從行銷組合 4P 之間的關聯性作為企業推展的延伸。產品的製造、價格的訂定、通路的佈局與促銷的推廣,其擁有的資源與重要性並非相同,行銷活動的作法就有所不同。只要突顯公司最優勢的產品或是價格、通路、促銷,從行銷 4P 取其中 1P 做為經營的核心價值。研究個案以《鬼谷子》掉闔篇、反應篇運用在企業策略性行銷之研究為經,並以賽局學理進行推導驗證之應用為緯,以證實鬼谷子哲理之可行性與實務個案之實踐性。

一、《鬼谷子》捭闔篇:剛柔弛張術

「捭闔」是春秋戰國時期縱橫家進行遊說時的主要指導思想,也是遊說時應採取積極或消極兩種截然不同的對策。

(一) 剛柔弛張術在定價策略之運用

《鬼谷子·捭闔篇》曰:「聖人之在天下也,自古及今,其道一也。變化無窮,各有所歸。或陰或陽,或柔或剛,或開或閉,或弛或張。」

(二)背景分析

95 年某天新竹來了陌生經銷商的代表,經他自我介紹並說明來意,A 公司大概了解狀況這是一家「潛在客戶」,但與新竹的經銷商甲是競爭對手。經銷商乙成立較晚客源相對也較少,但常常有顧客問及經銷商乙有沒有販賣 A 公司的產品?次數多了而引起經銷商乙的好奇,於是經銷商乙間接從經銷商甲處得知屏東 A 公司的地址。為了滿足消費者的需求,這位經銷商乙代表遠從新竹來到屏東 A 公司處接治產品事宜。

交涉的過程在一來一往,雙方無法在價位推動提案,在不斷溝通的過程中後來運用了恰到 好處的妥協變成解決問題的妥協解,成為自己獲得有利的談判位置,最終成為最大的贏家,亦 是《鬼谷子·捭闔篇》「剛柔弛張術」的運用。A公司應允給予經銷商乙與經銷商甲是同等級的 產品、價格微降。這是一個共同決策的過程,結果是棋局雙贏,根據對方和自己的具體情形做 出權變的方法,在商業競爭中巧妙的運用逆向思維成功以退為進的價格策略。

(三)審局推演

1.賽局應用:囚犯困境之協調賽局

2. 賽局假設與說明

- (1)通常供應商給予經銷商一定幅度的折讓,此為行業特性。若經銷商接受購買,雙方利潤分別為 (π_1,Ω_1) ;若經銷商不接受,買賣不成,雙方利潤分別為(0,0)。
- (2)若經銷商要求更高折讓(-a),供應商退讓應允給予,經銷商亦下單買入,此時雙方利潤分別為 $(\pi_1 a, \Omega_1 + a)$;假若經銷商最後不買,以此作為向其他供應商談判降價的籌碼,則供應商會因此而蒙受往後(a)的議價空間,雙方利潤分別為(-a,0)。

3. 賽局推演

- (1)對經銷商乙而言,當供應商依行業特性給予正常折讓,經銷商會傾向於購買 $(\Omega_1>0)$ 。
- (2)對經銷商乙而言,當供應商依行業特性給予更大折讓(a),經銷商會傾向於購買 $(\Omega_1+a>0)$ 。
- (3)對供應商甲而言,當經銷商傾向於購買時,供應商宜給予正常折讓 $(\pi_1 > \pi_1 a)$ 。



(4)對供應商甲而言,當經銷商傾向於不購買時,供應商宜給予正常折讓 (0>-a),避免落入「危險協調」之境,蒙受更大損失。

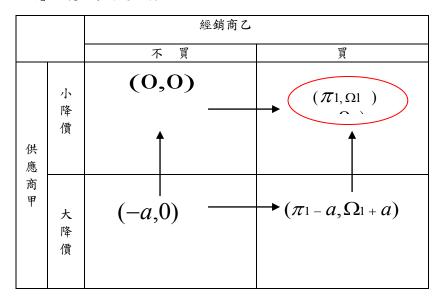


表 4-1 剛柔弛張術之囚犯困境協調賽局

 π_1 :表供應商甲商品小降價,經銷商乙也願意下單購買的報酬。 Ω_1 :表經銷商乙願意下單購買,供應商甲商品小降價時的報酬。

-a:表供應商甲的損失。a:表經銷商乙的利得。

4.討論與管理意涵

依照上述的賽局推演會產生 Nash 均衡解,廠商進行折讓,經銷商則願意購買。商場競爭是一種潛關係的規則,在於《鬼谷子·捭闔篇》「剛柔弛張術」的運用,交涉的過程,「進」是需要努力,「退」亦需智慧用心,進退之間彰顯智慧,以退為進的逆向思維最後卻贏最多,雙贏的合作哲學是為雙方創造出合作的機會。

二、《鬼谷子》捭闔篇:守司門戶術

(一)守司門戶術在產品策略之運用

《鬼谷子·捭闔篇》曰:「籌策務類之終始,達人心之理,見變化之朕焉,而守司其門產。」 又說:「聖人守司其門戶,審察其先後,度權量能,校其技巧短長。」

智者處理事情時,不但要考察事件從開始到結束的發展歷程,及時瞭解人的思想規律,隨時 觀察事物的發展變化,方能把握住事物變化的關鍵環節,分析其優劣長短以求得因勢利導進而控 制態勢。

(二)背景分析

一個歷久不衰長期成功的企業必定有其核心能力,任何企業必須先找到自己的核心競爭力, 方能在市場競爭中取得勝利。商品能夠成為長銷商品,是必須站在顧客的觀點與市場環境快速的 變化及時掌握並且快速反應,才是符合與滿足消費者不斷改變中的需求。案例 A 公司提供的商 品品質好,也為健康帶來價值成為對消費者的核心利益,是守司商品核心利益(Core Benefit)之門 戶。超乎期待就是「滿意」,讓人滿意的品質是用來建立顧客忠誠度的利器。

(三)賽局推演

1. 賽局應用:單邊囚犯困境



2.賽局假設與說明

- (1)當業者丙提供核心品質產品時,消費者丁因沒有需求而拒絕購買,此時雙方的報酬分別為 $(-\pi_2, 0)$;若消費者丁後來覺得此核心品質產品合乎自己的需求轉而願意購買,則雙方的報酬分別為 (π_2, Ω_2) 。
- (2)當消費者丁購買了業者丙的非核心品質產品,而影響到自己的利益,此時雙方的報酬分別為 $(\pi_2 + \Omega_2, -\Omega_2)$ 。最後沒有買和賣的問題,因消費者丁拒絕買非核心品質的產品,而業者丙也不再提供非核心品質的產品,此時雙方的報酬則分別為 (0,0)。

3. 審局推演

- (1)對消費者丁而言,當業者丙提供核心品質產品時,消費者丁會從拒絕購買趨向購買 $(\Omega_2 > 0)$ 。
- (2)對消費者丁而言,當業者丙提供非核心品質產品時,消費者丁轉而拒絕購買 $(-\Omega_2 < 0)$ 。
- (3)對業者丙而言,當消費者丁傾向願意購買產品,業者丙因本身利潤考量,轉而提供非核心品質產品 $(\pi_2 < \pi_2 + \Omega_2)$ 。
- (4)對業者丙而言,當消費者丁傾向拒絕購買產品時,業者丙也因而不再提供非核心品質產品 $(-\Omega_2 < 0)$ 。

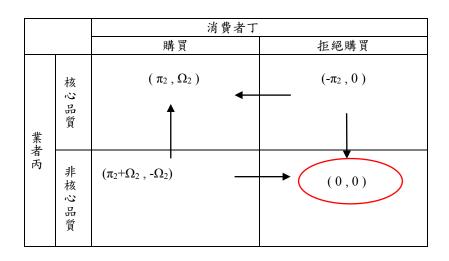


表 4-2 守司門戶術之單邊囚犯困境賽

 π_2 :表業著丙生產核心品質的產品,經銷商丁願意購買的報酬。

 Ω_2 :表經銷商丁願意購買,而業者丙也生產核心品質產品的報酬。

-π2:表業者丙生產核心品質的產品,經銷商丁卻拒絕購買,因此,業者丙為負報酬。

 $-\Omega_2$:表經銷商丁願意購買產品,但業者丙卻提供非核心品質的產品,因此,經銷商 丁為負報酬。

4.討論與管理意涵

依照上述的賽局推演會產生最佳優勢策略。消費者丁為維護自己的權益而拒絕購買非核心品質之產品,業者丙因沒有人願意購買就沒有利潤,就沒有生產非核心產品的理由,雙方報酬趨向(0,0)。「守司門戶術」在於觀察事物的發展變化要從開始到結束的歷程,瞭解人們的思想規律,分析其優劣長短和因果關係,以求得因勢利導,方能把握住事物變化的關鍵環節。

三、《鬼谷子·反應篇》欲取反與術

「反應」是一種「投石問路」、「拋磚引玉」的遊說技巧,是指遊說者在進行遊說時對於自己 不太了解對方的情況,首先要投石問路,觀察對方的反應,從細微處探究出對方的真實思維和意 圖,再根據情況進而說服。

(一)欲取反與術在促銷策略之運用

《鬼谷子•反應篇》曰:「欲高反下,欲取反與。」

你想要從對方那裡得到些什麼,就要先給他些什麼。而智者所給予別人的和從別人那裡獲



得的,對自己的價值而言,其價值是不同的,這是不等價的交易,就看使用者的智慧和策略。

(二)背景分析

國內或國際商展每年都會舉辦展覽活動,可提供中小企業以最經濟的方式和機會接觸潛在的顧客和合作夥伴,透過商展活動的宣傳,獲得可能的商機。

- (1)2009 年案例 A 公司應客家委員會之邀於屏東六堆客家文化園區參與南區客家美食展。
- (2)2009年四月於高雄世貿中心參與健康素食美食展。
- (3)2010年參與台北世貿中心舉辦的國際客家美食展。

三場的美食展 A 公司提供免費試吃的活動還有商品促銷,吸引了人潮也帶動商品的促銷。從客戶心理學角度,免費是最好的定價,對於免費誰都難以拒絕。免費試吃的活動是在發現「潛在顧客」也是提升消費者對商品的了解,透過現場的試吃以增強消費者對商品產生好感與記憶。「欲取反與」的目的是「以小搏大」,所以商場的成功不是來自精算學而是客戶心理學,瞭解客戶真正的需求和建立良好的客戶關係,讓顧客願意主動購買商品,並從「潛在顧客」變成「長期顧客」。行銷策略必須設定的精準才能觸及消費者的需求,間接策略試圖製造出「雙贏」的局面,這亦符合雙方的利益,讓顧客覺得撿到便宜會比直接促銷更有效。《鬼谷子》「欲取反與術」是從大局的觀念和長遠的利益出發,萬事萬物都存在著關連性,只要能帶來長期的效益,有時等待是一種智慧,「欲取反與術」的背後隱藏著更大的商機。

(三)賽局推演

- 1.賽局應用:福利賽局
- 2.賽局假設與說明
- (1)當業者戊於展售活動沒有給予贈品時,消費者己沒有贈品的誘因而不願意下單購買,此時雙方的報酬分別為 (π_3,Ω_3) ;若業者戊轉換方式給予贈品促銷,但消費者己雖拿了贈品沒有受到誘因鼓勵趨向不下單購買,此時雙方的報酬分別為 $(\pi_3-a+lpha,\Omega_3+a)$ 。
- (2) 當消費者已願意下單購買產品,而業者戊也給予贈品,此時雙方的報酬分別為 $(\pi a + \beta, \Omega + \beta)$;但業者戊因消費者 $\pi 3$ 己願意購買產品,基於利潤考量反而趨向不給予贈品,此時雙方的報酬分別為 $(\pi 3 + a, \Omega 3 a)$ 。當消費者在業者不提供贈品時,又趨向不購買,因此,又回歸到原點,雙方的報酬分別為 $(\pi 3, \Omega_3)$ 。

3.賽局推演

$$a$$
 表贈品價值, α 表預期消費者下訂價值, β 表消費者實際下訂價值 $\alpha>0$, $\beta>\alpha>a>0$

$$\pi_{\beta} = \theta[r \pi_3 + (1-r)(\pi_3 + a)]$$

$$+ (1-\theta)[r(\pi_3 - a + \alpha) + (1-r)(\pi_3 - a + \beta)]$$

$$= \theta[r \pi_3 + (1-r)(\pi_3 + a) - r(\pi_3 - a + \alpha) - (1-r)$$

$$(\pi_3 - a + \beta)] + r(\pi_3 - a + \alpha) + (1-r)$$

$$(\pi_3 + \beta)$$

$$= \theta[r(\pi_3 - \pi_3 + a - \alpha) + (1-r)(\pi_3 + a - \pi_3 + a - \beta)]$$

$$+ r(\pi_3 - a + \alpha) + (1-r)(\pi_3 + \beta)$$

$$= \theta[r(a - \alpha) + (1-r)(a - \beta)]$$

$$+ r(\pi_3 - a + \alpha) + (1-r)(\pi_3 + \beta)$$



$$\frac{d\pi_{rk}}{d\theta} = r(a-\alpha) + (1-r)(2a-\beta) = 2a-\beta + (\beta-\alpha)r = 0$$

$$r = \frac{\beta - 2a}{\beta - \alpha} > 0$$

$$\therefore \beta > \alpha > a > 0, 0 < r < 1$$

$$\beta \ge 2a$$
, $2a \ge \alpha$ $\alpha \le 2a \le \beta$, $\frac{\alpha}{2} \le a \le \frac{\beta}{2}$

贈品
$$a$$
需介於 $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ 和 $\frac{\beta}{2}$ 之間

$$\pi$$
ਟ = $r[\theta \cdot \Omega_3 + (1-\theta)(\Omega_3 + a)]$
+ $(1-r)[\theta(\Omega_3 - a) + (1-\theta) + (\Omega_3 + \beta)]$

$$= r[\theta \cdot \Omega_3 - \theta(\Omega_3 - a) + (1 - \theta) + (\Omega_3 + a) - (1 - \theta) + (\Omega_3 + \beta)]$$
$$+ \theta(\Omega_3 - a) + (1 - \theta)(\Omega_3 + \beta)$$

$$= r[a\theta + (1-\theta)(a-\beta)] + \theta(\Omega_3 - a) + (1-\theta)(\Omega_3 + \beta)$$

$$\frac{d\pi c}{dr} = a\theta + (1-\theta)(a-\beta)$$

$$= a - \beta + \theta\beta = 0$$

$$\theta = 1 - \frac{a}{\beta}$$

$$\beta > \alpha > a > 0$$

$$0 < \theta < 1$$

當r 大於 $\frac{\beta - 2a}{\beta - \alpha}$ 時,業者傾向給予贈品以鼓勵消費者購買,

反之,當
$$r$$
小於 $\frac{\beta-2a}{\beta-\alpha}$ 時,業者傾向不給予贈品。

當
$$\theta$$
大於 $1-\frac{a}{\beta}$ 時,消費者傾向不下單訂購,

當
$$\theta$$
小於 $1-\frac{a}{\beta}$ 時,消費者傾向下單訂購。



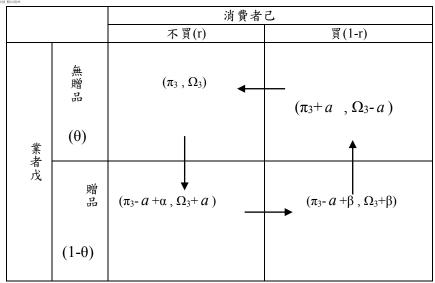


表 4-3 欲取反與術之福利賽局

a:表贈品價值

α:表預期消費者下訂價值 β:表消費者實際下訂價值

 π_3 :表業者戊不提供贈品,經銷商己也不下單購買的報酬。 Ω_3 :表經銷商己不下單購買,業者戊也不提供贈品的報酬。

4.討論與管理意涵

依照上述的賽局推演會產生混合策略 Nash 均衡,均衡結果可能是賽局方格四個項目中的任何一個。但有較高產生的機率的項目是 γ 大於 $\frac{\beta-2a}{\beta-\alpha}$ 時,業者傾向給予贈品以鼓勵消費者購買;

 θ 小於 $1-\frac{a}{\beta}$ 時,消費者傾向下單訂購。「欲取反與術」創造關係專屬投資行為,也創造了合作機會。免費試吃的活動是單向的承諾與付出,甚至是釋放出善意的訊息,讓純粹的交易關係變成可能合作的賽局。

四、《鬼谷子·反應篇》知之始己術

(一) 知之始己術在通路策略之運用

《鬼谷子·反應篇》曰:「知之始己,自知而後知人也。其相知也,若比目之魚;其見形也,若光之與影。」

(二)案例分析

案例A公司在通路策略是從知己而知彼,先了解自身產品的特性,再到區隔的市場找出特殊組織群體的關鍵目標客戶之需求,善用全省宗教信仰的素食組織群體,並配合宅急便與宅配通雨家宅配服務行銷全省,擴張其通路網絡增加銷售領域。為了尋求增加銷售量的方法必須選擇一個關鍵目標市場,產品不但可精準到這一群人還能夠精準到這一群顧客結構。當專注於特別地區、單一區隔的選擇時,通路則是行銷的策略核心,直接接近消費者充分利用目標群體抓住通路帶來的市場利基。

(三)賽局推演

1.賽局應用:沙灘賽局



2.賽局假設與說明

- (1)傳統通路模式的商品一般是透過經銷商、批發商、零售商店最後才到消費者手中,其中付出 的成本、價格的層層剝削、效率的拖延,導致企業的利潤及消費者的權益皆會受損。
- (2)在健康概念普及的現代,蔬食的觀念取代了肉食主義,如豆類製品素有窮人的肉類之稱。黃豆及其他豆類所能提供人類營養需求的資訊亦獲消費者認可,市場需求未被充分滿足,加上講求便利與效率的 e 化時代來臨,宅配服務成了最好的通路服務,也是直效行銷的一個過程,中間層沒有經銷商、批發商及零售商的中介,可因應個人化配送的需求,商品直接配送給消費者可縮短時效與降低市場轉換成本,且提高價格的競爭力、擴大經濟影響力,不但節省流通成本,消費者又可以更優惠的價格獲得商品,加速企業的發展亦促成市場的擴張。

3.賽局推演

(1)消費性商品傳統通路沙灘結構(市場忽略期-既有消費者的市場)

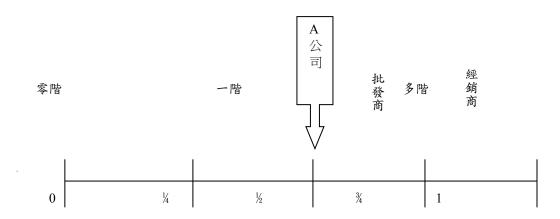


圖 4-4A 消費性商品傳統通路沙灘分佈

傳統消費性商品一般是透過經銷商、批發商、零售商店最後才到消費者手中的傳統通路模式。 (2)消費性商品傳統通路沙灘結構(改變賽局-A公司商品與行銷之市場區隔)

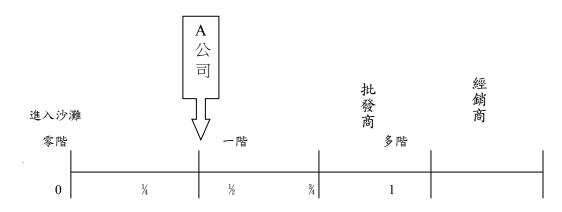


圖 4-4B 消費性商品跨階通路沙灘分佈 ~A 公司的策略

a.市場區隔-便利性及素食人口特殊需求

A公司的策略是尋找競爭者少的特殊需求人口,改變賽局從多階通路行銷跨階到零階通路行銷,通路策略以先佔市場利基減少競爭者進入,拉大競爭優勢。

b.通路策略-藉由宅配的零階通路直效行銷改變賽局結構

企業面臨外在環境的改變,誰掌握了末端通路誰就掌握了市場。通路的變革,也讓多階通 路架構中間商階層數漸漸減少,藉由宅配服務直接將商品販售給消費者,不但節省流通成本,



消費者又可以更優惠的價格購得商品。

4.討論與管理意涵

應用沙灘賽局的推演而知,案例A公司在通路策略運用《鬼谷子》的「知之始已術」,除了先了解本身產品的特性,再到競爭者少的區隔目標市場,找出它們的不同需求,從消費者的角度思維出發,針對其特定的消費習性,改變賽局從多階通路行銷跨階到零階通路行銷,直接貼近終端客戶作為通路行銷的策略核心,故直接行銷的發展儼然成為一種趨勢,零階通路商或一階通路商將是未來通路的主流。

五、鬼谷子與賽局在策略性行銷之應用

經由以上的模式推演,我們得以瞭解企業策略性行銷運用鬼谷子論述結合賽局理論之應用,可協助描述並建構策略模型,亦可成為高階管理者和團隊彼此間討論企業方向與選擇優勢策略。企業所屬產業特性的不同,針對不同產業的差異性,連結關聯性概念發展出各自不同的策略模型,可預測並掌握產業動態變化並運用產業的個別優勢和整體優勢,為其企業策略地圖的因果關係提供一個清楚的架構,做為不同產業參酌的起始點。本研究在食品產業以鬼谷子與賽局在策略性行銷之應用,如表 4-5 所示:

產業別	鬼谷子篇名	鬼谷子篇術	策略性行銷之	賽局應用
			變數 4P	
食	捭闔篇	剛柔弛張術	定價策略	囚犯困境賽局
品	捭闔篇	守司門戶術	產品策略	單邊囚犯困境
產	反應篇	欲取反與術	促銷策略	福利賽局
業	反應篇	知之始己術	通路策略	沙灘賽局

表 4-5 鬼谷子與賽局在策略性行銷之應用

伍、結論

本研究結果簡述如下:

一、剛柔弛張術在定價策略之運用,賽局應用:囚犯困境協調賽局之推演

廠商甲在《鬼谷子·捭闔篇》「剛柔弛張術」的運用,採取積極與消極的兩種策略,進退之間的交涉過程如何恰到好處,最後選擇了妥協解,雙贏的合作哲學則為雙方找到平衡點,即競合(雙贏)的概念。雙贏的概念來自於優勢策略均衡,也是非零合賽局的雙贏策略。

二、守司門戶術在產品策略之運用,賽局應用:單邊囚犯困境賽局之推演

在單邊囚犯兩難賽局中,至少有一人寧可選擇(核心品質,購買)的結果(表 4-2),而不選擇其他對策,並且擁有可能造成對方極大損傷的權利就是拒絕購買。所以在單邊囚犯兩難賽局中, Nash均衡與反覆優勢均衡之一是(非核心品質,不購買),但並不是唯一的優勢策略選擇。好的口碑行銷方能久遠,在產品策略上,業者丙守司核心品質的門戶方能成為長遠的優勢策略均衡。

三、欲取反與術在促銷策略之運用,賽局應用:福利賽局之推演

《鬼谷子》的「欲取反與術」其核心在於欲擒故縱,是一種攻心的方法。免費贈品是先給予後回收「取」是目的,「與」是方法。而福利賽局(The Welfare Game)是建構在雙方賽局參與雙方「一方為捨,另一方為得」的關係上,一方擁有資源而另一方想獲得資源。業者促銷給予消費者免費贈品是期望消費者的行為符合已方的期望,即下單訂購商品。消費者的這一方也希望行為符合業者的期望以獲得贈品。而在賽局的推演產生混合策略 Nash 均衡,均衡結果可能是賽局方格中的任何一個。

四、知之始己術在通路策略之運用,賽局應用:沙灘賽局之推演

應用沙灘賽局的推演而知,A公司的通路策略是先了本身產品的特性,再到競爭者少的區隔市場,找出關鍵目標客戶之特別需求,選擇零階通路,作為通路行銷的策略核心,藉由宅配的零階通路策略改變賽局結構。



由上述案例分析企業策略性行銷之關鍵成功變數,結合西方賽局理論的學理推導,驗證《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點在學理上的正確性與實證結果相近。《鬼谷子》學說的論述觀點不但可以 運用在商業實務,結合賽局理論更能提供一套有系統的方法協助人們預先模擬分析、發展策略並 運用在企業的經營管理上。

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醫療機構對藥品忠誠度影響因素之研究 Exploring the Influencing Factors on Customer Loyalty in Pharmaceutical Industry

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摘要

2009年我國製藥業產值為新台幣 619.1 億元,而同年健保藥價支付總額為 1,323 億元,國資藥廠提供健保 70%的產品卻只獲得 25%的藥品給付額;相較之下,外商藥廠所銷售的藥品,不論是專利或專利已過期的藥品,占整體健保藥品給付總額卻高達 75%之多。長期以來,國資藥廠因受限於資源限制,無法在製藥技術層次上做突破性的變革,多數產商均以生產學名藥為主,產品無法差異化,形成低階技術層次的價格戰,加上健保給付制度的限制,使得國資藥廠競爭力日益薄弱。因此各廠商若想要在這激烈的市場中生存,就應積極尋求與顧客維護良好關係品質,進而建立顧客對產品的忠誠度。

本研究以關係品質作為中介變數,探討影響關係品質的前因因子。關係品質之前因因子包括服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力等三項構面。問卷的發放由四家藥品廠商共八十位業務人員,於例行的行銷訪問時進行。問卷調查對象包括有台灣北部、中部、南部及東部四區的醫學中心、區域醫院、地區醫院與診所等的執業醫師,再配合問卷使用LISREL分析,來驗證影響關係品質前因因子的因果關係。

研究結果證實,藥品供應商的服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力等對醫療院所的關係品質有正 向顯著的影響。良好的關係品質是醫療機構對藥品供應商感到信賴、滿意,對未來的合作表現具 有信心,關係品質的好壞也將影響顧客未來的再購行為。

關鍵字:服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、關係品質、客戶忠誠度。

ABSTRACT

The output value of Taiwan's pharmaceutical industry in 2009 is NT\$ 61.91 billion, while in the same year the National Health Insurance drug payment is amounted to NT\$ 132.3 billion. Taiwan domestic pharmaceutical manufacturers who provided 70% of total drug consumption which accounted for only



25% of the total drug payment amount; in contrast, no matter their drug patent are expired or not, foreign pharmaceutical manufacturers accounted for more than 75% of total NIH drug payment amount. Over the years, due to the limited resources, Taiwan domestic pharmaceutical manufacturers can hardly achieve significant breakthrough in the pharmaceutical technology. The NIH System's payment scheme reduces their investment motivation. Thus, the majority of them are producing generic drugs, which can not be differentiated and result in price competition. As a result, the companies who want to survive in this fierce market must actively seek to maintain good relations with customers by producing high quality products and establishing customer loyalty.

This study integrated service quality, brand traits and expertise capabilities as the independent variables to explore their impacts on relationship quality and further more on customer loyalty.

The samples were drawn from medical centers, regional hospitals, district hospitals and clinics. 377 effective respondences were collected by 80 salespersons. This study adopted Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) as the statistical analysis method to test the hypotheses and examine the structural model.

The major conclusions include: (1) The pharmaceutical manufacturers' service quality, brand traits and expertise capabilities have a significantly positive impact on relationship quality; (2) The relationship quality has a significantly positive impact on customer loyalty.

Keyword: Service Quality, Brand Traits, Expertise Capabilities, Relationship Quality, Customer Loyalty.

壹、緒論

台灣製藥業由於競爭廠商眾多,且皆以生產同質性學名藥為主,產品無法差異化,導致各廠商皆以低價行銷策略為導向,加上健保藥價支付制度的影響,左右製藥業發展甚深。在面臨如此競爭環境下,促使本研究的動機欲探討國資藥廠在面臨製藥技術的瓶頸及狹隘市場因素下,如何尋求與客戶建立更好的關係品質,進而探討影響關係品質的前因因子,以提升顧客對產品的忠誠

度。

Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry (1985)認為服務品質是衡量顧客對服務品質的主觀知覺,是一種態度,並且是由顧客對於服務期望與知覺之間的差距來判定,也就是以顧客實際接受服務後的感受,來做為衡量的依據。就藥品供應商對顧客的服務品質而言,藥品行銷人員主要是提供專業的服務,並協助醫師使病人能獲得安全、有效的藥物治療。藥品的行銷必須透過醫藥代表來完成,所以醫藥代表是影響服務品質的主要因素。因此,藥界若能瞭解、掌握醫師對醫藥銷售人員服務品質的認知與看法,則對於提昇服務品質及顧客關係之建立與維持,必定有莫大的助益。

Dodds, Monroe & Grewal (1991)提出顧客在選擇商品時,傾向根據品牌形象來推論或維持產



品的知覺品質,品牌形象越好,總體評價越高。Aaker (1996)指出一個建立良好的品牌形象,可以增加顧客的偏好與使用,提高顧客滿意度,並提供顧客強烈的購買理由,進而強化顧客對該品牌的忠誠度。基於醫藥產業不同於一般產業,產品均使用在人體上,所以產品之安全性及有效性是醫師處方行為的重要考量依據。因此,為了確保藥品的品質,選擇具有良好品牌特性的供應商,是醫療機構在採購藥品時最優先考量的因素之一。因此,供應商需持續關注產品品質、特性,顧客滿意度及顧客忠誠度,因為這些都是使品牌成為市場領導者的關鍵因素。

由於藥品的銷售通路與其他商品有很大的不同,必須經由醫師、醫療院所或藥局才能夠調劑或銷售,於是藥品銷售人員成為醫師在新藥資訊與治療藥物建議的重要來源(Rapp,Ahearne, Mathieu&Schillewaert,2006)。一個成功的藥品銷售人員,必須能提供最新、最正確的藥品專業資訊,由於藥品市場上不斷地推出新的產品,銷售人員所提供給顧客有關藥品的資訊,將是影響顧客能否接受該藥品的關鍵因素。銷售人員主要的目標是與顧客建立長期且良好的關係,當顧客對銷售人員專業能力的認知愈高,則愈能提高顧客的滿意程度。因此,提昇銷售人員的專業能力並加強自我道德規範,以促進顧客的信任與滿意,是醫藥產業銷售人員能成功影響顧客的重要因素。

關係品質在關係行銷所扮演的地位實屬重要,其結果的好壞將影響顧客未來的行為 (Garbarino & Johnson,1990); Anderson & Gerbing(1988)提出,高的關係品質是指顧客對服務人員產生信任,並對服務人員未來的表現也有信心。因此,創造及強化與顧客間的關係,建立良好的關係品質,才是贏得顧客忠誠度之有效途徑。因此,在競爭激烈的醫藥市場中,創造出顧客忠誠度已成為供應商贏得市場佔有率、提高競爭優勢的關鍵因素。

綜合上述之論述,本研究希望透過藥品供應商所提供的服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、對關係品質的關聯性與影響來探討醫療機構對藥品忠誠度的影響因素,此研究與過去之研究的不同 點與預期貢獻說明如下:

- 一、過去曾有文獻研究醫師處方行為,提出業務人員的專業能力、服務品質、道德行為、關係結合方式這四個構面會影響關係品質(Crosby et al., 1990; Lagace et al., 1991; Liang & Wang 2006)。本研究運用服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力這三個構念做為前置因子,來探討其對顧客關係品質的影響是否顯著,進而探討是否有顯著影響顧客對產品的忠誠度。
- 二、影響顧客對產品忠誠度的因素眾多,本研究期望藉由問卷式的調查,探討國內醫療機構對於 使用藥品的關鍵影響因素,以做為業界研擬產品開發及行銷策略擬定之參考依據。

貳、文獻探討

本研究係以服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力這三個構面做為前置因子,探討其對顧客關係品質的關聯性,及關係品質與客戶忠誠度的關聯性;進而探討關係品質是否顯著影響顧客對產品的 忠誠度,並提出研究假設。

一、關係品質之前置因素

Keating (2003)認為服務品質是關係品質不可或缺的要件,良好的服務品質是發展良好關係



二、服務品質

的基本前提;Chakrabarty (2007)認為服務品質與關係品質互有顯著影響,而且影響顧客的滿意度。Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha & Bryant (1996)認為,服務品質、顧客滿意度與客戶忠誠度間的關係互有正向影響。由此可知,在醫藥市場中,顧客與藥品供應商之間欲維持良好的關係品質,須建立在藥品供應商能夠提供良好的服務品質(有形性、可靠性、反應性、保證性、關懷性)。

設計優良的品牌,擁有與眾不同的形象,會使客戶留下獨特的印象。當品牌伴隨著形象價值愈高,只要能符合顧客的需求,關係品質也會愈好。 Jamal (2001)指出品牌形象與自我形象相符時,品牌形象會與顧客滿意度有強烈的相關,因此,品牌形象對於客戶忠誠度的影響比對顧客滿意度的影響更大(Abdullah, Nasser&Husain, 2000)。就醫藥市場來說,供應商所提供的產品,品牌形象良好、產品品質穩定、價格合理且服務專業,讓顧客感到非常滿意,則此品牌在顧客的心目中就會留下良好印象,並信賴此一品牌,進而與該品牌建立長久且忠誠的關係。

專業能力是顧客與銷售人員間溝通的基礎,能提出解決問題的方法並提高顧客的價值 (Harmon & Coney, 1982) ; Lagace (1991)指出,專業能力對於信賴及滿意均有顯著正向影響。 Crosby et al. (1990)認為專業能力是影響顧客信賴的顯著因子,與知覺關係品質和銷售效果存在中度且正向影響力。因此,專業能力不僅有助於關係品質的提升,更是銷售人員能成功影響顧客的重要因素。

良好的關係品質是醫療機構對藥品供應商產生信任,並對藥品銷售人員的表現感到滿意(蔡銀海, 2004); Crosby, Evans & Cowles (1990)認為,銷售人員經由良好的關係品質能減少顧客的不安和不確定感,增加顧客的信賴並且持續令顧客滿意,提高顧客的承諾。Kim & Cha (2002) 指出關係品質會正向影響購買頻率、關係持續及口碑。

因此, Tam & Wong (2001)認為未來銷售機會必須依賴關係品質;當藥品供應商的關係品質愈具優勢,且醫療機構對供應商滿意度愈高時,顧客的再購意願也將提高,並產生口碑及向他人推薦等衍生行為。

綜合上述之文獻回顧,影響關係品質的主要前置因數可歸納包括:服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力,結果變項則為客戶忠誠度。因此,本研究將透過上述之理論基礎,建立一整合性的模型 架構,深入探討並驗證影響關係品質之前置因素,及其對關係品質與客戶忠誠度之因果關係。

服務品質是顧客對服務的期望與接受服務後實際知覺的差距,是交易過程中所產生的服務優劣程度(Parasuraman et al., 1988),而顧客通常會以過去的購買經驗、口碑或廣告來建立對服務的期望(Kotler & Keller ,2006)。Keating (2003)指出服務品質是影響關係品質不可或缺的條件,而服務人員主導著服務品質的高低,透過服務人員的接觸來提高顧客滿意度(Cosby et al.,1990)。因此,服務人員與顧客間的互動關係是服務品質的關鍵,藥品供應商如果能瞭解顧客(醫療機構)對服務品質的認知與期望,定能在提昇服務品質方法上獲益良多。本研究採用 Parasuraman et al.(1988)所提出「有形性」、「可靠性」、「反應性」、「保證性」、「關懷性」五個衡量構面,以顧客的立場與觀點來評估服務品質的優劣。



1.有形性:包含硬體設施、文宣以及服務人員的儀態、禮貌、語氣。

2.可靠性:服務人員的可靠度與一致性,能正確提供所承諾的服務,及可信賴的服務績效。

3.反應性:服務人員幫助顧客解決問題的意願、提供迅速服務的能力及對工作的積極參與度。

4.保證性:服務人員具備的專業能力、態度及服務提供能獲得顧客信賴的能力。

5.關懷性:服務人員應能提供顧客個人化服務與關懷,並尊重顧客的權益。

Chakrabarty et al. (2007)指出,服務品質與關係品質相互顯著影響,而且影響顧客的滿意度。在醫藥市場中,藥品供應商與醫療機構欲維持良好的關係品質,除了廠商要提供優質的藥品、建立專業的業務團隊外,更需提供好的服務,才能讓顧客覺得有價值,並與其他競爭廠商有差異性。Fornell et al. (1996)指出服務品質、顧客滿意度與客戶忠誠度間的關係互有正向影響。因此,本研究提出假設一:

H1:服務品質對關係品質有顯著正向的影響。

三、品牌特性

品牌形象是對品牌名稱或印象的回應,是產品品質的象徵(Magid, Cox&Cox, 2006),是顧客銓釋品牌信號的結果,也是顧客購買決策的重要依據(Keller,1993);Dodds et al.,(1991)認為品質水準是消費者依據產品優點所累積而成的評斷;Jun, Mazumdar & Raj (1999)認為具有較高層級技術的核心品牌態度,有利於品牌的延伸;Riley, Ehrenberg,Castleberry&Barnard (1997)指出品牌態度是評估消費者購買行為的重要指標;Shular (2005)認為,品牌的獨特性是決定該品牌成功與否的關鍵。在眾多品牌特性相關的研究中,本研究採用「品牌形象」、「品質水準」、「技術層次」、「品牌態度」四個構面來衡量品牌特性。

Fournier (1998)認為品牌形象的關鍵因素是品牌人格,因為品牌人格的聯想會將品牌深入消費者的生活中,有助於促進品牌與顧客之間的關係。品質水準,是對產品品質的總體評估 (Olshavsky & Miller,1995),是對產品的價值判斷(Holbrook & Corfman, 1985);József (2002)認為產品品質水準愈高,代表達成顧客需求的程度越高,則顧客的滿意度也愈高。Jun, Mazumdar & Raj (1999)認為較高層次技術的核心品牌態度,有利於品牌的延伸。品牌態度是消費者對品牌的整體評估 (Wilkie, 1986),不僅能影響消費者的購買行為(Neal, 2000),也影響了消費者對品牌的忠誠度(Arjun, 1999),更間接影響品牌權益、品牌價值與品牌的市場佔有率(Fishbein, 1963)。 Aaker(1996)認為形象良好的品牌,會令顧客留下獨特鮮明的印象,並能提供顧客強烈的購買理由,增加顧客的偏好與使用度,提高信任與滿意度,進而強化顧客對該品牌的忠誠度。因此,本研究提出假設二:

H2:品牌特性對關係品質有顯著正向的影響。

四、專業能力

專業能力是指業務人員在專業知識、經驗與整體能力上的表現(Palmaiter, Dant, Grewal & Evans, 2006);是可以提昇雙方交易關係的能力 (Belonax, Newell&Plank, 2007);是顧客與業務人員間溝通的基礎,可提出問題的解決方案與提高顧客的價值(Harmon & Coney, 1982);是業



務人員能成功影響顧客購買決策的重要因素。醫藥產業是一個極具專業性的行業,藥品銷售人員必須經常且密集的接觸顧客,透過雙向溝通,才可讓彼此關係更緊密,顧客更加信任銷售人員(Duncan & Moriarty, 1998),因此,銷售人員的專業能力是顧客所重視與信賴的。基於上述論點,本研究採用「專業知識」、「溝通能力」、「道德行為」三個構面來衡量專業能力。

Palmaiter et al. (2006)指出,銷售人員的專業能力對關係品質中的信賴與滿意有顯著的正向影響;對醫藥產業而言,藥品銷售人員所提供有關藥品的專業知識,是顧客獲得資訊的重要來源,也是影響顧客能否接受該藥品的關鍵因素。Howe, Hoffman & Hardigree (1994)指出銷售人員的道德特質、顧客導向與銷售績效互有正向影響。Boorom, Goolsby & Ramsey (1998)認為溝通能力與互動強度等個人特質,對銷售績效有顯著的正向關係。Lagace et al. (1991)指出,專業能力與關係品質呈現正相關,因此,本研究提出假設三:

H3:專業能力對關係品質有顯著正向的影響。

五、關係品質

關係品質是衡量企業與顧客關係好壞、強弱的重要指標(Storbacka, Strandvid & Gronroos,1994),它包含雙方各種正面關係的結果,反映出關係的總體程度,以及需求與期望上的滿足程度(Smith,1998)。在服務業中,大部分是經由銷售人員來提供服務,供應商欲達到良好的關係品質,除了要能提供顧客高品質水準的產品及設備外,銷售人員所表現出的服務態度、專業能力等,更扮演著不可或缺的角色。關係品質的良好與否,決定著顧客是否願意再與供應商進行交易行為;良好的關係品質,代表顧客能藉由持續性的滿意,因而產生對銷售人員的信賴與信心(Lagace et al., 1991),也代表顧客願意完全信任銷售人員,繼而消除其不確定性。因此,銷售人員經由良好的關係品質,增加顧客的信賴與滿意度,並提高顧客的承諾,進而達到雙方長期互動的效果。因此,本研究採用「信賴」、「滿意度」、「承諾」三個構面來衡量關係品質。

信賴是關係成功的重要因素,而具有高度信賴的合作關係,能提高雙方長期合作的意願 (Ganesan,1994);當信賴產生後,雙方會建立起維持或延續關係的承諾 (Moorman,Zaltman & Despande,1992)。Zhao,X.,Flynn,B.B.&Roth,A.V.(2007)指出,當供應商與顧客間有較高的關係品質時,對顧客的滿意度會有正向的影響;Essi (2008)指出顧客滿意度影響顧客在未來再購的機會。Bauer, Grether&Leach (2002)認為合作關係間存有承諾時,將影響雙方願意且積極建立穩定、持久的關係,並降低合作關係終止的可能性。以醫藥產業來說,國內醫療機構對藥品使用是相當重視其安全性與專業性,顧客對銷售人員的依賴程度也較高,足見關係品質的重要性。蔡銀海 (2004)的研究結果指出,當製藥廠的關係價值愈具優勢,且顧客對藥廠滿意度愈高時,則與關係品質呈顯著正相關。因此,本研究提出假設四:

H4:關係品質對客戶忠誠度有正向的影響。

六、客戶忠誠度

Lee & Cunningham (1996)指出,客戶忠誠度是指客戶重複購買公司的產品或服務,並且持續不斷,當消費比率越高,即為忠誠度越高的客戶。Cunningham (1956)認為通常以在一段期間內



對特定品牌的購買次數占總購買次數之比率來決定顧客是否忠誠。Zeithaml, Leonard & Parasuraman (1996)提出衡量客戶忠誠度應包含:向他人推薦、口碑、以該廠牌為購物第一選擇,並時常消費等。Kim, Park & Jeong (2004)認為客戶忠誠度是客戶對產品或服務之偏好與願意再次購買的態度。Pandraud, Laurent & Lapersonne (2005)認為當顧客傾向於使用特定的品牌,而且再購率相當高時,這是因為對其品牌建立了良好的忠誠度。因此,本研究採用「再購意願」、「向他人推薦」、「價格容忍」、「交叉購買」四個構面來衡量客戶忠誠度。

Fornell(1992)認為客戶的再購行為是衡量客戶忠誠度最直接的方式;當客戶對產品或服務感到滿意,其對供應商的信任與承諾將會提高客戶再次購買的意願。Selnes (1993)認為忠誠代表客戶對產品與服務的態度,客戶忠誠是因為客戶滿意度高,也是影響客戶實際購買行為的重要因素;而口碑是指客戶願意將產品推薦給他人,顯示該客戶具有高度的忠誠度。Kotler & Keller (2006)認為客戶滿意度高,則會有較長期的忠誠行為;當供應商推出新產品時,會購買的更多,並且會為供應商與產品傳遞良好口碑,對產品價格較不敏感,甚至願意提供產品或服務的相關構想,如此固定的交易,相對付出的成本比新客戶為低。忠誠的顧客會形成一股驚人的行銷力量,積極向他人推薦所使用的產品或服務,成為企業的最佳廣告通路。

叁、研究方法

一、研究架構

本研究主要是探討醫療機構對藥品忠誠度的影響因素,研究變數包括服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、關係品質及客戶忠誠度。透過本研究架構圖可以瞭解,各變對關係品質的關聯性,及對客戶忠誠度的影響。本研究之研究架構如圖1。

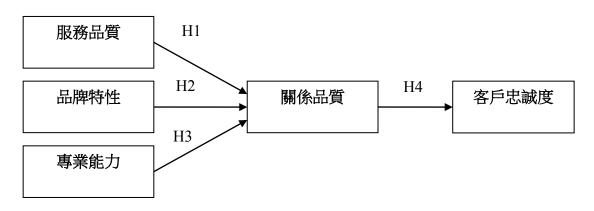


圖 1 本研究之架構

二、量表設計

表2為本研究的各變項:服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、關係品質及客戶忠誠度,量表設計依據與實際提項之說明,並以李克特(Likert)五等尺度進行測量,「非常同意」為5分,「同意」為4分,「無意見」為3分,「不同意」為2分,「非常不同意」為1分,另反向題部分則予以反向計分。



	表 1	谷愛數之重	表設計
變數	次構面	題數	參考文獻
	有型性	4	
nn 24 17 66	可靠性	4	
服務品質 - F1 -	反應性	3	Parasuraman et al.(1988)
Γ1	保證性	3	
	關懷性	3	
	品牌形象	3	Darla Januarahi O Masharia (1006) : Tana P
品牌特性	品質水準	2	Park, Jaworski & MacInnis (1986); Teas &
F2	技術層次	3	Agarwal (2000); Jun,Mazumdar & Raj (1999); Neal(2000)
	品牌態度	2	(1999), Neal(2000)
丰业 从 1.	專業知識	3	Chich also 0 Els (1076): Bassass Caalaha 0
專業能力 F3 -	溝通能力	3	Chisholm & Ely (1976); Boorom, Goolsby & Ramsey(1998); Lagace al., (1991)
13	道德行為	4	- Kainsey(1998) , Lagace al.,(1991)
	信賴	4	
關係品質 F4	滿意度	2	Smith (1998)
	承諾	2	
	再購意願	1	
客戶忠誠度	向他人推薦	2	Granhaldt Martangan - Vriatangar (2000)
F5	價格容忍	1	Gronholdt, Martensen, Kristensen (2000)
ŀ		1	

表 1 各變數之量表設計

三、抽樣架構與資料蒐集

交叉購買

- (一)本研究目的主要探討影響國內醫療機構對藥品忠誠度的關鍵因素,故本研究擬將研究範圍設定於全國北部、中部、南部及東部地區各級醫療機構,包括公私立醫學中心、公私立區域醫院、公私立地區醫院及基層醫療診所,醫師醫療專業科別包括內科、外科、皮膚科、小兒科、泌尿科、家醫科、耳鼻喉科、骨科、婦產科、精神科、眼科及其他科別等。並以2010年中央健康保險局特約醫事服務機構家數統計及中華民國醫師公會全國聯合會2009年醫師會員資料來做為本研究之抽樣基本架構。
- (二)本研究採用區域配額抽樣之方式,抽取調查比例則根據:1.2010年中央健康保險局特約醫事服務機構劃分。2.中華民國醫師公會全國聯合會2009年醫師會員資料將區域劃分為:北區、中區、南區及東區等四區,並依照各區域醫療機構分佈採取區域配額抽樣法發放。北區醫療機構佔全國比率為41.03%,中區為21.51%,南區為34.94%,東區為2.51%。共發放550份問卷,回收337份有效問卷,回收比率為61.27%。問卷的發放與回收由四家藥品廠商共八十位業務人員,於例行的業務訪問時進行。針對西醫執業之機構醫師來填寫問卷。
 - (三)在資料收集方面是以人員調查法,研究者動用四家藥廠業務同仁於例行拜訪時,進行發放。為使發放人員能充分瞭解問卷設計的內涵及意義,研究者本人親自向 四家廠商八十餘位業務同仁進行問卷簡報說明,以期提高問卷之信、效度。 本研究考量問卷題旨與受測者醫師本身因醫務工作較繁忙,且重視私人隱私,故要求問卷發放者,實地到各受測之醫療



院所進行問卷發放,並說明問卷內容及回收時間。本研究問卷採用不記名方式填答。問卷 發放後的二周內採人員拜會進行回收,以提高問卷回收率。問卷發放期間從99年1月至99 年3月,為期近二個月時間進行問卷收集與調查。

表 2 問卷發放及回收情況統計表

	發放份數	回收份數	無效份數	有效份數	有效率(%)
北部	226	144	8	136	60.18
中部	118	89	4	85	72.03
南部	192	110	6	104	54.17
東部	14	12	0	12	85.71
合計	550	355	18	337	61.27

肆、資料分析

本研究主要係採用LISREL (Linear Structural Relation)線性結構關係模式,來分析服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、關係品質、客戶忠誠度的關聯性,進而用以判斷整體模型的適配度,亦即理論架構與觀察資料的適配程度。分析之程序,則係根據Anderson & Gerbing (1988) 所提出的兩階段步驟:先以驗證性因素分析來對測量模式的資料適配進行檢定;其次,再對針對結構模式的資料,進行適配檢定與路徑分析。

一、測量模式分析

(一)測量模式之建構

本研究之初始測量模式如圖 2 所示, V 代表觀察變數的代號。其中 V1~V5 用以衡量服務 品質, V6~V9 是用以衡量品牌特性, V10~V12 是用以衡量專業能力, V13~V15 用以衡量 關係品質, V16~V19 用以衡量客戶忠誠度。c 代表潛在變數間的共變, ɛ1-ɛ19 代表觀察變項的誤差。



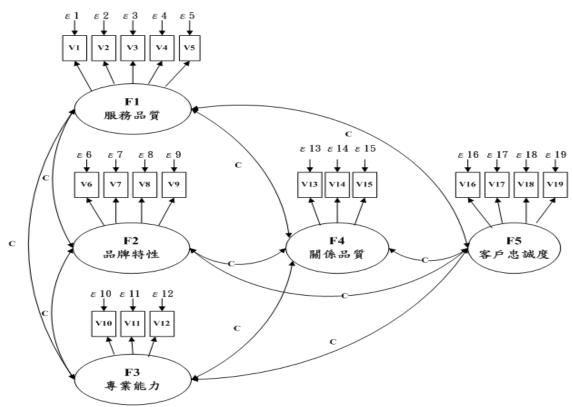


圖 2 初始測量模式

(二)初始測量模式適配度分析

由初始測量模式資料分析結果得知, χ^2 /df-ratio 為 1.49 小於建議值 2 (Hatcher, 1994),而 CFI、GFI、NNFI 皆大於 0.9,顯示此衡量模式具有不錯的適配結果,如表 3 所示。

 $\chi 2/df$ df **CFI** GFI NFI NNFI **RMR** χ2 211.85 0.94 初始測量模式 142 1.49 0.98 0.95 0.98 0.0104 適配度 愈小 < 2 > 0.9 > 0.9 > 0.9 > 0.9 < 0.05 評鑑準則 愈好

表3 初始測量模式適配指標

(三) 測量模式之信、效度分析

1.量表之信度分析

- (a)本研究對於信度量測的使用方法為Cronbach's α 分析法,以Cronbach's α 值來衡量因素的信度及變數間聚集的效果。本研究之各衡量構面,其值介於 $0.55\sim0.90$ 之間,顯示題項間皆具有一致性。
- (b)組合信度分析:組合信度為測量變項信度的組成,表示構念指標的內部一致性,信度愈高顯示這些指標的一致性愈高。本研究之各衡量構面,其組合信度值介於0.80~0.92之間,滿足Fornell & Larcker (1981) 之建議值,均大於0.6之標準。

2.效度分析



(a)在效度的檢測上,本研究係採用驗證性因素分析(Confirmatory Factor Analysis)來衡量量表之收斂效度。由表 4 中之 t-value 來看,所有觀察變數之標準化負荷量均達顯著水準(均大於 1.96),顯示這些路徑係數是顯著存在的,此結果說明這些指標能符合收斂效度(Anderson & Gerbing, 1988)。

表4 量表之信效度分析

		衣す	里衣人后效及为	ן יור עי		
			信	度	效	度
潛在變項	觀察變項	代號	Reliability	組合	標準化	t-value
				信度	因素負荷量	
服務品質				0.92		
	有形性	V1	0.52		0.72	15.10***
	可靠性	V2	0.81		0.90	21.09***
	反應性	V3	0.79		0.89	20.47***
	保證性	V4	0.74		0.86	19.32***
	關懷性	V5	0.58		0.76	16.12***
品牌特性				0.88		
	品牌形象	V6	0.62		0.79	16.57***
	品質水準	V7	0.72		0.85	18.54***
	技術層次	V8	0.59		0.77	15.97***
	品牌態度	V9	0.66		0.81	17.33***
專業能力				0.80		
	專業知識能力	V10	0.71		0.84	17.77***
	溝通能力	V11	0.79		0.89	20.00***
	道德行為	V12	0.24		0.49	8.51***
關係品質				0.85		
	信賴	V16	0.58		0.76	15.81***
	滿意度	V17	0.72		0.85	18.77***
	承諾	V18	0.66		0.81	17.66***
客戶忠誠度				0.83		
	再購意願	V19	0.58		0.76	15.85***
	向他人推薦	V20	0.67		0.82	17.44***
	價格容忍度	V21	0.41		0.64	12.44***
	交叉購買	V22	0.52		0.72	14.39***

註: *** 代表具有α=0.001的顯著水準

(b)區別效度:本研究將針對相關係數大於0.76以上的兩個變數進行檢驗,相關係數越高,表示此兩變數越有可能不具區別效度。其中「服務品質」與「關係品質」間的相關係數為0.77、「關係品質」與「客戶忠誠度」間的相關係數為0.91,具有較高之相關性。經限定與非限定模式之卡方差異檢定後,其卡方值差異分別為153.48及22.18(df=1),P值均小於0.001,分析結果顯示本研究量表應均具區別效度。

二、結構模式分析

(一)結構模式適配度分析

由結構模式適配度指標分析結果得知,結構模式在各項適配指標, χ^2 /df-ratio 為 1.56 小於 建議值 2,CFI=0.98、NFI=0.95、NNFI=0.98 均大於 0.9,RMR 為 0.0118,顯示此結構模



式具有不錯的適配結果,如表 5。整體而言,此結構模式架構的適配度已達到要求的標準。 經過結構模式與測量模式之卡方差異性檢定,顯示卡方差異值為 14.37,經查表得知小於 自由度 4 的臨界值 18.467,顯示不具顯著性差異,此意謂結構模式具相當的解釋力。

表 5 結構模式適配度指標

	Combined model						Structural model			
模式	卡方值	DF	$X^{2/d\mathrm{F}}$	CFI	NFI	NNFI	RMR	RNFI	RPR	RPFI
結構模式	226.22	145	1.56	0.98	0.95	0.98	0.0118	0.99	0.04	0.04
測量模式	211.85	142	149	0.98	0.95	0.98	0.0104			

(二)假設驗證

此部份針對研究假設進行驗證,各潛在變數之間各項因果路徑即為本研究之研究假設 (H1~H5),分析結果如表 6 所示,路徑的驗證結果如圖 3 所示。由表中結果可知,路徑係 數分別為:服務品質→關係品質為 0.32;品牌特性→關係品質為 0.22;專業能力→關係品 質為 0.36;關係品質→客戶忠誠度為 0.8。另,以「客戶忠誠度」為依變數時,其 R² 值為 0.80;以「關係品質」為依變數,其 R² 值為 0.64。根據 Rae and Lawler (2000)認為,在社 會科學研究中, R² 值能大於 0.15 以上,即可視為具有高度支持。此顯示各變數對「關係 品質」確具正向的影響效果。

表 6 結構模式路徑係數

	-			
依變數	自變數	標準化路徑係數	t-value	\mathbb{R}^2
客戶忠誠度	關係品質	0.89	15.54***	0.80
	服務品質	0.32	4.05***	
關係品質	品牌特性	0.22	3.48***	0.64
	專業能力	0.36	5.09***	_

註: ***代表具有 $\alpha \leq 0.001$ 的顯著水準

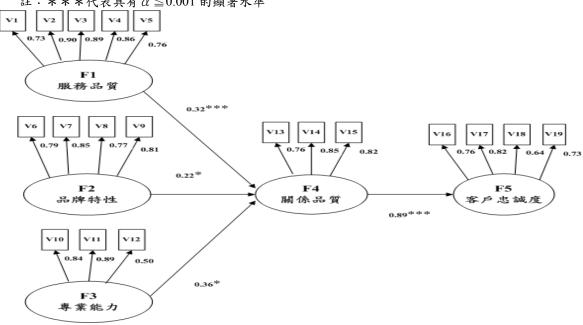


圖 3 結構模式之路徑係數



伍、結論與建議

本章主要是歸納上述資料分析的結果,做成本研究之結論,並針對企業提出建議。

一、研究結論

(一)服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力對關係品質的影響

1、服務品質與關係品質之影響(H1 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,服務品質對關係品質呈現正向的影響。服務品質乃是關係品質的必要條件(Crosby,1990),提供滿足顧客需求的服務或產品,應視為高關係品質所不可或缺的條件。在醫藥市場中,藥品供應商與醫療機構之間欲維持良好的關係品質,除了廠商要提供優質的藥品及建立專業的業務團隊外,也需要提供良好的服務品質,進而使顧客產生信賴,提高顧客滿意度,必能提升與顧客的關係品質。由本研究模式驗證結果發現,服務品質對關係品質呈現正向的影響。

2、品牌特性對關係品質之影響(H2 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,品牌特性對關係品質有顯著正向影響。Aaker (1996)指出一個建立良好的品牌形象,可以增加顧客的偏好與使用,提高顧客滿意度,並提供顧客強烈的購買理由,進而強化顧客對該品牌的忠誠度。就醫藥市場來說,當某供應商所提供的產品,品牌形象良好、產品品質穩定、價格合理且服務專業,讓顧客感到非常滿意,則此品牌在顧客的心目中就會留下良好印象,並相信此一品牌是值得信賴的品牌,進而與該品牌建立長久且忠誠的關係。由研究模式驗證結果發現,藥品供應商品牌特性對關係品質呈現正向的影響。

3、專業能力與關係品質之影響(H3 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,專業能力對關係品質有顯著正向影響。Palmaiter et al.,(2006)指出,銷售人員的專業能力對關係品質中的信賴與滿意有顯著的正向影響,對醫藥產業而言,藥品銷售人員所提供給醫療機構有關藥品的專業知識,是醫護人員獲取資訊的重要來源,也是影響醫護人員能否接受該藥品的關鍵因素。藥品銷售人員所展現的專業知識能力愈好、溝通能力愈強與道德行為愈高,顧客對此銷售人員的滿意度及信賴度相對愈高,進而提升與顧客的關係品質。由本研究模式驗證結果發現,專業能力與關係品質呈現了正向的影響。

4、關係品質對客戶忠誠度之影響(H4 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,關係品質對客戶忠誠度有顯著正向影響。蔡銀海(2004)指出,良好的關係品質是醫療機構對藥品供應商產生信任,並對藥品銷售人員的表現感到滿意的程度。當顧客對產品或服務感到信賴、滿意與並承諾再購後,將可促進發展長期關係的意願與機會,達到長期互動的效果。以醫藥產業來說,國內醫療機構對藥品銷售是相當重視其安全性與專業性,對銷售人員的依賴程度也較高;當關係品質愈具優勢,且滿意度愈高時,顧客的再購意願也將提高,並產生口碑及公開推薦等衍生行為,即客戶忠誠度。由本研究模式驗證結果發現,客戶忠誠度與關係品質呈現了正向的影響。



二、實務建議

從本研究中相關路徑係數結果,理論上都得到驗證,從服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力對關係品質的影響,可發現重要的前因變項的順序為「專業能力」(0.36) >「服務品質」(0.32)>「品牌特性」(0.22),「關係品質」對「客戶忠誠度」(0.89)。從資源基礎理論觀點來談,由研究結果顯示「專業能力」對「關係品質」的影響關係效果最大;「品牌特性」對「關係品質」的影響關係效果最小,其中品牌特性之「技術層次」影響最小,關係係數為0.77。針對此結果,本研究於實務的建議為:

(一)對業界的建議

1、就專業能力的層面

醫藥產業是一個極具專業性的行業,銷售人員的專業能力是顧客所重視與信賴的。藥品銷售人員的專業能力,著重在執行工作時必須具備的專業知識能力、溝通能力、道德行為。由於藥品市場上不斷地推出新的產品,成功的藥品銷售人員必須是能提供最新、最正確的藥品專業資訊,並能協助顧客解決特定問題的專家。因此,藥品銷售人員所提供的資訊,將是影響醫護人員能否接受該藥品的關鍵因素。基於專業能力的重要性,因此建議業者應著重如下:

- (1)對於專業知識的訓練—應注重醫藥相關知識之專業訓練、產品知識、服務內容訓練,使銷售人員在與醫師接觸時得以表現出專業性以利其獲得醫師的信任。
- (2)對於溝通能力的訓練—應定期邀請語言溝通能力專家,就人員的銷售技巧、談判技術及良好的語言表達能力進行在職訓練。
- (3)對於道德行為一藥品是為了解決人類疾病,基於用藥的安全性、有效性,建議業者應對醫藥銷售人員的道德行為加以規範,避免誇大藥物功效、隱瞞藥物可能產生的副作用、不詆 毀或謬誤競爭者的產品資訊。

2、就服務品質的層面

在服務品質對關係品質之影響中的顯示,國內藥品供應商無論在產品品質的可靠性及銷售人員服務品質的可靠性,皆得到多數客戶的信賴與滿意。然而在面臨日益嚴苛的競爭環境下,各企業、廠商仍應加強本身的優勢能力,改善劣勢,藉以拉大與競爭對手的差距。如前所論述,服務品質是較難以量化的,其定義在滿足顧客的需求、符合、超越他們所期望的,並讓顧客感受到滿意,自然容易建立與顧客良好關係品質。

藥品是為了解決人類疾病,為了確保藥品的安全性、有效性,故產品製程與行銷嚴謹度的要求,自然高於其他產業。就藥品供應商對顧客的服務品質而言,藥品行銷人員主要是提供專業的服務,並協助醫師使病人能獲得安全、有效的藥物治療。藥品的行銷必須透過醫藥銷售人員來完成,所以醫藥代表是影響服務品質的主要因素,因此可以說服務品質的好壞取決於人員的可靠性,故藥界在行銷人員的篩選上,除了專業能力的考量外,更應特別著重對業務人員品格教育及信守承諾的要求。就人員的篩選及人才的培育建議如下:

(1)人員的篩選



業界對業務人員的篩選應就人格特質,對不同的醫院屬性、醫院等級應著重銷售人員具備關鍵人格特質。就人格特質而言,應包含:可靠性、同理心、溝通能力、企圖心、親和力、專業能力。藥品供應商在徵才時,應就上述人格特質加以評估篩選,讓不同人格特質的人找到定位,發揮其特長,如此適才適所的人員配置將能使企業做更有效能的運作,並降低人事異動之鉅額成本及穩定顧客對企業的觀感。

(2)人才的培育

就醫藥產業而言,成功的藥品銷售人員必須是能提供最新、最正確的藥品專業資訊。故對 於人才的培育應加強專業知識的訓練與銷售技巧,協商與談判技術訓練,使銷售人員與顧 客接觸時得以表現出專業的「可靠性」,並獲得醫師的信任。

(3)建立銷售人員績效考核制度

a.評估分類:專業能力、業績、溝通能力、態度考核等考核項目。

b.評估要素:銷售額、利潤、目標達成率、企劃能力、判斷能力、紀律性、協調性等考核要素。

3、就品牌特性的層面

「技術層次」路徑係數為 0.77, 是整個模式裡路徑係數最小,顯示醫療機構對品牌特性的技術層次之重視程度,相對較為忽略,突顯國內醫療機構對於國資藥廠製藥的「技術層次」的信賴度,遠不如於跨國性之國際藥廠。長久以來,國資藥廠基於市場規模、研發費用的比率等因素,無法致力於藥品的研發與創新,以致於多以生產學名藥為主,故在製藥「技術層次」上讓客戶留下無法取代品牌藥的刻板印象。故建議業界從政府要求的最新製藥規範 PIC/S 著手,做技術的扎根與研發創新,分別就製程差異、便民包裝等,藉以提升品質水準,建立良好品牌形象。

4、由本研究中影響關係品質之前置因子建議業界,能就其各變數的影響路徑加以分析,找出影響企業本身的關鍵因素。

(二) 對政府的建言

2009 年我國健保藥費總額支出為新台幣 1,323 億元,國資藥廠提供健保 70%的產品卻只獲得 25%的藥品給付額;相較之下,外商藥廠所銷售的藥品,不論是專利或專利已過期的藥品, 占整體健保藥品給付總額卻高達 75%之多。長期以來,國資藥廠因受限於資源限制,無法在製藥技術層次上做突破性的變革,多數產商均以生產學名藥為主,產品無法差異化,形成低階技術層次的價格戰,加上健保給付制度的限制,使得國資藥廠更無力於研發與技術創新。故對政府的建言:

- 由國家的研發機構如生技中心技轉專利型產品或輔導業者在產品製程的提升,如劑型專利、 製程專利等。
- 2.政府機構應重視健保局藥價的給付政策,在面對藥價黑洞的同時,應謹慎審查品牌別的給付 差距及保障最小給付價。尤其政府在大力推動 PIC/S 的製藥規範的同時,國資藥廠無論就製 藥能力的軟硬體皆以達到歐美的標準,對於健保給付制度更應做全盤檢討。



在經過 ANOVA 差異分析以人口統計變數對服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力、關係品質與客戶忠誠度分析得知,醫師之教育程度、年齡、服務的醫院屬性、醫院等級、醫師的執業年資與醫療專業科別具顯著差異性。本研究建議公司或銷售人員應重視影響關係品質之前因因子,以建立與醫療機構之醫師間良好的關係品質。

故本研究經上述檢定結果而提出以下之建議:

(一) 面對不同醫院屬性、醫院等級的建議:

1.服務品質

在研究實證中發現,診所執業醫師對服務品質的「關懷性」重視程度高於在地區醫院與私立醫院服務之醫師。診所的醫師絕大多數為該醫療機構負責人,不同服務於醫院的醫師多屬約 聘人員,診所醫師須自負盈虧,故相對於藥品供應商所提供的「關懷性」,重視程度大於其他等級服務的醫師,因此,建議藥品供應商對於業務人員的培訓,除了專業知識的能力外,更要對於業務人員的道德教育與關懷心予以重視,讓顧客感受到該公司及業務人員不只是商場的夥伴,更是重視客戶權益的友人。

2.關係品質

在研究實證中發現,在診所執業之醫師對關係品質之「滿意度」及「承諾」的重視程度,高於在公、私立醫院與地區醫院服務之醫師。業務人員在與醫師的互動中,應與醫師維持私人的社交關係,分享彼此在工作及私人生活上的經驗,最後才是提供相關醫藥資訊、藥品價格優惠、藥品之特色與療效等方式來建立雙方良好關係。由於診所醫師對於藥品供應商所提供的關係品質重視程度高於其他等級服務的醫師,因此,建議藥品供應商,除了加強業務人員的專業能力外,對於產品品質的要求、服務品質的評價、與顧客互動的經驗等,都是衡量客戶「滿意度」的指標。

3.客戶忠誠度

服務於私立醫院與診所的醫師,對客戶忠誠度之「再購意願」的重視程度,高於公立醫院。客戶忠誠度最直接的衡量方式就是客戶的再購行為,當顧客對產品或服務感到滿意,其對供應商的信任與承諾將會提高顧客再次購買的意願。由於公立醫院採購藥品需經過藥品招標採購程序,醫師並無藥品採購權,而私立醫院與診所的醫師絕大多數為該醫療機構負責人,對藥品採購權有完全自主能力,對於價格的敏感度也較為敏銳。因此建議藥品供應商,針對上述對客戶忠誠度之論述,能深值於經營的理念中,當一個顧客留在公司的時間越長,這位顧客就可以為公司帶來更多的利益與價值。

(二) 面對不同醫療專業科別的建議:

在研究實證中發現,耳鼻喉科醫師對藥品供應商的「品牌形象」、「品質水準」與「技術層次」的要求高於外科醫師。在現今的健保給付制度下,外科醫師幾乎無自行的執業環境,在本研究的範圍內,外科醫師是執業最弱的一群;相較於耳鼻喉科,在所有執業科別中,是執業人數最多的,也是基層診所用藥量最為龐大的一群,更是藥品供應商競爭最為激烈的科別。故供應商應



聚焦在自我品牌形象的建立、提供品質水準良好的產品及技術能力,以獲得顧客的信賴。

(三) 面對不同醫師年齡與醫師執業年資的建議:

1.專業能力

在研究實證中發現,醫師年齡層在 31-35 歲與 36-40 歲,及執業年資在 6-10 年的醫師,對業務人員專業能力的要求高於其他年齡層的醫師。故建議供應商應首重業務人員專業知識能力的提昇,並藉由常態性的教育訓練、學術研討會與銷售人員的經驗分享,訓練銷售人員使其具有良好的語言表達及溝通能力,如此對與醫師建立關係品質會有正面幫助。醫藥是攸關病患健康及生命安全與醫師本身之聲譽,對藥品可能產生之副作用實情要求相對更高,故面對醫師時,銷售人員應加強自我道德規範不該誇大其藥品功效、隱瞞藥品副作用。

綜合上述得知,藥品供應商的服務品質、品牌特性、專業能力對醫療機構的關係品質都會 有不同程度的影響。甚至藉由與顧客關係品質的好壞程度而影響後續的再購意願、向他人推薦、 價格容忍及交叉購買等,此對藥品供應商與醫藥銷售人員而言都具有相當程度的嚴重影響性,建 議應審慎視之。

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以修正 Merton 模型評估之信用風險:以第一銀行為例 Gauging Credit Risk of Bank Loans Based on Modified Merton Model

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摘要

本國銀行為因應新巴塞爾協定之需要,已於 2004 年開始鼓勵銀行採取現代信用風險管理,為了精確衡量不同客戶其信用風險,須先了解影響信用風險之三要素,其中以違約機率(Probability of default, PD)最為重要,故本文以 2004 至 2007 年台灣地區第一銀行為研究樣本,將總體經濟變數納入考量以修正後的 Merton 模型估算違約機率,而受到總體變數限制下所估算之違約機率稱為有條件之違約機率,未考量總體因素之違約機率則稱為無條件違約機率,並進一步比較分析無條件違約機率與有條件違約機率。本研究實證結果顯示,無條件違約機率可能具有落後景氣之現象,而有條件違約機率與景氣循環較具相關性,即有條件違約機率較能即時反應信用風險,有鑑於此本文建議銀行在審核貸款案件時除了注意放款公司本身償債能力以外,還必須加以觀察影響違約機率之總體經濟變數其變動情形,以作為制定適切的授信條件之參考所用,進而降低違約事件的發生以維持穩定的風險程度。

關鍵字:信用風險;違約機率;巴塞爾資本協定。

ABSTRACT

Risk management and credit risk analysis has been the focus of extensive research recently. According to Basel Capital Accord, bank regulators have to develop an effective credit review process used to measure the credit risk of their loans. In this paper, we propose the modified Merton model to estimate default probability of bank loans. The methodology is utilized bank loans of First Commercial Bank in Taiwan.

First, we estimate unconditional and conditional default probabilities by the modified Merton model. Then, we compare differences between unconditional and conditional default probabilities. The unconditional default probability is estimated whereas ignoring the influence of macroeconomic variables. On the other hand, the conditional default probability includes macroeconomic variables. Therefore, the conditional default probability is more flexible than unconditional default probability for measuring credit risk.

There are several conclusions in this study. First, we find that estimated default probability is higher than NPL ratio. We conjecture that NPL ratio is ex-post concept. However, the estimated default probability is ex-ante perspective here. Second, we find that conditional default probability is close to business cycle. However, unconditional default probabilities may lag the business cycle. Third, the conditional default probability is more accurate in investigating credit risk. Finally, the estimated procedures are easy to follow and implement. Consequently, we expect that these findings have meaningful implications for the credit risk management in Taiwan. We also hope that this paper helps financial institutions to face the Basel Capital Accord.

Keywords: Credit Risk, Default Probability, Basel Capital Accord

一、緒論

近年來為了促進市場交易、提升經濟發展,金融機構紛紛朝向國際化發展,使得金融環境加速變遷、金融產品不斷的推陳出新、金融業務日趨複雜,因而導致銀行所面臨的風險大幅提升。由於銀行業屬於高度槓桿經營的產業,其負債比率高於其他產業,倘若一旦在經營上稍有不慎,



小則造成銀行本身損失,大則影響到整體金融環境,甚至引發骨牌效應對國際金融市場造成威脅,因此銀行如何加強風險管理儼然成為最重要的議題,在此議題下,銀行資本扮演了防護風險最重要的角色,亦即有效地規範銀行資本底限即可降低銀行所面臨之風險。

有鑒於此,為制定合理最低資本限額以及統一國際型銀行在資本上的衡量,國際清算銀行(the bank for international settlements, BIS)巴塞爾監理委員會(Basel Committee on Banking Supervision)於 1988 年公佈巴塞爾資本協定(the Basel capital accord),簡稱 Basel I ,此協定主要以信用風險 (credit risk)為主進行相關規範,並要求國際型銀行必須以第一支柱(最低資本要求)為基礎,使資本適足率(capital adequacy ratio)至少達到 8%之標準,以維持適當的資本水準,而所謂的資本適足率即為自有資本比率,當比率越高,銀行體質則越健全。有鑒於 1988 年的 Basel I 只對信用風險進行規範,忽略了其他風險對銀行可能造成的威脅,故巴塞爾委員會於 1996 年將市場風險(market risk)納入規範中,但隨著金融環境日趨複雜,以及銀行經營型態不斷改變,巴塞爾資本協定其使用價值受到諸多批評,因此巴塞爾委員於 2001 年提出新巴塞爾資本協定草案,將作業風險 (operation risk)納入規範中。而在 2004 年 6 月巴塞爾委員會提出定案,將資本計算及資本適足率訂立國際性統一標準,此定案稱為 Basel II 或新巴塞爾資本協定(the new Basel capital accord),2001年以前的巴塞爾協定則將稱為舊巴塞爾資本協定或 Basel I

新巴塞爾資本協定鼓勵銀行儘速建立自己的內部信用評等系統,而內部信用評等系統乃是衡量個別授信與整體授信組合品質的重要工具,良好的內部信用評等系統可以有效考量資訊之量化與透明化,且能區分不同授信暴險中不同程度的信用風險。而我國主管機關考量我國之特殊金融環境與監理目標,於1992年制定「銀行自有資本與風險性資產之範圍計算方法及未達標準之限制盈餘分配辦法」,幾經修訂過後於2009年頒布了「銀行資本適足性及資本等級管理辦法」,期許我國金融機構能在適合本國的金融環境下,除對巴塞爾資本協定有所遵循之外,更能將風險管理的精神落實於其日常業務營運之上,達成建構與維持我國金融體系之健全與安定之目標。

因此,如何將信用風險訂立出一套適當的衡量標準,在我國金融機構管理上一直都是重要的議題,為力求和世界接軌,我國相關的金融主管機關鼓勵各家金融控股機構採行現代信用風險管理。張大成(2003)在實務上發現,使用內部信用評等系統可以有效降低信用風險資本的15%-25%。沈大白、張揖平(2006)實證研究也指出,在新巴塞爾資本協定下,採用內部評等基準法的金融機構可經由金融工具抵減信用風險以及降低風險權數,此外採用內部評等的另一個好處就是可降低中小企業的成本,進而將資本適足率提高。

本國銀行為因應新巴塞爾資本協定,已於2004年開始鼓勵銀行採取現代信用風險管理,為精確衡量不同客戶的信用風險,故須先了解影響信用風險之三要素,即為違約機率(probability of default, PD)、信用暴險額(credit exposure, CE)以及違約損失率(loss given default, LGD),以上三要素即為信用風險的驅動因子(credit risk drivers),其中以違約機率最為最重要,這是由於新巴塞資本協定中規定金融機構只要能自行估算出違約機率,再代入所規定之資本計提計算公式後,即可由第一支柱最低資本要求中的信用風險標準法(standard approach, SA)進入基礎內部評等基準法 (foundation internal rating-based approach, FIRB)。

目前國內外有關違約機率之模型分為歷史資料模型與市場資料模型,歷史資料模型採用公司 過去財務或非財務之歷史資料評估信用風險;而市場資料模型則是依據市場資訊,如收盤價或公 司債報酬率等資料估計違約機率。一般而言,歷史資料模型最主要的優點在於其資料屬於較普遍 性且易取得,但這些資料屬於過去的歷史資訊,故無法即時反應真實狀況且難以進行彈性調整, 此外歷史資料可能具有會計窗飾效果之疑慮存在;此相對於市場資料模型來說,市場資料模型具 備動態特性,可即時反應信用風險真實情況,但缺點在於其資料非屬普遍性故不易取得。

綜合上述,可知歷史資料模型與市場資料模型具有互補的特性存在,也就是市場資料模型具有動態特性可即時反應真實情況,可彌補歷史資料模型不足之處,而歷史資料模型其資料普遍性之優點恰可彌補市場資料模型其資料不足之處。另外,基於會計窗飾效果與資料取得難易問題,可藉由信用評等制度加強,主要基於信用評等機構可獲得較難得到公司私有資料,再加上配合公司的公開資訊後,較可得到客觀的資訊以助於評估更精確的信用風險。

為了促使金融體系更有效地建立完善的風險管理機制,進而協助銀行經營管理以維持整體金融穩定性,故巴塞爾資本協定規定各金融機構需自行估算出違約機率,而在此機制下估算違約機率有助於銀行評估信用風險。而為更精確估算違約機率,故多數模型皆將景氣循環之影響納入考量,而這些違約機率模型中以 Merton 模型最著名,其採用股價資訊估計違約機率較能有效精確



估計(沈中華、賴柏志、張家華,2005)。因此,本文以 Merton 模型為基礎推估違約機率,傳統上的 Merton 模型所採用的股價資料,雖敏感度較高可衡量違約機率,但為了更精確估違約機率,本文提出以修正之 Merton 模型為基礎以估算違約機率。

修正後的 Merton 模型除了搭配使用信用評等外,並結合了歷史資料模型與市場資料模型之優點,且同時考慮總體經濟因素對信用風險的影響,根據 Pesaran and Schuermann (2004)與 Pesaran et al. (2006),納入總體因素考量之模型更能有效率地估計信用風險,即時反應真實信用風險情況以得到較精確的違約機率。故以傳統 Merton 模型來說,因未將總體經濟變數納入考量,故所估算之違約機率可稱為無條件違約機率。

本文以台灣的第一銀行之有擔保與無擔保放款為研究對象,首先估算出有擔保與無擔保不同放款種類之無條件違約機率,進而比較各信用評等下的無條件違約機率以及比較有擔保與無擔保放款公司其違約情形。接著引入總體經濟因素於修正之 Merton 模型中,進一步估計有條件之違約機率。為了驗證本文實證結果之穩健型,採用逾放比率、景氣循環與第一銀行所估計之無條件、有條件違約機率進行分析比較。本文之主要貢獻為採用有別於傳統之 Merton 模型,引入總體經濟因素以修正後之 Merton 模型估計銀行放款之違約機率,實證結果顯示修正之 Merton 模型更能即時反應信用風險,估計方法也簡便易於操作,希冀藉由本文所提出之修正的 Merton 模型可提供銀行授信參考所用,以控管銀行之信用風險,協助銀行面對巴塞爾資本協定。

本文共分為六節,第一節為緒論,主要說明研究背景、研究目的與內容;第二節為文獻回顧, 針對相關研究文獻進行說明;第三節研究方法,說明本文如何應用修正之Merton模型估計無條件 與有條件違約機率;第四節為資料來源,說明本文所採用之研究期間、研究對象以及資料來源; 第五節為實證結果分析,依序展現無條件違約率與有條件違約率之實證結果與比較分析;第六節 結論,針對本文之實證結果,加以歸納整理出總結論。

二、文獻回顧

在新巴塞資本協定下,採用內部評等基準法的金融機構可經由金融工具抵減信用風險以及降低風險權數,除此之外並可降低中小企業的成本,進而提高資本適足率;而未使用內部評等基準法的金融機構則只能依據舊巴塞爾資本協定所訂定之風險權數。就理論上而言,採用內部評等基準法的金融機構會影響未使用內部評等基準法的金融機構,甚至影響未使用內部評等基準法之金融機構其市場佔有率(沈大白、張揖平,2006)。此外對於資產品質良好的銀行,使用內部信用評等系統可以有效降低信用風險資本的15%-25%(張大成,2003)。而針對銀行為因應巴塞爾資本協定,研究1998至2003年台灣的銀行放款之信用風險,該研究發現景氣循環和風險溢酬對違約機率於估計信用風險時扮演著重大的角色,違約機率會有被低估可能Lu(2007)。

一般來說信用風險模型可分為結構式 (structural model)與縮減式模型(reduced form model),結構式模型使用公司資本結構資料推估違約風險因此又可稱資產價值模型(asset value model),其資本結構資料包含資產價值、負債及權益之相對變動,除此之外結構式模型將公司違約事件視為內生變數,結構式信用風險模型如 Merton (1974)模型、KMV 模型、信用矩陣(CreditMetrics)等模型,其中以 Merton 模型最常被用以估算違約機率,其藉由評估價外產生機率,進而得到預期違約機率(expected default probability, EDP)。

過去已有諸多研究藉由 Merton (1974)模型之選擇權觀點或是 KMV 模型衡量國內外上市櫃公司的違約機率,然而這些模型須具備可靠的歷史違約資料庫才能精確估計出違約機率。此外,所求出之違約機率所代表之信用風險單單只能顯示出信用風險其排序程度,無法更進一步滿足巴塞爾協定中的某些最低基本要求。基於以上因素,除了仍沿用以上模型外,並進一步使用標準普爾公司、中華信用評等公司做為對應台灣企業歷史違約機率之依據,最後再經由特殊轉換方式估計出符合現況之違約機率(葉仕國、張庭樹,2005)。蘇敏賢、林修葳(2006)以 2000 年至 2003 年台灣上市櫃公司為研究對象,採用包含信用變數與財務變數的 Logit 模型與 Merton 模型互為比較,探討何種模型在成交量低、無形資產比重高以及低股價的此三項限制下其預測力較準確,研究結果顯示若各別考慮以上三項限制後可發現 Logit 模型預測能力較 Merton 模型準確,而若同時考慮以上三項限制時,則 Merton 模型預測能力較 Logit 模型準確,由以上實證結果得知某些市場因素可能造成 Merton 模型在使用上的限制,而若能同時考慮其他資訊則可能降低 Merton 模型使用限制所造成的偏誤。

另外,有關於總體變數與信用風險之研究也一直被廣泛討論,國外研究如 Wilson



(1997a,1997b)使用總體經濟變數衡量總體環境情況,以 logit 迴歸方法推估違約機率。Belkin, Suchower and Forest (1998)也認為信用評等變動情況所產生的信用風險受到整體經濟環境影響。 Kim (1999)使用總體經濟變數與信用循環指標(Z 指標)建構整體經濟情況,並以 Z 指標估算違約機率。Nickell and Varotto (2000)除了將總體經濟因素納入考量外,還進一步將不同國家與產業類別因素進行評估,以了解違約機率受到影響後所產生的變動情況。

Pesaran and Schuermann (2004)以 1979 年第一季至 1999 年第一季之全球 26 個國家分為 11 個區域進行研究,其認為信用風險為商業銀行主要的風險來源之一,藉由全面性之向量自我迴歸總體經濟模型(a global vector-autoregressive macroeconometric model; 簡稱 GVAR)評估違約機率,亦即將總體經濟因素納入考量進行違約機率之估計,其實證結果表示資產價值之變動程度與動態全球總體經濟互相牽動,故可解釋不同國家其權益市場之間的變動情形。除此之外,他們發現當面臨對稱衝擊時,無法產生對稱損失結果,此即反應出信用風險模型具有高度非線性之特性。

Koopman and Lucas (2005)主要使用多種無法觀察之因素來衡量信用與違約循環之現象,其根據美國 1929 年至 1997 年之實質 GDP、信用價差以及公司倒閉率來進行實證研究,實證研究顯示信用價差對違約機率、實質 GDP 會造成影響,而違約機率、實質 GDP 卻對信用價差不產生任何影響,基於此結果其建議在日後研究中可使用信用價差代替經濟成長率以預測違約機率未來之動態走向。而 Pesaran et al. (2006)為了進一步驗證 Pesaran and Schuermann (2004)之結果,並進一步考量公司特有景氣循環與公司本身特有之違約門檻,藉以探討違約機率與國內外景氣循環之關聯性,最後此實證結果也表示資產價值之變動程度與動態全球總體經濟互相牽動,而且當某地區面臨對稱衝擊時,其無法產生對稱損失結果,也可反應出信用風險模型具有高度非線性之特性。

國內相關研究如賴柏志(2002)沿用 Kim (1999)之方法建立信用循環指標,估算 1996 年至 2001 年 TCRI 投機級公司之違約機率,並與四個較具經濟指標變數(股價指數年增率、實質有效匯率指數、經濟成長率以及新台幣兌美元)進行簡單迴歸分析。賴柏志、白鎮維、張嘉娥(2002)以修正轉換矩陣進行實證,研究結果顯示考慮總體經濟變數後,若景氣處於衰退期,則信用評等調降的機率增加,且原評等不佳之公司其調降速度有增加之現象,此外,信用評等調升的機率有降低趨勢,最後研究結果指出在考慮總體經濟變數後,平均來說可降低 5%誤差值,表示更能精確估計違約機率以真切反映出市場變化。

沈中華、賴柏志、張家華(2005)指出考慮總體經濟因素之偏向時點觀點之評分方法,相較於未考慮總體經濟因素之違約機率估計模型來說較有效率。楊蓁海(2005)主要依據我國銀行授信行為與景氣循環進行探討分析本國銀行授信是否為造成順循環(pro-cyclical)現象之主因,此處所謂的順循環現象亦即當景氣擴張時,銀行將增加授信行為;反之當景氣緊縮時,銀行將減少其授信行為此易造成信用緊縮(credit crunch)。一般而言,授信業務變動程度大於經濟活動之變化,基於此因銀行變動信用供給將會加重景氣循環現象,除此之外,當銀行逾期放款與景氣循環呈現負向關係時此也將造成順循環現象。另外,將景氣循環、投信成長循環、銀行放款成長率進行分析比較後發現,我國銀行放款行為表現出高度順循環現象。

而林佐裕、賴郁媛(2005)則使用最小平方之迴歸分析檢測我國銀行逾放比率與總體經濟因素 間關係之研究,實證結果表示失業率、經濟成長率、通貨膨脹率、存放款利差與房地產景氣對策 分數等這些總體經濟因素與銀行之逾放比存在顯著關係。除此之外,此研究建議銀行放款不該只 著重考慮有擔保放款,應加以考量借款人之償債能力與還款來源之因素。

李正福、王克陸、劉大安(2008)採用信用循環指標與信用投資組合方法,將 1970 年至 2004 年台灣經濟總體經濟變數納入考量,以衡量景氣狀態對於信用評等移轉機率之影響,進而估算違 約機率。實證結果發現,景氣衰退時,投機級企業以信用循環指標法所估算之違約率有減少趨勢, 反之,景氣繁榮時,採用投資組合法估算違約率則有提高現象,另一方面,對於投資型企業來說, 無論是採用信用循環指標法或投資組合法,違約機率與實質 GDP 成長率之間皆具有反向關係。

基於上述文獻可知 Merton 模型自 1974 年提出至今一直被廣泛討論與使用,例如:Black and Cox (1976) 提出的首次通過模型(first passage model)即是依據 Merton 公司價值模型延伸出來的;再者,Geske (1977)、葉仕國、張庭樹(2005)、蘇敏賢、林修蔵(2006)等,均使用 Merton 模型進行評估與分析風險。然而,根據以往文獻中發現總體經濟因素於分析信用風險時扮演著舉足輕重的角色,故本文研究目的主要將總體經濟因素引入 Merton 模型中,並採用信用評等資料以及結合歷史資料模型與市場資料模型之優點形成修正之 Merton 模型,藉此模型探究總體經濟對信用風險之影響,希冀能藉由此模型更有效率地評估金融機構所面對之信用風險。



三、研究方法

Merton (1974)依據Black and Scholes (1973)的選擇權評價模型為基礎,將公司之權益價值視為一個歐式買權來評價該公司之信用風險,Merton 認為公司向外舉債經營,類似公司股東向債權人買進買權 (Long Call),買進一個標的資產為公司資產價值,履約價為負債金額之選擇權,當負債到期時,若公司資產市值大於負債金額,股東享有扣除負債後剩餘的所有價值,若公司資產價值低於負債金額,股東會主張有限責任,選擇違約,僅損失其所投入之資本。

Black and Cox (1976)放寬Merton (1974)模型中違約事件僅可發生於到期日之假設,並利用首次通過時間模型(first passage time model),定義違約事件發生於到期日前的資產價值首次觸碰到違約門檻(threshold),即尚未在到期日前資產價值小於違約門檻,則發生違約情形,此處的違約門檻同等於KMV模型中的違約點,假設違約門檻為短期負債加上0.5倍的長期負債,

Pesaran and Schuermann (2004)與Pesaran et al. (2006)的模型雖皆可適用於Merton (1974)或Black and Cox (1976)的違約門檻假設,然而,仍較偏重於Merton (1974)的違約門檻假設,故本文也根據此觀點,假設公司於到期日的權益價值為歐式買權,違約門檻為執行價,當到期日的權益價值小於違約門檻即處於價外表示產生違約。另外,由於Merton 模型尚未考慮總體經濟變數所估算之違約機率,可視為無條件違約機率,再者根據以往研究發現總體經濟變數會顯著影響信用風險,故本文將總體經濟變數引入模型中,並考慮了信用評等,以及結合歷史資料模型與市場資料模型之優點修正傳統的Merton 模型,希冀以修正之Merton 模型所估算之有條件違約機率能更加有效評估信用風險。

(一)無條件違約機率

本文以Merton模型 (1974)為基礎,假設 $V_{ji,t+H}$ 為i銀行中的j公司在負債到期日的資產價值、 $D_{ji,t+H}$ 為i銀行中的j公司在負債到期日的負債面額、t+H 為負債到期日,若違約發生於負債到期日,此時公司資產 $V_{ii,t+H}$ 小於或等於負債面額 $D_{ii,t+H}$ 則產生違約情況,以(1)式表示之。

$$V_{ji,t+H} \le D_{ji,t+H} \qquad (1)$$

本文將沒有發生違約的正常情況,以(2)式表示在無違約的情況下 i 銀行中的 j 公司在第 t 期公司價值($V_{ji,t}$)會等於第 t 期之負債($D_{ji,t}$)及權益($E_{ji,t}$)加總,且第 t 期之負債會大於零。此外,也可將(2)式除上 $D_{ii,t}$,以(3)式表示無違約狀態。

$$V_{ji,t} = D_{ji,t} + E_{ji,t}, D_{ji,t} > 0$$
 (2)
$$\frac{V_{ji,t}}{D_{ii,t}} = 1 + \frac{E_{ji,t}}{D_{ii,t}}$$
 (3)

若在到期日發生違約時,此時 $V_{ji,t+H} \leq D_{ji,t+H}$,再參照(3)式可知 $V_{ji,t+H}/D_{ji,t+H}$ 小於或等於 1 時,此時 $E_{ji,t+H}/D_{ji,t+H}$ 為負值或等於 0 表示違約產生。一般來說,違約訴訟會違反優先順位權,因此股東具有強烈的動機在公司權益價值到達零之前先將公司進行出售動作,而使公司進入破產管理狀態,故一旦公司權益低於某門檻時,銀行則有動機迫使公司形成違約狀態進行出售,如此一來可避免訴訟成本,而對股東來說也可得到正向報酬,因此權益價值不僅是屬於資產價值的一部份,也具有選擇權價值。本文根據此觀點,假設公司於到期日的權益價值為歐式買權,違約門檻為執行價,當到期日的權益價值小於違約門檻即處於價外表示產生違約,以(4)式表示。

$$0 < E_{ji,t+H} < C_{ji,t+H} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} C_{ji,t+H} > 0$$
 (4)

其中 $C_{ii.t+H}$ 表示違約門檻,即假設違約門檻為短期負債加上0.5倍的長期負債。

本文認為採用會計資料可能存在窗飾效果,因此需藉由公司信用評等來克服此缺點,這是基於信用評等機構可獲得一般較難得到公司的私有資料,再配合公司的公開資訊,較可得到客觀的資訊。當公司於第 t 期時被信用評等機構評等為 R 等級之前,需假設權益價值符合標準幾何隨機 漫步模型,如(5)式: $\ln(E_{R_{I+1}})=\ln(E_{R_I})+\mu_R+\sigma_R\eta_{R_{I+1}},\eta_{R_{I+1}}\sim IIDN(0,1)$ (5)

其中, μ_R 表示信用評等為 R 的公司其報酬率; σ_R 表示信用評等為 R 的公司其報酬率之標準差,



此為固定值;而 $\sigma_R \eta_{R,t+1}$ 為殘差項,且 $\eta_{R,t+1}$ 符合高斯分配其平均數為0,標準差固定為1。此外, 本文假設在第t期時,公司評等在t至t+H期間不會有變動情形發生,以(6)式表示如下:

$$\ln(E_{R,t+H}) = \ln(E_{Rt}) + H\mu_R + \sigma_R \sum_{S=1}^{H} \eta_{R,t+s}$$
 (6)

而在到期日時若發生違約,則可參照(4)式,將(6)式改寫為(7)式或(8)式之違約情況。

$$\ln(E_{R,t+H}) = \ln(E_{Rt}) + H\mu_R + \sigma_R \sum_{S=1}^{H} \eta_{R,t+s} < \ln(C_{R,t+H})$$
 (7)
$$\ln(\frac{E_{R,t+H}}{E_{Rt}}) < \ln(\frac{C_{R,t+H}}{E_{Rt}})$$
 (8)

在符合(5)式的前提假設下,可參照(7)式進行公司權益價值評估,因此可進一步將(8)式改寫成:

$$H\mu_{R} + \sigma_{R} \sum_{s=1}^{H} \eta_{R,t+s} < \ln(\frac{C_{R,t+H}}{E_{Rt}})$$
 (9)

基於上述當信用評等為 R 之公司在到期日時,在不考慮景氣循環下的無條件違約機率則表 示為: $\pi_R(t,H) = \Phi(\frac{\ln(C_{R,t+H}/E_{Rt}) - H\mu_R}{\sigma_n\sqrt{H}})$ (10)

其中, $\Phi(•)$ 表示標準常態累積分配函數,本文即是基於上式做為評估違約機率。當計算出無條 件違約機率後,可估算出預期損失額,計算方法如下所示:

$$E_t(L_{ii.t}) = \pi_R \times E_t(X_{ii.t}) \times E_t(S_{ii.t})$$
(11)

其中, $E_t(L_{ii,t})$ 表示於 t 期之預期損失; $X_{ii,t}$ 表示極大值之違約暴險額,一般為貸款面額,由 於難以精確得知放款金額,故本文假設貸款面額為 $1元;S_{it}$ 表示暴險比率即違約事件中無法回 收之比率,其介於 () 與 1 之間,而相較於債權無法回收之比率而言,若債權發生違約時債權可以 回收之比率,我們稱之為回復率(recovery rate),本文則將回復率設為 0.1 ± 0.9^{37} 。

(二)有條件違約機率

假設各家公司第t+1期的報酬 $(r_{ii,t+1})$ 是由第t期可預測的報酬 $(\mu_{ii,t})$ 與第t+1期無法預測的 部分($\xi_{ii\,t+1}$)所組成,而無法預測的部分即為殘差項,可預測的部份將受到有條件的違約損失分 配情況所影響,也就是可預測之報酬受到總體經濟變數所影響,以(12)式表示之。

$$r_{ji,t+1} = \mu_{ji,t} + \xi_{ji,t+1} \tag{12}$$

公司報酬受到諸多因素所影響,因此本文假設第 t+1 期公司報酬受到以下變數影響:

- 1.國內總體經濟變數 (x_{t+1}) :經濟成長率、國民生產毛額、廣義貨幣供給額、通貨膨脹率、臺灣加 權股價指數、利率、外匯、台灣地區失業率、領先指標綜合指數、同時指標綜合指數以及石油 價格。
- 2.非系統衝擊 $(\eta_{ii,t+1})$ 。

依據以上所述,將(12)式改寫為(13)式表示如下:

$$r_{ii,t+1} = \alpha_{ii,t+1} + \beta'_{ii}\Delta x_{t+1} + \eta_{ii,t+1} \text{ for } j=1,2,...,nc_i, i=1,...,N$$
 (13)

其中, α_{ii+1} 為截距項, Δx_{ii+1} 表示國內總體經濟變數 $t \subseteq t+1$ 期變數之變動量, \mathbf{nc}_i 表示 i 銀行 中的公司家數,N表示銀行家數。此外,本文假設第 t+1 期公司報酬為第 t+1 期與第 t 期的股東

³⁷ 回復率為金融機構承作放款時一重要參考因素,基於該項數據資料取得較為困難,以往諸多 文獻均將回復率視為外生變數, Fons (1987)根據歷史資料將回復率假設為 0.41, Copeland and Jones (2001)在其研究中則直接將回復率假設為 0,另外,Longstaff and Schwartz (1995)、Carty and Lieberman (1996)以及 Briys and de Varenne (1997)均將回復率視為固定常數,本文根據 Lu and Kuo (2005, 2006) and Lu (2007),將回復率假設為 0.1 至 0.9,以 0.1 為一跳動區間,主要希望觀察回 復率與預期損失額之間的變動關係。



權益之比值取自然對數,即股東權益的毛變動率,如(14)式為: $r_{ji,t+1} = \ln(\frac{E_{ji,t+1}}{F_{...}})$

在得知(13)式後可使用 VAR,求得估計值 $\hat{r}_{ii,t+1}$ 與 $\hat{\eta}_{ii,t+1}$,此處的 $\hat{\eta}_{ii,t+1}$ 即為(12)式中的 $\xi_{ii,t+1}$ 之估計值。最後代入以下(15)式估算出有條件情況下之違約機率。

$$\pi_{ji,T+1|T} = \Phi(\frac{\hat{\lambda}_{R}(T,1) - \hat{r}_{ji,T+1|T}}{\sqrt{Var(\hat{\eta}_{ji,T+1}|\Omega_{T})}})$$
(15)

此處 $\hat{\lambda}_{\scriptscriptstyle D}(T,1)$, 即為取自然對數之門檻權益比, $\Omega_{\scriptscriptstyle T}$ 假設在所有有用的資訊集為前提進行估計。 當獲得有條件之違約機率後,可依(16)式進一步求得預期損失額。

 $E_T(L_{ji,T+1}) = \pi_{ji,T+1|T} \times E_T(X_{ji,T+1}) \times E_T(S_{ji,T+1}), E_T(L_{ji,T+1}) = E(L_{ji,T+1}|\Omega_T)$ 其中, $E_T(L_{iiT+1}) = E(L_{iiT+1}|\Omega_T)$ 表示於 T 期預期損失,而實際上違約發生於 T+1 期; X_{iiT+1} 表示極大值之違約暴險額,一般為貸款面額,由於難以精確得知放款金額,故本文假設貸款面額 為1元; S_{iiT+1} 表示暴險比率即違約事件中無法回收之比率,其介於0與1之間,而相較於無法 回收比率,本文將回復率外生假設為 0.1 至 0.9,以觀察回復率與預期損失額之間的變動關係。 四、資料來源與資料說明

本文以台灣第一銀行38其2004年第三季至2007年第三季之季資料放款公司作為分析對象,共 計13季。本研究所需資料均取自於台灣經濟新報(Taiwan Economic Journal, TEJ),所需資料為上 市(櫃)公司之股東權益、流動負債與長期負債、上市(櫃)公司之收盤價(股價)、長期放款有擔保與 無擔保種類之放款公司、第一銀行逾放比率39、國內景氣對策信號綜合分數40、第一銀行之放款 公司其信用評等;本文參考張家華、沈中華(2004)以及Pesaran et al. (2006)共萃取下列11項總體變 數,包括國內生產毛額(gross domestic product , GDP)、國民生產毛額(gross national product, GNP)、廣義貨幣供給額(M2)、消費者物價指數、臺灣加權股價指數、利率、匯率、台灣地區失 業率、領先指標綜合指數、同時指標綜合指數、石油價格。

五、實證結果分析

(一)樣本銀行之敘述統計

表 1 為第一銀行放款公司之敘述統計,表中可知有擔保放款之股東權益、流動負債與長期負 債均小於無擔保放款。而根據(5)式計算放款之違約門檻,並以股東權益與違約門檻之差距衡量 產生違約事件之可能性,實證結果發現有擔保放款與無擔保放款公司其違約門檻與股東權益相差 值各約 1,940,623 千元、4,049,273 千元,顯示無擔保放款公司其違約門檻與股東權益之差距較有 擔保放款公司差距大,故根據本文模型,可推估無擔保放款公司產生違約事件的可能性較小。

³⁸ 第一銀行創始於 1899 年,營運期間歷經銀行合併、公營體制轉型為民營銀行以及法規改革, 經歷台灣經濟發展各項階段仍屹立不搖。目前第一銀行總資產及第一類資本排名世界前二百大, 若以國內銀行市占率排名,第一銀行占前五大銀行之一,故可做為五大銀行平均存款利率與 五大銀行平均基準利率參考計算之用,此外,第一銀行的淨值於各家銀行間排名亦名列前幾 名,基於上述故本文以第一銀行作為研究對象,探究近年其信用風險情況。

³⁹ 逾放比率可分狹義與廣義,主要用來觀察銀行資產品質狀況,狹義逾放比定義為逾期放款與 總放款餘額之比率,而廣義逾放比則是逾期放款與應予觀察放款(催收款金額)之總合與總放款餘 額之比率,目前國際上大多採用廣義逾放比來了解銀行資產品質情況,由於狹義逾放比在計算上 較為寬鬆,而無法完全反映出銀行逾期放款嚴重程度,故本文採用廣義逾放比做為研究所用。 ⁴⁰ 行政院經濟建設委員會所指出景氣對策信號亦稱「景氣燈號」, 其依據綜合判斷分數所 處於之信號燈來代表景氣狀況之指標,當分數介於45~38,以「紅燈」表示景氣熱絡; 分數介於 37~32,以「黃紅燈」表示景氣轉向;分數介於 31~23,以「綠燈」表示景氣穩定; 分數介於 22~17,以「黃藍燈」表示景氣轉向;分數介於 16~9,以「藍燈」表示景氣低迷。



表 1 第一銀行放款公司之敘述統計

(單位:千元)	股東權益	流動負債	長期負債	違約門檻	收盤價(單位:元)	放款比數
有擔保放款	7,079,485	3,624,588	3,028,549	5,138,862.50	17.87868	2274
無擔保放款	9,940,028	4,096,598	3,588,314	5,890,755	19.31882	2225

台灣經濟新報之TCRI資料庫其信用評等等級依據信用品質高低分為十級,其中信評1-4級公司為投資級, 5-6級屬於中度危險級, 7-9級與D級則稱為投機級,評等為D級則表示已發生違約,故1-9級可歸類為非違約等級,D級則為違約等級。基於上述分類標準,以表2展示第一銀行各評等等級之放款家數,結果顯示有擔保放款平均公司家數較多,由此可知銀行在放款時可能為了維持一定之風險水準,故有擔保放款之核貸案件會多於無擔保放款公司。而不論擔保種類,皆顯示銀行貸款案件大多集中在信用評等等級為5-6之放款公司,意即第一銀行大多對於中度風險、信用型放款公司進行放款。

表 2 第一銀行放款公司各信用評等等級之季平均家數

信用評等等級	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D	合計季平均家數
有擔保放款	0	2	4	9	28	47	32	23	12	19	176
無擔保放款	0	4	7	17	34	39	29	17	12	12	171

(二)無條件違約機率之實證結果與分析

本文依據(10)式求算無條件違約機率,以表3展示第一銀行各等級放款公司之平均違約機率 與該銀行之逾放比率,表中可知無論擔保種類其非違約評等違約機率(評等等級1-9)皆小於違約評 等違約機率(評等等級D),逾放比率⁴¹也低於各信用評等違約機率。由於逾期放款意指無法如期收 回之金額,若將放款列為逾期放款時,需事先經過種種的催款過程,例如:強制執行擔保品等催 收作業,由於逾放比率已將部分債權回收納入考量,即逾放比率將呆帳發生後可追討之部分債權 納入評估,基於此因本文將逾放比率視為事後觀點。另一方面,本文所估計之違約機率尚未將催 收款金額納入考量,故視為事前觀點(Lu, 2007)。本文推論由於逾放比率涵蓋已收回的部分債權, 故相較於未進行催收債權之違約機率來說,逾放比率低於各等級之估計違約機率。

表 3 第一銀行放款之平均違約機率與平均逾放比率(單位:%)

			違約機率								
放款種類	逾放比率	投資等級 (等級 1-4)	中度風險 (等級 5-6)	投機等級 (等級 7-9)	非違約評等 (等級 1-9)	違約評等 (等級 D)					
有擔保	1.6304	7.2045	6.0727	8.6881	7.4186	24.0973					
無擔保	1.6304	2.3304	10.8623	5.6167	5.6957	19.8561					

表 4 分別為第一銀行各年度違約等級與非違約等級之有擔保放款與無擔保放款之無條件違約機率與逾放比率,圖 1 與圖 2 則為針對不同放款種類與評等等級之無條件違約機率,由表 4 可發現無論擔保種類每季的違約等級必大於非違約等級之違約機率,而在有擔保放款中可發現除了 2007 年第二、三季外,每季的違約等級違約機率皆大於無擔保放款違約等級違約機率。且在有擔保放款中可發現除了 2006 年第一、四季與 2007 年第一季外,每季的非違約等級違約機率皆

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⁴¹根據財政部對於逾期放款所下的定義指出,逾期放款包含貸款本金超過約定償還期限三個月以上、長期分期償還貸款未按時攤還六個月以上、本金未到期但利息延滯六個月以上之放款。本文採用廣義逾放比率作為研究所用,其為逾期放款與應予觀察放款(催收款金額)之總合與總放款餘額之比率,用以了解銀行資產品質情況,廣義逾放比率其分子相較於狹義逾放比率多加了催收款金額。根據廣義逾放比率之定義,可推論放款若要歸入逾期放款需經過種種的催收過程,故逾放比率屬於事後觀點,而本文估計之違約機率屬於事前機率。



大於無擔保放款非違約等級違約機率,進一步比較表 1 可知無擔保放款相較於有擔保放款其股東權益與違約門檻差距較大,故與無擔保放款產生違約事件的可能性較小之結果可互相呼應得證,推論原因為銀行對於無擔保放款政策,採取嚴格徵信的做法,只接受信用良好的借款人申請,凡信用不佳的申貸戶,可能選擇不放款,有擔保人亦不接受,以免增加日後催收的困擾。因此,相較於有擔保放款,銀行採取更加審慎的評估政策以降低風險。42

此外,在 2005 年第二季逾放比率最高,表示此季的逾期放款與催收款金額可能過高所致,將會增加日後呆帳量因而導致銀行資產品資下降,故而反應於 2005 年第三季之非違約等級違約機率,根據表 3 所列之非違約等級為信用評等為 1-9 級,其中包含評等較佳的投資等級與風險偏高投機等級。若非違約等級的違約機率大幅提高,表示非違約等級中的部分公司,尤其是投機等級公司,轉變為違約評等等級的機率將大幅增加。再由表 4、圖 1、圖 2 皆可發現無論擔保種類其非違約等級違約機率均達最高點,此代表非違約等級被調降至違約等級的機率大幅提高。

擔保	狀態		有擔保放	款		無擔保放	款
	逾放比率	違約機	率(單位%)	Merton 平均	違約機	率(單位%)	Merton 平均
年度季別	(單位%)	違約 等級	非違約 等級	違約距離	違約 等級	非違約 等級	違約距離
2004-Q3	1.46	30.5889	5.1214	3.8574	26.9909	3.129	4.3168
2004-Q4	1.38	28.2985	5.2561	3.8561	24.1308	2.117	4.3119
2005-Q1	1.32	27.2309	7.1134	4.2121	21.6147	2.7929	4.739
2005-Q2	2.08	25.0717	10.5786	4.5574	20.2985	4.8532	5.3961
2005-Q3	1.81	17.2988	12.7019	4.6804	12.8018	12.1392	5.395
2005-Q4	1.72	24.4283	5.8269	4.6484	20.0985	5.7236	5.3796
2006-Q1	1.74	27.9155	6.1532	4.5394	21.7062	7.0429	5.3444
2006-Q2	1.65	35.2905	9.6123	4.2601	15.9149	5.3309	5.0088
2006-Q3	1.65	32.3236	7.9804	4.3571	22.351	6.6432	5.0514
2006-Q4	1.57	18.5175	4.2684	4.5494	12.0005	4.4906	5.1568
2007-Q1	1.63	19.8448	5.5288	4.7091	16.941	5.8587	5.2822
2007-Q2	1.55	12.3192	8.4347	5.2667	16.4917	6.8253	5.7862
2007-Q3	1.64	14.1369	7.8657	4.7426	26.7881	7.098	5.2741

表 4 第一銀行違約等級類別之無條件違約機率

有鑑於景氣對策信號除了與經濟成長率具高度相關性外,在採用上較淺顯易懂,資料易取得,且各界接受度頗高之優點,且近幾年也有諸多研究以景氣對策信號作為景氣狀態之代理變數(周添城,2000;陳彥旻,2001;何肇榮,2005;蔡東峰,2006;徐志宏,2008;洪曉茹,2010),故本文採用景氣對策信號作為景氣狀態之代理變數,以驗證估計結果之穩健性,希冀能在研究信用風險分面能有所助益。因此,本文將2005年第季逾放比率與圖3之景氣對策信號進行對照,可發現2005年第二季逾放比率處於高點,此時景氣轉向有趨於低點的現象,根據楊蓁海(2005)指出當銀行逾期放款與景氣循環呈現負向關係時,此將造成順循環現象,故由本文研究發現可知2005年第二季存在順循環現象。

表 4 之違約距離是根據原始 Merton 模型所計算得出,違約距離越大,代表距離違約時點之

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⁴²受景氣不佳影響,銀行對無擔保放款借款人的還款狀況,比以往更為謹慎,由於擔心借款人無法還款,普遍提高與保證人的聯繫密度,部分銀行甚至只要逾期 30 天,就會將保證人名下的房地產執行假扣押。以新光銀行為例,該銀行則是當無擔保債務的七天寬限期之後,如果債務人仍經由通知未繳款,拖欠達 12 天之後,就會同時通知債務人及保證人,要求儘快還款;一旦經由通知,無擔保借款債務人還是沒有還款動作,銀行就有可能直接查扣保證人名下不動產,直到保證人代為償還債務人所有借款,查扣動作較過往相對更積極。



距離越遠,亦即違約機率越低;同理,若違約距離越小,代表發生違約事件之機率越高,因此,違約距離與違約機率間呈反向關係。由表 4 可知違約距離於 2004 年第四季為最小,然而此時之逾放比並非最高,若與圖 3 的景氣對策信號比較,2004 年第四季也非景氣最低之時點,故本文推論若使用原始 Merton 模型估計信用風險可能無法精確地反映信用風險。

表 5 顯示 2006 年第三季為黃藍燈,表示 2006 年第四季景氣可能呈現低迷或穩定狀態(藍燈或綠燈)。以 2006 年第三季而言,銀行此時可能悲觀預期 2006 年第四季景氣將處於低迷狀態(藍燈),故在 2006 年第三季緊縮信用減少放款以預防過多的違約事件發生,而當在 2006 年第四季景氣真的處於低迷狀態時,大都認為此季的違約機率應為最高,但並非如此,此時的違約機率反而降低,故由表 4 可知 2006 年第四季無論擔保種類違約等級與非違約等級違約機率皆大幅下降。



圖 1.第一銀行有擔保放款之違約機率



圖 2. 第一銀行無擔保放款之違約機率

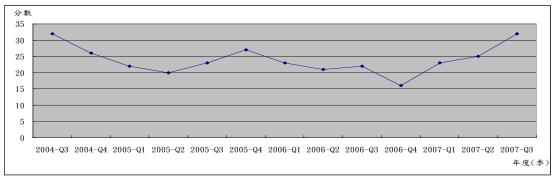


圖 3.景氣對策信號綜合分數圖



年度	景氣對策信號綜合判斷分數	燈號指標	年度	景氣對策信號綜合判斷分數	燈號指標
2004-Q3	32	黄紅燈	2006-Q2	21	黄藍燈
2004-Q4	26	綠燈	2006-Q3	22	黄藍燈
2005-Q1	22	黄藍燈	2006-Q4	16	藍燈
2005-Q2	20	黄藍燈	2007-Q1	23	綠燈
2005-Q3	23	黄藍燈	2007-Q2	25	綠燈
2005-Q4	27	綠燈	2007-Q3	32	黄紅燈
2006-Q1	23	綠燈			

表 5 景氣對策信號綜合判斷分數與燈號指標

資料來源:台灣經濟新報

(三)有條件違約機率之實證結果與分析

由於無條件違約機率忽略總體經濟因素對違約機率之影響,因此,本文進一步引入總體經濟因素於違約機率中,藉由(15)式可推估有條件之違約機率,有條件違約機率相較於無條件違約機率考慮了總體經濟變數對違約機率造成的影響,而本文則選取數項較具代表性的總體經濟變數做為推估有條件違約機率所用,藉由總體經濟變數估計有條件違約機率除了可直接得知哪些總體經濟變數較具顯著性的影響,藉此銀行可於進行授信業務時先觀察總體經濟變數情形再來決定授信條件的緊縮寬鬆程度。

本文使用落後一期之向量自我迴歸探討影響第一銀行有擔保放款與無擔保放款信用風險之總體經濟變數為何,為避免共線性問題(collinearity),本文採用總體經濟變數的變動量,即將所有總體經濟變數進行一階差分(first difference),再進行向量自我迴歸分析(Mizrach, 2008)。首先,可得知影響第一銀行有擔保放款之總體經濟變數為消費者物價指數(CPI)、臺灣加權股價指數(STOCK)、同時指標綜合指數(SAME)、石油價格(Oil)、廣義貨幣供給額(M2)以及利率(RATE),經由整理後以下式表示之:

$$r_{t} = -0.3038\Delta r_{t-1} - 0.0315\Delta CI_{t-1} + 0.6003\Delta STOCK_{t-1} - 3.3346\Delta SAME_{t-1} - [-1.0036]^{**} [-2.7306]^{***} [1.8412]^{**} [-2.3857]^{**}$$

+0.4091△Oil、1+2.3233△M2、1-0.579△RATE、1 其中, r 為股東權益.325]數值為t值; ****為2***分別為1%與5%2下顯著。由上式可知,有擔保放款公司其股東權益與股東權益變動率、消費者物價指數變動率、同時指標綜合指數變動率以及利率變動率呈現反向關係;此外,有擔保放款公司其股東權益與臺灣加權股價指數變動率、石油價格變動率、廣義貨幣供給額變動率呈現正向關係,當這些總體經濟變數變動率增加時,權益變動率可能會提高或降低呈現互相消長之現象,進而影響與違約門檻之差距大小,故當銀行進行授信業務時,可先自行評估觀察放款公司其財務特性受到總體經濟變數影響程度,再決定是否進行借貸。

另外,本文同樣使用落後一期之向量自我迴歸探討影響第一銀行無擔保放款信用風險之總體經濟變數為何,藉此推估影響第一銀行無擔保放款之總體經濟變數為國內生產毛額(GDP)、國民生產毛額(GNP)、廣義貨幣供給額(M2)、領先指標綜合指數(TOP)、利率(RATE)、匯率(FE)、消費者物價指數(CI),如下式所示:

$$\begin{split} r_t &= -0.1367 - 0.4534 \Delta r_{t-1} - 8.1295 \Delta GDP_{t-1} - 4.9090 \Delta GNP_{t-1} - 2.8380 \Delta M 2_{t-1} \\ & \left[-2.5985 \right]^{***} \quad \left[-1.8541 \right]^{**} \quad \left[2.9501 \right]^{***} \quad \left[-1.8933 \right]^{**} \quad \left[-0.9599 \right]^{**} \\ & + 20.1129 \Delta TOP_{t-1} + 0.5666 \Delta RATE_{t-1} - 4.2298 \Delta FE_{t-1} + 0.0311 \Delta CI_{t-1} \\ & \left[3.9578 \right]^{****} \quad \left[1.9310 \right]^{**} \quad \left[-3.7057 \right]^{***} \quad \left[1.8440 \right]^{**} \end{split}$$

其中, r為股東權益; []數值為 t 值; ***與**分別為 1%與 5%下顯著。由以上可知,無擔保放款公司其股東權益與股東權益變動率、國內生產毛額變動率、國民生產毛額變動率、廣義貨幣供給額變動率及匯率變動率呈現反向關係,而領先指標綜合指數、利率以及消費者物價指數變動率



這些變數與無擔保放款公司股東權益呈現正向關係,當以上這些總體經濟變數變動率增加時,權益變動率可能會提高或降低呈現互相消長之現象,進而影響與違約門檻之差距大小。43而本文推論由於第一銀行中有無擔保放款公司其產業結構或特性可能有所不同,故某些總體變數對有無擔保放款公司會造成不一樣的影響,因此有無擔保放款公司各自所受到影響的總體經濟變數不同。

表6展示前述估計所得之總體變數引入修正之Merton模型後所推估之有條件違約機率,以及未考慮總體經濟變數之無條件違約機率,而圖4至圖7則為針對放款種類不同所推估之有、無條件違約機率,由之前所估的無條件違約機率(表4)可知第一銀行在2005年第二季逾放比率最高,再對照第一銀行此季之有條件違約機率(表6、圖4、圖5),我們發現有擔保放款或無擔保放款此季違約機率皆大幅增加,此時授信將進行緊縮以避免違約事件增加。相對來說, 2005年第二季逾放比率在最高點的時候,此時無條件違約機率並無明顯增加之趨勢(表6、圖6、圖7),反而將呆帳反應於下一季的違約機率,故可知無條件違約機率可能具有落後反應之現象存在。而若觀察第一銀行其放款公司違約等級與非違約等級之無條件違約機率(見表4、圖1、圖2),也可發現存在落後反應之現象,特別是非違約等級。

根據陳曉蓉(2003)、管瑞昌(2003)、呂麒麟等人(2005)以及陳佳敏(2005)皆以逾放比率作為銀行承擔信用風險的代理變數,因此本文將逾放比率視為有條件違約機率穩健性驗證之代理變數。由於當逾放比率在最高點的時候,意味著銀行呆帳量有增加之趨勢,表示資產品質降低,此時所推估之有條件違約機率因考慮了總體經濟變數故可即時回應逾放比率增加之現象。另一方面,推論因無條件違約機率未考慮總體經濟變數故有延遲反映之現象,因此,當逾放比率在最高點的時候,有條件違約機率有明顯增加之趨勢,而無條件違約機率可能反應於下一期,故可知有條件違約機率較無條件違約機率敏感度高,更可即時反應信用風險狀況。

違約機率型態	有條件並	韋約機率	無條件道	韋約機率
年度/有無擔保	有擔保放款	無擔保放款	有擔保放款	無擔保放款
2004-Q3	_44	-	14.6986	8.9127
2004-Q4	13.0400	6.4903	14.6203	5.2410
2005-Q1	11.6080	15.8375	17.2809	10.4017
2005-Q2	18.0552	19.5657	19.3827	10.6144
2005-Q3	14.1809	4.2395	24.5390	19.5617
2005-Q4	19.7469	7.0250	18.0685	15.9920
2006-Q1	11.4875	8.5981	13.4884	21.1269
2006-Q2	22.2129	11.0667	16.3978	13.0734
2006-Q3	6.6066	5.5758	19.5246	15.2107
2006-Q4	4.8366	7.3552	10.1164	10.6325
2007-Q1	5.1526	5.9981	10.9505	10.9352
2007-Q2	7.4661	9.4978	13.9863	20.2846

表 6 第一銀行有條件之違約機率(單位:%)

除此之外,進一步將表 6 以及圖 4 至圖 7 之第一銀行有、無條件違約機率與景氣對策信號綜合分數(表 5、圖 3)進行比較,結果顯示有條件違約機率其變動趨勢與景氣循環可較明顯呈現反向變動,而無條件違約機率與景氣循環則較不明顯存在反向關係,反而有時違約變動情形反應於下一季當中,意即無條件違約機率具有落後景氣循環之現象存在,而有條件違約機率較能即時反應,此也顯示出有條件違約機率較無條件違約機率敏感度高。

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⁴³本文最初以11 種總體經濟變數進行向量自我迴歸分析,研究結果指出有擔保放款公司其5種總體經濟變數不具顯著性,而無擔保放款公司則有4種總體經濟變數不具顯著性。基於此因,故 將不具顯著性之總體經濟變數移除,各別將剩下的總體經濟變數進行向量自我迴歸分析。

⁴⁴本文使用 VAR 取落後一期之模式萃取總體經濟變數,並進一步估計有條件違約機率,故 2004 年第三季無法列示違約機率。



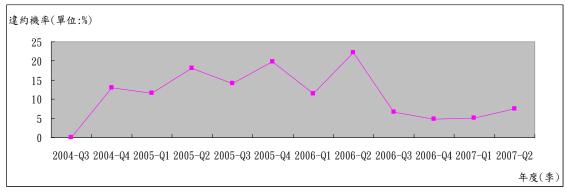


圖 4.第一銀行有擔保之有條件違約機率

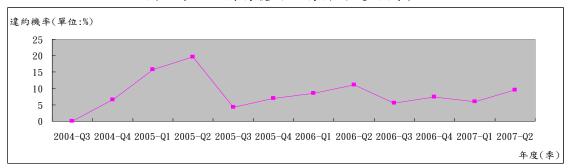


圖 5.第一銀行無擔保之有條件違約機率

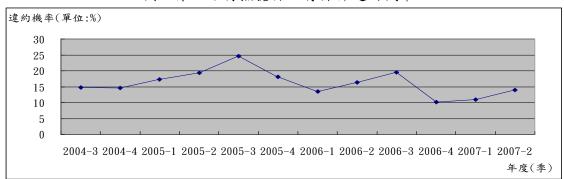


圖 6.第一銀行有擔保之無條件違約機率

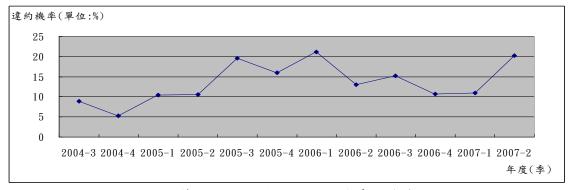


圖 7.第一銀行無擔保之無條件違約機率



表 7 景氣循環與第一銀行有條件違約機率變動趨勢

年 京(禾)	早与併理 搬劫	違約機率走向趨勢			
年度(季)	景氣循環趨勢	有擔保放款	無擔保放款		
2004Q3~2005Q2	逐漸下降趨勢 (由黃紅燈經由綠燈趨向黃藍燈)	微幅上漲	逐漸上漲		
2005Q2~2005Q4	景氣逐漸回到綠燈有上升趨勢	先降後升	先降後升		
2006Q1~2006Q4	景氣由穩定逐漸進入衰退處於藍燈	先升後降	先升後降		

表7為第一銀行有條件違約機率之變動趨勢與景氣循環之分析與比較,在2004年第三季至2005年第二季此階段中景氣逐漸下降且有趨於藍燈的可能性,此時違約機率無論擔保種類皆有上漲之現象;2005年第二季至第四季中由於黃藍燈分數有逐漸成為綠燈的可能性存在,景氣趨向穩定狀態,此階段在尚未真正處於景氣穩定時,授信條件可能較為寬鬆,故導致2005年第四季無論擔保種類違約機率皆有增加之現象。另外,由於在2005年第二季違約機率皆上升,故此時授信條件將轉為緊縮故導致2005年第三季違約機率有下降現象;2006年第一季至2006年第四季景氣穩定程度逐漸下降處於景氣低迷狀態,而2006年第二季違約機率有攀升現象,因而實施緊縮授信條件,而當2006年第四季景氣處於衰退期時,由於先前授信緊縮政策故使得違約機率反而降低。

在得知第一銀行其有條件與無條件情況下之違約機率後,表8至表11進一步估計預期違約損失額,由於無法得到貸款面額,故本文假設每一季之貸款面額為一元,另外,由於回復率為金融機構承作放款時一重要參考因素,基於該項數據資料取得較為困難,將回復率設定為0.1至0.9,可觀察回復率與預期違約損失額之間的變動關係。

實證結果顯示當回復率越高,則預期違約損失額越低,隨著回復率的降低每一季預期違約損失額逐漸增加呈現單調轉換,因此可知回復率與預期違約損失額呈現負向關係,亦即違約損失率與預期違約損失額呈現正向關係,因此,金融機構可藉由提升回復率,以降低預期違約損失額與減少虧損發生。由於回復率代表借款人違約時的本息回收率,亦即債權之回復比率,因為借款人多會以動產或不動產做抵押,當借款人違約時,金融機構便可藉由拍賣借款人所提供之擔保品以回復部分債權,本文將回復率假設為0.1至0.9,據此估算各種回復率下之預期違約損失額,希冀藉此銀行可根據自身之平均回復率預估放款時遭遇違約時之可能損失額,因此,金融機構除了應注意放款品質的檢驗,更應該詳細對擔保品評估,於徵提擔保品時必須更謹慎小心,訂定一套完整的風險管理制度,才能有效控管信用風險。

表 8.第一銀行有擔保其有條件違約機率之預期損失額(單位:元)

回復率	2004-Q4	2005-Q1	2005-Q2	2005-Q3	2005-Q4	2006-Q1	2006-Q2	2006-Q3	2006-Q4	2007-Q1	2007-Q2
0.9	0.0130	0.0116	0.0181	0.0142	0.0197	0.0115	0.0222	0.0066	0.0048	0.0052	0.0075
0.8	0.0261	0.0232	0.0361	0.0284	0.0395	0.0230	0.0444	0.0132	0.0097	0.0103	0.0149
0.7	0.0391	0.0348	0.0542	0.0425	0.0592	0.0345	0.0666	0.0198	0.0145	0.0155	0.0224
0.6	0.0522	0.0464	0.0722	0.0567	0.0790	0.0459	0.0889	0.0264	0.0193	0.0206	0.0299
0.5	0.0652	0.0580	0.0903	0.0709	0.0987	0.0574	0.1111	0.0330	0.0242	0.0258	0.0373
0.4	0.0782	0.0696	0.1083	0.0851	0.1185	0.0689	0.1333	0.0396	0.0290	0.0309	0.0448
0.3	0.0913	0.0813	0.1264	0.0993	0.1382	0.0804	0.1555	0.0462	0.0339	0.0361	0.0523
0.2	0.1043	0.0929	0.1444	0.1134	0.1580	0.0919	0.1777	0.0529	0.0387	0.0412	0.0597
0.1	0.1174	0.1045	0.1625	0.1276	0.1777	0.1034	0.1999	0.0595	0.0435	0.0464	0.0672

表 9. 第一銀行無擔保其有條件違約機率之預期損失額(單位:元)

回復率	2004-Q4	2005-Q1	2005-Q2	2005-Q3	2005-Q4	2006-Q1	2006-Q2	2006-Q3	2006-Q4	2007-Q1	2007-Q2
0.9	0.0065	0.0158	0.0196	0.0042	0.0070	0.0086	0.0111	0.0056	0.0074	0.0060	0.0095
0.8	0.0130	0.0317	0.0391	0.0085	0.0141	0.0172	0.0221	0.0112	0.0147	0.0120	0.0190
0.7	0.0195	0.0475	0.0587	0.0127	0.0211	0.0258	0.0332	0.0167	0.0221	0.0180	0.0285
0.6	0.0260	0.0634	0.0783	0.0170	0.0281	0.0344	0.0443	0.0223	0.0294	0.0240	0.0380
0.5	0.0325	0.0792	0.0978	0.0212	0.0351	0.0429	0.0553	0.0279	0.0368	0.0300	0.0475
0.4	0.0389	0.0950	0.1174	0.0254	0.0422	0.0515	0.0664	0.0335	0.0441	0.0360	0.0570
0.3	0.0454	0.1109	0.1370	0.0297	0.0492	0.0601	0.0775	0.0390	0.0515	0.0420	0.0665
0.2	0.0519	0.1267	0.1565	0.0339	0.0562	0.0687	0.0885	0.0446	0.0588	0.0480	0.0760
0.1	0.0584	0.1425	0.1761	0.0382	0.0632	0.0773	0.0996	0.0502	0.0662	0.0540	0.0855



表 10.第一銀行有擔保其無條件違約機率之預期損失額(單位:元)

回復率	2004-Q4	2005-Q1	2005-Q2	2005-Q3	2005-Q4	2006-Q1	2006-Q2	2006-Q3	2006-Q4	2007-Q1	2007-Q2
0.9	0.0146	0.0173	0.0194	0.0245	0.0181	0.0135	0.0164	0.0195	0.0101	0.0110	0.0140
0.8	0.0292	0.0346	0.0388	0.0491	0.0361	0.0270	0.0328	0.0390	0.0202	0.0219	0.0280
0.7	0.0439	0.0518	0.0581	0.0736	0.0542	0.0405	0.0492	0.0586	0.0303	0.0329	0.0420
0.6	0.0585	0.0691	0.0775	0.0982	0.0723	0.0540	0.0656	0.0781	0.0405	0.0438	0.0559
0.5	0.0731	0.0864	0.0969	0.1227	0.0903	0.0674	0.0820	0.0976	0.0506	0.0548	0.0699
0.4	0.0877	0.1037	0.1163	0.1472	0.1084	0.0809	0.0984	0.1171	0.0607	0.0657	0.0839
0.3	0.1023	0.1210	0.1357	0.1718	0.1265	0.0944	0.1148	0.1367	0.0708	0.0767	0.0979
0.2	0.1170	0.1382	0.1551	0.1963	0.1445	0.1079	0.1312	0.1562	0.0809	0.0876	0.1119
0.1	0.1316	0.1555	0.1744	0.2209	0.1626	0.1214	0.1476	0.1757	0.0910	0.0986	0.1259

表 11.第一銀行無擔保其無條件違約機率之預期損失額(單位:元)

回復率	2004-Q4	2005-Q1	2005-Q2	2005-Q3	2005-Q4	2006-Q1	2006-Q2	2006-Q3	2006-Q4	2007-Q1	2007-Q2
0.9	0.0052	0.0104	0.0106	0.0196	0.0160	0.0211	0.0131	0.0152	0.0106	0.0109	0.0203
0.8	0.0105	0.0208	0.0212	0.0391	0.0320	0.0423	0.0261	0.0304	0.0213	0.0219	0.0406
0.7	0.0157	0.0312	0.0318	0.0587	0.0480	0.0634	0.0392	0.0456	0.0319	0.0328	0.0609
0.6	0.0210	0.0416	0.0425	0.0782	0.0640	0.0845	0.0523	0.0608	0.0425	0.0437	0.0811
0.5	0.0262	0.0520	0.0531	0.0978	0.0800	0.1056	0.0654	0.0761	0.0532	0.0547	0.1014
0.4	0.0314	0.0624	0.0637	0.1174	0.0960	0.1268	0.0784	0.0913	0.0638	0.0656	0.1217
0.3	0.0367	0.0728	0.0743	0.1369	0.1119	0.1479	0.0915	0.1065	0.0744	0.0765	0.1420
0.2	0.0419	0.0832	0.0849	0.1565	0.1279	0.1690	0.1046	0.1217	0.0851	0.0875	0.1623
0.1	0.0472	0.0936	0.0955	0.1761	0.1439	0.1901	0.1177	0.1369	0.0957	0.0984	0.1826

六、結論

本文以修正之Merton模型評估銀行放款之違約機率,選取台灣的第一銀行有擔保與無擔保放款作為分析對象,首先估計放款無條件違約機率,再進一步考慮了11種較具代表性的總體經濟變數對違約機率造成的影響以推估有條件違約機率,以比較分析無條件違約機率與有條件違約機率之差異,最後再加入逾放比率、景氣對策信號進行比較分析。此外,本文將回復率外生假設為0.1至0.9,估算各種回復率下之有條件與無條件之預期損失額,此一外生假設,可提供銀行做為參考準則,以便金融機構於放款時可根據銀行內部之回復率,預估在違約發生時之可能損失額。

本文實證結果發現無論擔保種類有條件違約機率幾乎皆大於逾放比率,推估主要原因為逾放比率屬於事後觀點,亦即已經回收部份債權,而本文所估計之違約機率屬事前觀點。其次,當某季逾放比率增加時,此季的有條件違約機率有增加的現象,而無條件違約機率可能將此現象反應於下一季,故可知有條件違約機率較能即時反應信用風險狀況,而無條件違約機率可能具有落後反應的問題存在,由此可知有條件違約機率相較於無條件違約機率而言其敏感度較高。最後,有條件違約機率其變動趨勢與景氣循環之間較能明顯呈現出反向變動關係,而無條件違約機率與景氣循環則較難以觀察其之間的反向變動關係,反而有時可發現無條件違約機率對於景氣循環的變動情形反應於下一季當中,由此可知無條件違約機率具有落後景氣循環之現象存在,而有條件違約機率較能即時反應,因此也可證實有條件違約機率較無條件違約機率敏感度高。

綜上所述,有條件違約機率相較於無條件違約機率考慮了總體經濟變數對違約機率所造成的影響,實證結果顯示有條件違約機率之準確性較無條件違約機率為佳,較能與景氣循環密切配合,因而在估計有條件違約機率的過程中可得知哪些總體經濟變數對銀行具有顯著性的影響,因此本文建議銀行在審核貸款案件時除了注意放款公司本身償債能力以外,還必須加以觀察放款公司其產業特性或財務特性,以預測其受到總體經濟變數的影響程度為何,並將此作為銀行制定適切的授信條件之參考所用,以降低違約事件的發生,維持較穩定的風險程度。



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Does the Yield Curve Movements Explain the Equity Returns of Financial Instrument?

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ABSTRACT

A time-series and cross-sectional analysis is employed to investigate the change of term structure on the common stocks of financial institutions listed in Taiwan Stock Exchange. In the research methodology, the two factors model proposed by Stone is used to test the sensitivity for both the market risk and interest rate risk factors on the equity returns of financial institutions stocks. In addition, the four orthogonal parameters embedded in Nelson and Siegel are used to be the proxies of interest rate risk. The empirical results conclude that the relationships between the abnormal return of the weighted stock index and stock returns of financial institutions are significantly negative. However, it indicates a positive relationship between the abnormal return of the financial sector index and the stock returns of financial institutions. The paper also shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between the level parameter and the equity returns of financial institutions. However, the change of slope parameter has little impact on the equity returns of financial institutions. As the curvature parameter, it indicates a negative relationship with the equity returns of financial institutions. Finally, the time decay parameter, it generally appears a negative relationship with the equity returns of financial institutions.

Keywords: Nelson And Siegel Model, Term Structure of Interest Rates, Financial Institutions



一、導論

金融市場是資金供給者與資金需求者,運用債務證券與權益證券等不同金融工具,對資金流向進行分配所形成之市場。根據資金取得方式的不同,可區分為以發行票券或有價證券融通資金為主的「直接金融」(direct financing)與透過金融中介機構融通資金的「間接金融」(indirect financing)。早期台灣金融市場因直接金融發展尚未健全,企業的資金募集主要係透過銀行借款進行籌資。近年來,政府機構積極發展股票與債券等多元化直接金融融通管道,致使企業的資金募集更富有彈性,而直接金融佔整體金融市場的籌資比例亦逐年增加,顯見政府推動直接金融市場發展至今成果豐碩。雖然如此,間接金融資金募集管道卻仍為台灣金融市場資金融通之主流。根據2010年央行統計資料,間接金融占整體金融市場77.77%比重,足以顯示其重要性。

在間接金融市場中,金融機構⁴⁵為資金需求者與供給者銜接起資金移轉的橋樑,使得市場資金得以有效移轉。但在資金移轉過程中,利率水準的改變係衝擊資金供需雙方均衡的重要因素。舉例而言,銀行業放款調整幅度深受利率變動所影響,故在利率劇烈波動下,放款調整幅度會受限於法令規章限制無法反映市場供需,進而將衝擊銀行業股價;保險業務主要係提供消費者一長期契約的保障,故業務推展會受利率水準高低所影響;對證券業而言,其在基金、股票與債券等交易亦受利率影響頗深。綜言之,利率水準的變化對於金融機構價值的影響進行探討,如 Stone (1974)提出之二因子模型(two factor model),即分別以 90 天期國庫券、3-5 年中期政府公債與 10 年以上長期政府公債等利率指數探討其對於不同產業公司之股價報酬影響。而 Chance and Lane (1980)以 90 天期國庫券、3-5 年中期政府公債或 10 年以上長期政府公債等,探討其利率指數變化與銀行業股票報酬之關聯性,實證結果顯示短天期利率變動對銀行股票報酬存在顯著的關聯性,長天期利率則無顯著影響。另外,亦有許多相關研究,透過短期、長期債券報酬探討其對於金融機構股價報酬之影響,並證實兩者間存在顯著的關聯性(Lynge and Zumwalt, 1980; Fogler, John and Tipton, 1981; Flannery and James, 1984; Booth and Officer, 1985)。

除以公債指數的變化,探討其對公司股價報酬的關聯性外,Jones (1991)與 Litterman and Scheinkman (1991)觀察殖利率曲線變化並探就影響其形狀改變之因子為何?實證結果發現,水行移動(level)、斜率變化(slope)與曲度變化(curvature)因子等三個利率風險因子,能解釋 95%美國公債投資組合報酬率變化。Piazzesi (2004)亦以前述三個因子衡量美國債券殖利率曲線變化,並發現其可捕捉 96%的變動程度。爾後 Diebold、Rudebusch and Aruoba (2006)進一步以 Nelson and Siegel (1987)模型的殖利率曲線參數,將其視為水平移動、斜率變化與曲度變化,藉此分析其與總體經濟變數的關聯性且得到顯著之結果。

然而,我國政府公債指數編制時間不夠長,缺乏合適債券市場指數作為市場投資組合,若僅分別以短、中與長期利率指數探討其與金融機構價值變化,無法確實描繪利率變動對金融機構價值影響的重要性。且過去國內在殖利率曲線的相關研究,多著墨於比較各種估計利率期限結構之模型配適能力的優劣或債券交易策略的設計,較少針對殖利率曲線之利率風險因子對金融機構股價報酬的影響進行探討。故本研究將以 Nelson-Siegel 模型之水平移動、斜率變化、曲度變化與衰退因子,作為殖利率曲線形狀的替代變數,探討殖利率曲線變化對金融機構股票報酬的影響,藉以補足過去文獻鮮少探討之議題。更值得注意的是,各參數因子間可能存在高度相關的問題,故本文援引 Giliberto (1985)提出之正交化(Orthogonalizing)程序,藉由減少參數估計精確度(Precision)提高模型預測精準度(Accuracy),進而解決參數間彼此共線性過高的問題,並可同時保留其原始經濟意涵。該方法之運用不僅可以增加模型的預測能力,同時亦可避免因刪除變數而遺失的重要資訊。最後,本研究更進一步將金融機構依經營業務性質的不同,細分為銀行業、保險業、證券業與金控業等四大類別,進行探討殖利率曲線利率風險因子對各類金融機構股價之影響。

除前言外,第二節為研究方法與資料來源,將說明 Nelson-Siegel 模型、多元迴歸模型與脊迴歸(Auxiliary Regression)的模型設計。同時說明本研究資料來源的取得與研究期間;第三節為實證結果,最後則是結論。

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⁴⁵ 根據金融機構合併法第四條:一、金融機構:指下列銀行業、證券及期貨業、保險業所包括之機構,及其他經主管機關核定之機構:(一)銀行業:包括銀行、信用合作社、農會信用部、漁會信用部、票券金融公司、信用卡業務機構及郵政儲金匯業局。(二)證券及期貨業:包括證券商、證券投資信託事業、證券投資顧問事業、證券金融事業、期貨商、槓桿交易商、期貨信託事業、期貨經理事業及期貨顧問事業。(三)保險業:包括保險公司及保險合作社。(四)信託業等。



二、研究方法與資料來源

首先針對 Nelson-Siegel 模型的建構方式與參數估計進行說明,藉以了解各參數所代表之經濟意涵。其次,說明如何透過殖利率曲線之水行移動(level)、斜率變化(slope)、曲度變化(curvature)與衰退因子(decay factor),設計多元迴歸模型。最後,介紹脊迴歸模型的建構程序。

(一) Nelson-Siegel 模型

附息債券理論價格的估計,可視為未來現金流量折現值的總合,其可藉由折現因子(discount factor)、即期利率(spot rate)或遠期利率(forward rate)進行估算,如式(1):

$$\hat{p}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{Z_{i}} C_{i}(t_{j}) D(t_{j}) = \sum_{j=1}^{Z_{i}} C_{i}(t_{j}) \exp\left\{-t_{j} R(t_{j})\right\}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{Z_{i}} C_{i}(t_{j}) \exp\left\{-\int_{0}^{t_{j}} f(s) ds\right\}$$
(1)

其中 \hat{P}_i 為第 i 支附息債券理論價格。 Z_i 為第 i 支付息債券之到期日。 $C_i(t_j)$ 為第 i 支附息債券於 t_j 時點所必須支付的現金流量,當時點 $j=Z_i$ 時,此現金流量為本金加上利息,若時點 $j\neq Z_i$ 時,則此現金流量為利息。 $D(t_j)$ 為距離 t_j 時點之折現因子;而 $R(t_j)$ 為距離 t_j 時點之即期利率。最後 f(s)為遠期利率。

Nelson and Siegel (1987)根據二階微分方程式導出瞬間即時遠期利率(Instantaneous Forward rate)函數,並透過積分的過程,轉換為即期利率函數,如式(2):

$$R(t_j) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \left(\frac{\tau}{t_j}\right) \left[1 - \exp\left(\frac{-t_j}{\tau}\right)\right] + \beta_2 \left(\frac{\tau}{t_j}\right) \left[1 - \exp\left(\frac{-t_j}{\tau}\right)\left(\frac{t_j}{\tau} + 1\right)\right]$$
(2)

其中 β_0 為長期利率水準,且恆為正值; β_1 為短期利率水準,亦可視為殖利率曲線斜率變化的代理變數。當 β_1 為負值時,殖利率曲線為正斜率;反之,則為負斜率。此外, β_1 絕對值越大時,殖利率曲線斜率將越形陡峭,反之絕對值越小時,則殖利率曲線斜率將趨於平坦。 β_2 為殖利率曲線的曲度因子。當 β_2 為正時,殖利率曲線具有駝峰特性;反之,則呈現U字型 46 。 τ 為衰退因子,代表駝峰或U字型期間的出現位置,用以決定殖利率曲線短期與中期影響力開始衰退的時點與速率。當 τ 值愈小時,其收斂速度較快,代表殖利率曲線受短期和中期影響期間較短;反之,當 τ 值較大時,則收斂速度較慢,相對的殖利率曲線受短期和中期影響期間較長。

將式(2)代入式(1),則附息債券理論價格 P_i 估算將如式(3):

$$\hat{P}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{z_{i}} C_{i}(t_{j}) \exp((-t_{j})(R(t_{j})))$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{z_{i}} C_{i}(t_{j}) \exp((-t_{j}) \times \left(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}(\frac{\tau}{t_{j}})\left[1 - \exp(\frac{-t_{j}}{\tau})\right] + \beta_{2}(\frac{\tau}{t_{j}})\left[1 - \exp(\frac{-t_{j}}{\tau})(\frac{t_{j}}{\tau} + 1)\right]\right)\right)$$
(3)

關於 Nelson-Siegel 模型參數估計過程,Diebold, Rudebusch and Aruoba (2006)係將衰退因子 (τ) 視為固定值,估計水平移動 (β_0) 、斜率變化 (β_1) 、曲度變化 (β_2) 等三個參數。此一作法雖可降低參數估計的困難度,卻會影響 β_0 、 β_1 與 β_2 參數估計的精確程度(Hurn, Lindsay and Pavlov, 2005)。故本研究採取周建新、于鴻福、陳振宇 (2006)之非線性迴歸估計方法,將衰退因子 (τ)

 $^{ ext{ iny 46}}$ 根據賴曉璐(1997)和沈中華(1998), $oldsymbol{eta}_1$ 和 $oldsymbol{eta}_2$ 數值所表達的意義如下:

 $eta_1 > 0, eta_2 > 0$ $eta_1 > 0, eta_2 < 0$ $eta_1 < 0, eta_2 > 0$ $eta_1 < 0, eta_2 < 0$ 自斜率型 直斜率帯凹谷型 正斜率帯駝峰型 正斜率型



視為變動項,並透過式(4)之極小化公債實際價格與理論價格方式,藉由牛頓法的數值方式⁴⁷估計 參數:

$$Q = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[P_i - \hat{P}_i \right]^2 \tag{4}$$

其中n為公債樣本個數。

(二) 多元迴歸模型

針對金融類股而言,本研究認為個別證券價格變動除會受到市場風險影響外,亦受利率風險影響甚鉅,但基本市場模型⁴⁸僅考量市場風險,故對於與利率連動性較高的產業而言,其可能會喪失利率變化驅動股票走勢的相關資訊⁴⁹。而 Stone (1974)之二因子模型將基本市場模型納入利率因子,以彌補基本市場模型對於與利率連動性較高股票之可能缺陷,模型設計如式(5):

$$r_{it} = \alpha_i + \alpha_{i,M} r_{M,t} + \alpha_{i,D} r_{D,t} + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{5}$$

其中 r_{it} 是第i支股票在第t期下的超額報酬率。 $r_{M,t}$ 與 $r_{D,t}$ 分別代表股價指數與債券指數於第t期下的超額報酬率。而 $\alpha_{i,M}$ 與 $\alpha_{i,D}$ 則為個別股票i對於股價指數報酬率 $(r_{M,t})$ 與債券指數 $(r_{D,t})$ 的敏感度。最後 $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ 為誤差項。

由於國內公債指數編制時間並不夠長,且缺乏合適之短、中、長期債券市場指數作為市場投資組合,同時本研究認為以殖利率曲線形狀之三個因子,水行移動(level)、斜率變化(slope)與曲度變化(curvature),探討其變化對金融類股報酬之影響更具代表性。因此將 Stone 二因子模型修正為式(6):

$$r_{it} = \alpha_i + \alpha_{i,M} r_{M,t} + \alpha_{i,L} L_t + \alpha_{i,S} S_t + \alpha_{i,C} C_t + \alpha_{i,\tau} \tau_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

$$\tag{6}$$

其中 $\alpha_{i,L}$ 、 $\alpha_{i,S}$ 、 $\alpha_{i,C}$ 與 $\alpha_{i,\tau}$,分別代表個別股票 i ,對於水平移動(β_0)、斜率變化(β_1)、曲度變化(β_2)與衰退因子(τ)之敏感度。

(三) 脊迴歸(Auxiliary Regression)分析

當運用多元迴歸模型進行參數估計時,若解釋變數存在高度相關性時,則 T 檢定所判定之係數顯著性將遭受質疑。在考量殖利率曲線之水平移動(β_0)、斜率變化(β_1)、曲度變化(β_2)與衰退因子(τ)可能存在高度相關之問題後,本研究利用 Giliberto (1985)提出之正交化 (Orthogonalizing)程序,對相關係數較高的變數進行脊迴歸分析,並以其殘差序列作為替代變數,藉由減少參數估計精確度(Precision)提高模型預測精準度(Accuracy),進而解決參數間共線性的問題。

在脊迴歸模型設計上,本研究分別以市場報酬率、水平移動(β_0)、斜率變化(β_1)曲度變化(β_2) 與衰退因子(τ)作為應變數,再由剩餘四個變數作為自變數進行迴歸分析;舉例來說,若以市場報酬率為因變數,則將 β_0 、 β_1 、 β_2 與 τ 視為自變數進行估算,其餘則依此類推,詳如(τ)至(11)式:

$$R_{M,t} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_t + \gamma_2 S_t + \gamma_3 C_t + \gamma_4 \tau_t + \varepsilon_{Mt}$$
(7)

$$L_t = \gamma_5 + \gamma_6 R_{M,t} + \gamma_7 S_t + \gamma_8 C_t + \gamma_9 \tau_t + \varepsilon_{Lt}$$
(8)

$$S_{t} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} R_{M,t} + \gamma_{12} L_{t} + \gamma_{13} C_{t} + \gamma_{14} \tau_{t} + \varepsilon_{St}$$
(9)

$$C_{t} = \gamma_{15} + \gamma_{16} R_{M,t} + \gamma_{17} L_{t} + \gamma_{18} S_{t} + \gamma_{19} \tau_{t} + \varepsilon_{Ct}$$
(10)

$$\tau_{t} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21} R_{M,t} + \gamma_{22} L_{t} + \gamma_{23} S_{t} + \gamma_{24} C_{t} + \varepsilon_{\pi t}$$
(11)

其中 γ_i 為迴歸係數, $j=0\sim 24$ 。 $\varepsilon_{i,i}$:為脊迴歸之誤差項, i=M,L,S,C, au, 分別代表正

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⁴⁷ 參數估計過程可參閱周建新、于鴻福、陳振宇 (2006)。

 $^{^{48}}$ $r_{it}=lpha_i+lpha_{i,M}r_{Mt}+arepsilon_{it}$,其中 r_{it} 是第i個資產在第t期下的超額報酬率; $lpha_{i,M}$ 表示個別資產i對於大盤市場指數超額報酬率 r_{Mt} 的敏感度; $arepsilon_{it}$ 為誤差項。

⁴⁹ Madura and Zarruk (1995)、Dinenis and Staikouras (1998)與 Oertmann, Rendu, and Zimmermann (2000)。



交化後,指數超額報酬率、水平移動 (β_0) 、斜率變化 (β_1) 、曲度變化 (β_2) 與衰退因子 (τ) 的殘差序列。

最後,將式(7)至式(11)式之殘差序列代入式(6),得式(12)之多元迴歸方程式:

$$r_{it} = \alpha_i + \alpha_{i,M} r_{Mt}^{\#} + \alpha_{i,L} L_t^{\#} + \alpha_{i,S} S_t^{\#} + \alpha_{i,C} C_t^{\#} + \alpha_{i,\tau} \tau_t^{\#} + u_{it}$$
(12)

其中 $r_{Mt}^{\#}$ 、 $L_t^{\#}$ 、 $S_t^{\#}$ 、 $C_t^{\#}$ 與 $\tau_t^{\#}$ 分別代表指數超額報酬率、水平移動 (β_0) 、斜率變化 (β_1) 、曲度變化 (β_2) 與衰退因子 (τ) 的殘差序列。 α_{ii} 為迴歸係數, $j=M,L,S,C,\tau$ 。

(四) 資料來源

本研究主要係探討殖利率曲線利率風險因子對於金融類股股票報酬之影響。在樣本選取方面,考量於我國自 2003 年金控法通過後,國內銀行業生態產生重大改變,傳統銀行紛紛進行異業或同業間整併,藉由組成金融控股公司取得競爭上的優勢,故資料來源係以 2003 年 2 月至 2006 年 8 月間,各金融機構月股票報酬率進行研究,總計涵蓋 40 家上市(櫃)金融機構⁵⁰,並可細分為證券業、保險業、銀行業與金控業。

在債券資料選取方面,則配合金融機構樣本期間,且選取到期日在30年以內的台灣政府附息公債為樣本,包含一年付息一次與一年付息二次的政府公債。至於殖利率曲線估計時點,則以每月最後一週星期一為基準,避免樣本受到次月份經濟資訊所影響;若該日並無交易資料時,即認定市場仍未有新的資訊反應價格,而以前次最接近之成交資料進行替代。資料來源取自於台灣經濟新報資料庫與櫃檯買賣中心。

三、實證分析

(一) 金融類股樣本統計量與殖利率曲線之利率風險因子

首先,說明金融類股(證券業、保險業、銀行業與金控業)之月報酬序列的資料型態,如表 1。在月平均報酬方面,以保險業表現最佳為 0.73%,其次為金控業的 0.52%,而銀行業最低為 -0.63%。在標準差方面,以保險業為最高為 8.25%。其次為銀行業的 7.85%,而金控業最低為 6.38%。藉由上述平均報酬與風險之結果,可以發現保險業雖平均報酬率較高,但因業務主要以保單為主缺乏多樣性,使得其亦面臨較高程度的風險;而金控業則因各業務合併,增加金融商品的多樣化,不僅提高營業績效,亦有效降低營運風險。故考量風險之後,發現金控業的股價表現優於其餘類別之金融產業。在 Jarque-Bera (JB)常態分配檢定量方面,在 5%的顯著水準下,保險業與金控業皆拒絕報酬序列為常態分配之虛無假設51。另外,在加權股價指數方面,其 JB 檢定量無法拒絕報酬序列為常態之虛無假設。

	八十七里	一般未列~刀丁	力报明十五人	产则可主化	
統計量\類別	證券業	保險業	銀行業	金控業	加權股價指數
平均數	0.0040	0.0073	-0.0063	0.0052	0.0000
標準差	0.0783	0.0825	0.0785	0.0638	0.0460
中位值	0.0032	-0.0110	-0.0271	0.0053	-0.0032
最大值	0.2219	0.2909	0.2100	0.1623	0.0759
最小值	-0.1835	-0.1281	-0.2304	-0.2079	-0.0814
偏態	0.2368	1.1536	0.2332	-0.3460	0.0560
峰態	3.4064	5.0079	3.8552	4.7587	1.7889
Jarque-Bera	0.6979 (0.7054)	16.7602*** (0.0002)	1.7002 (0.4274)	6.3994** (0.0408)	2.6505 (0.2657)

表 1 各金融業別之月平均報酬率基本統計量表

註:括弧為P值

關於殖利率曲線之利率風險因子的敘述統計量,整理於表 2。其中,水平移動之平均數為 0.0326,代表著市場長期利率水準為 3.26%。但觀察其最大值 0.0663 與最小值 0.0150,差距達

⁵⁰總計 14 家銀行、13 家金控、7 家保險公司與 6 家證券公司。

⁵¹JB 統計量虛無假設為服從常態分配。



0.0513(0.0663-0.0513),顯示市場長期利率水準的變化相當大。在斜率變化方面,平均數為-0.0294小於 0,而其最大值與最小值分別為-0.0143 與-0.0427亦皆呈現負值,顯示國內殖利率曲線係處於正斜率的狀況,意味著債券市場的長期利率水準是高於平均短期利率水準。在曲度變化方面,平均數為 0.0155,而最大值與最小值分別為 0.0680 與-0.1036,代表著台灣的利率期限結構非單一形狀,但多數觀察時點之殖利率曲線多呈現駝峰型態,僅部份時點呈現凹谷型態,其結果可由圖 3 之利率期間結構看出端倪。最後,在衰退因子方面,其平均值、最大值與最小值分別為6.1520、18.6815 和 0.0548,且標準差高達 2.8941,顯示該值變動程度很大,意味著依照 Diebold, Rudebusch and Aruoba (2006)的作法將其視為固定值,應會導致估計結果產生偏誤。另外,在Jarque-Bera 之常態分配檢定,發現在 5%的顯著水準下,所有利率因子皆拒絕服從常態分配的假設。

	衣 2 殖利平曲線利平風版四丁之級延続計里									
統計量\參數	水平移動	斜率變化	曲度變化	衰退因子						
平均數	0.0326	-0.0294	0.0155	6.1520						
中位數	0.0290	-0.0303	0.0175	5.8764						
最大值	0.0663	-0.0143	0.0680	18.6815						
最小值	0.0150	-0.0427	-0.1036	0.0548						
標準差	0.0106	0.0049	0.0371	2.8941						
偏態	1.2320	0.5501	-0.9201	1.6931						
峰態	4.3594	5.4450	4.0011	9.2591						
Jarque-Bera	14.5187*** (0.0007)	13.1786*** (0.0014)	8.0454** (0.0179)	92.8460*** (0.0000)						

表 2 殖利率曲線利率風險因子之敍述統計量

註:括弧為P值

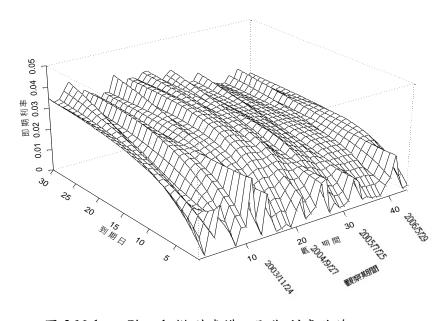


圖 3 Nelson-Siegel 模型建構之即期利率曲線

本文亦針對水平移動、斜率變化、曲度變化與衰退因子之相關性進行分析,藉以檢測各因子間的關聯性,避免迴歸估計結果因共線性問題未修正而產生偏誤,結果整理於表 3。其中,發現水平移動與曲度變化之相關性高達-77.84%;而水平移動和斜率變化之相關係數亦有-66.99%,顯示殖利率曲線的利率風險因子,彼此間並非相互獨立,須針對共線性問題進行處理。本文係採用Giliberto (1985)提出的正交化程序,藉此消除利率風險因子的交互影響。



表 3 殖利率曲線形狀參數之相關係數矩陣表

	水平移動	斜率變化	曲度變化	衰退因子
水平移動	1.0000	-0.6699	-0.7784	0.3203
斜率變化	-	1.0000	0.2457	-0.2221
曲度變化	-	-	1.0000	0.0932
衰退因子	-	-	-	1.0000

本研究亦針對利率風險因子進行 ADF 單根檢定,以判定序列是否為定態,詳如表 4。其中, 曲度變化之統計 t 值為(-4.5377)拒絕單根檢定,顯示曲度變化序列並非定態。而水平移動、斜率變化與衰退因子分別為(-0.9353)、(-0.5562)與(-1.3220)皆無法拒絕單根。在針對上述因子進行一階差分後,發現序列皆呈現拒絕單根的現象。故本研究統一對水平移動、斜率變化、曲度變化與衰退因子等序列進行一階差分處理。

表 4 殖利率曲線形狀參數之單根檢定

報酬序列\參數	水平移動	斜率變化	曲度變化	衰退因子
原始水準	-0.9353(1)	-0.5562(0)	-4.5377***(0)	-1.3220(1)
一階差分	-5.8553***(2)	-6.9664***(0)	-9.4693***(0)	-7.800***(2)

註: ***表示在 1%的水準下顯著。()內之數值為最適落後期數。最適落後期數的選擇之目的, 在於避免殘差的序列相關影響 ADF 的檢定結果產生偏誤。

(二) 市場風險因子、殖利率曲線利率風險與金融機構股票報酬之關聯性

關於表 5 台股指數超額報酬率於 OLS、FEM、SURE 與 REM 模型之參數,分別為(-0.1267)、(-0.1267)、(-0.1267)、(-0.1233)與(-0.1267)皆呈現顯著為負,代表著各金融機構的股價與大盤呈現相反之走勢。而在殖利率曲線利率風險因子方面,發現水平移動與金融機構股票報酬於各模型皆呈現顯著為正,此結果表示長期利率的上揚會刺激金融類股股價上漲。在斜率變化方面,各模型參數雖呈現負向關聯,但並未達到統計顯著水準,顯示短期利率變動並不會對金融機構股價產生衝擊。另外,就曲度變化而言,各模型參數皆呈現顯著負向,指出中期利率因子降低時會促使公司股價成長。就殖利率曲線特性而言,當曲度增加時,其長短期利率水準將會因此下降,又根據上述結果發現斜率變化對金融類股之影響力並不顯著,亦謂著長期利率水準將會因此下降,又根據上述結果發現斜率變化對金融類股之影響力並不顯著,亦謂著長期利率因子的減少係影響金融機構股價下跌的關鍵因素。最後,在衰退因子方面,發現其對金融機構股票報酬率具有顯著負相關,代表衰退因子較小時,長期利率因子對金融機構股價的影響力將會增加。

表 5 整體市場風險因子與殖利率曲線形狀因子對金融機構股票報酬率之影響

解釋變數\估計方法	OLS	FEM	SURE	REM
台股指數超額報酬	-0.1267**	-0.1267**	-0.1233***	-0.1267**
口权伯数型领积例	(0.0110)	(0.0114)	(0.0000)	(0.0113)
水平移動	37.8556***	37.8556***	38.0108***	37.8556***
小 十秒期	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
斜率變化	-0.5466	-0.5466	-0.4024	-0.5466
杆平变化	(0.6839)	(0.6855)	(0.4147)	(0.6851)
曲度變化	-9.5326***	-9.5326***	-9.6196***	-9.5326***
西及变化	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
弃退田乙	-0.0055***	-0.0055***	-0.0051***	-0.0055***
衰退因子	(0.0074)	(0.0077)	(0.0000)	(0.0076)
調整後 R ²	0.0637	0.0537	0.0536	0.0565

- 註:1.本文使用之估計方法分別為傳統最小平方法(OLS)、固定效果(FEM)法、隨機效果(REM) 法、近似無相關迴歸(SURM)。
 - 2. "***"表示在 1%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零;"**"表示在 5%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零;"*"表示在 10%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零。
 - 3.表中括號為p值。
- (三) 市場風險因子、殖利率曲線風險因子對各類金融機構股票報酬率之影響 本文依業務性質不同,將金融機構區分為證券、保險、銀行與金控公司等四類進行分析。但



由於 REM 法須具備較多筆之樣本個數,故在研究設計上,吾人僅採用傳統最小平方法(OLS)、固定效果(FEM)法與近似無相關迴歸(SURM),進行估計與比較,結果如表 6。

在台股指數超額報酬方面,其對證券業、保險業、銀行業與金控業於各模型皆呈現負值,但除保險業外並未達到顯著水準。另外,在殖利率曲線利率風險因子方面,水平移動對於各金融類股報酬皆有顯著的正向影響,在影響程度方面以證券業最深,其次為保險業,再者為銀行業,最後則為金控業。此結果意味著,長期利率變動對於證券業之股價影響程度最高,而金控業因業務多角化經營後,降低長期利率水準對其業務的影響程度。其次,在斜率變化方面,在各金融類股皆為不顯著,代表短期利率並不會對其股價造成衝擊。對於曲度變化而言,各金融類股皆呈現顯著負值,代表公司股價會受中期利率因子影響,而在影響程度方面,亦以證券業最高,保險業次之,而金控業則為最低。最後,在衰退因子的檢定上,除了保險業外,該參數值的變動對於各類金融機構股票報酬,皆具有顯著的負向影響。間接隱含著長期利率因子與金融融機構股價報酬間呈現正向關聯。



表 6 市場風險因子與殖利率曲線形狀因子,對各類金融機構股票報酬率之影響

化	六 鱼 7 十 四 8 7 1 1 1	21 日 次 亚 阳水水	科风尔·机 列十~孙音
解釋變數\估計方法	OLS	FEM	SURM
證券類			
人肌性批和松红虹	-0.0521	-0.0521	-0.1194
台股指數超額報酬	(0.7017)	(0.7044)	(0.4930)
1. T. 40 £)	55.0742***	55.0742***	52.9628***
水平移動	(0.0000)	(0.0001)	(0.0020)
かま 沙カ	-0.2047	-0.2047	1.7308
斜率變化	(0.9555)	(0.9559)	(0.7125)
n & 124 n	-16.1127***	-16.1127***	-14.1425***
曲度變化	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0010)
古田田フ	-0.0133**	-0.0133**	-0.0051
衰退因子	(0.0179)	(0.0190)	(0.4739)
調整後 R ²	0.1132	0.0962	0.0869
1. nn the but be over for the	-0.3589***	-0.3589***	-0.1402
台股指數超額報酬	(0.0044)	(0.0045)	(0.2968)
1. T. 12 51	52.7037***	52.7037***	36.3227***
水平移動	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0058)
かなかり	-0.9772	-0.9772	-4.8384
斜率變化	(0.7720)	(0.7729)	(0.1821)
11 古 / 44 / 1	-11.5494***	-11.5494***	-8.5366***
曲度變化	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.0094)
七田田フ	0.0037	0.0037	0.0021
衰退因子	(0.4695)	(0.4713)	(0.7001)
調整後 R ²	0.1014	0.0941	0.0520
 銀行類			
	-0.0691	-0.0691	-0.0130
台股指數超額報酬	(0.4442)	(0.4469)	(0.9181)
1. 7. 12 5.	37.7151***	37.7151***	9.1474***
水平移動	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.4580)
ハーナル・サ ハ	-1.9619	-1.9619	1.2491
斜率變化	(0.4206)	(0.4233)	(0.7142)
11 六 44 11	-9.2242***	-9.2242***	-3.3945
曲度變化	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.2702)
古田田フ	-0.0066*	-0.0066*	-0.0060
衰退因子	(0.0752)	(0.0770)	(0.2495)
調整後 R ²	0.0479	0.0366	0.0087
金控類			
	-0.0983	-0.0983	0.0129
台股指數超額報酬	(0.1806)	(0.1836)	(0.9232)
小亚动毛	22.0648***	22.0648***	25.5683*
水平移動	(0.0021)	(0.0023)	(0.0501)
州南越川	1.0516	1.0516	-5.2169
斜率變化	(0.5949)	(0.5974)	(0.1484)
1 1 10 10 11	-5.7418***	-5.7418***	-8.8503***
曲度變化	(0.0014)	(0.0015)	(0.0067)
七四四つ	-0.0056**	-0.0056**	-0.0159***
衰退因子	(0.0620)	(0.0639)	(0.0039)
調整後 R ²	0.0451	0.0317	-0.0200

註:1. "***"表示在1%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零;"**"表示在5%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零;"*"表示在10%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零。 2.括號內為p值。

(四) 市場風險因子與殖利率曲線形狀因子對其他類股之報酬率之影響

除以金融類股進行分析外,本研究亦分別針對水泥、食品、塑膠、紡織、機電、造紙與營建 等七大類股,探討殖利率曲線利率風險因子對不同類股股價報酬的影響,結果整理如表 7。首先,



針對水泥類股而言,殖利率曲線之水平移動與曲度變化對其有顯著影響,其餘變數則無。而對於 食品、塑膠、紡織、機電、造紙與營建等,各變數在統計上皆未達顯著,顯示殖利率曲線形狀除 對於金融類股外,僅水泥類股股價受其影響較深。

表 7 市場風險因子與利率風險因子對其它類股指數報酬率之影響	いい
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參數\產業	水泥	食品	塑化	紡織	機電	造紙	營建
台股指數超	-0.0705	-0.1483	0.0330	-0.0366	0.2708	-0.1017	0.0600
額報酬	(0.7820)	(0.5627)	(0.8291)	(0.8928)	(0.1800)	(0.7299)	(0.8762)
水平移動	66.8435**	22.1696	23.2538	36.6209	13.3000	36.9533	16.9559
	(0.0101)	(0.3760)	(0.1248)	(0.1714)	(0.4953)	(0.2024)	(0.6518)
斜率變化	-0.8586	8.9191	0.2686	3.3967	2.4812	12.8199	6.6582
	(0.9006)	(0.2007)	(0.9481)	(0.6429)	(0.6452)	(0.1123)	(0.5226)
曲度變化	-18.9912***	-8.5246	-8.5413**	-12.2030	-3.9323	-10.3631	-3.4618
	(0.0038)	(0.1759)	(0.0266)	(0.0707)	(0.4201)	(0.1535)	(0.7121)
衰退因子	-0.0151	-0.0133	-0.0137**	-0.0173	-0.0021	-0.0048	-0.0039
	(0.1545)	(0.2101)	(0.0353)	(0.1277)	(0.7977)	(0.6918)	(0.8062)
調整後 R ²	0.1928	0.1055	0.1202	0.0800	-0.0213	0.1608	-0.0462

註:1.***表示在1%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零;**表示在5%的水準下顯著不接受 虛無

假設係數為零;*表示在10%的水準下顯著不接受虛無假設係數為零。

2.括號內為p值。

四、結論

本研究以 Stone 二因子模型為基礎,並利用 Nelson-Siegel (1987)模型提出之水平移動、斜率變化、曲度變化與衰退因子,作為殖利率曲線形狀的替代變數,以探討其對金融類股股票報酬之影響。此外,為了解殖利率曲線形狀變化對相異業務之金融機構影響程度,故將金融機構細分為證券業、保險業、銀行業與金控業進行討論。在研究模型設計方面,除採用傳統最小平方法(OLS)外,並以固定效果(FEM)法、隨機效果(REM)法與近似無相關迴歸(SURE)進行比較。此外,為避免應變數高度相關所導致係數估計產生偏誤,更運用 Giliberto (1985)提出之正交化(Orthogonalizing)程序,將相關係數較高的變數進行脊迴歸分析,並以其殘差序列作為替代變數,以消變數間共線性的問題。

實證結果顯示:(1)在不同的估計模型下,台股指數超額報酬率對各金融機構股價報酬率皆呈現顯著的負向影響,代表著大盤與金融機構的股價呈現相反走勢;而金融指數超額報酬率則與金融機構股價報酬率,則呈現顯著正向的影響。(2)水平移動與金融機構股票報酬率間,呈現顯著正向關係。表示長期利率上揚,會使得國內金融機構的淨利息收益增加,進而促使股價上揚。(3)斜率變化則與金融機構股票報酬間呈現不顯著的影響。代表著短期利率的變動,並不會對金融機構的股票報酬變化產生重大的影響。(4) 曲度變化則與金融機構股票報酬率的影響皆呈現顯著負向影響。說明出中期利率因子降低時會使得金融機構股價報酬增加。(5)在衰退因子的檢定上,該參數值的變動對於不同行業別金融類股的影響力,除了保險業外,皆具有顯著的負向影響。此現象意味著 Diebold, Rudebusch and Aruoba (2006)將 7 視為固定值估計利率期限結構時,可能忽略其隱含的利率資訊。

本研究利用 Nelson-Siegel(1987)模型之參數,作為殖利率曲線形狀的替代變數,以探討殖利率曲線形狀對於各金融類股的影響程度。在實證結果上,不僅可以做為央行訂定利率政策的依據,亦可做為投資者研擬股市投資策略的參考,實具有學術與實務的價值。在後續研究方面,建議可針對不同利率因子的變動,對於金融機構風險值的影響進行探討。



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自行車騎士遊憩動機、人口統計變數與專業化間關係之研究

The Study of the Relationships Among Cyclists' Recreation Motivation, Demographic, and Specialization

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摘要

自行車產業的快速發展,促使廠商更加重視騎士對於自行車功能的設計(如車體材料、LED車輪)以滿足騎士多變化的自行車休閒需求。因此,自行車產業需深入探討「騎士對於騎乘自行車的需求及行為」,亦成為現今運動休閒領域的重要研究方向。針對自行車市場,本研究探討行車騎士人口統計變數、遊憩動機與專門化程度間關係,進而設計出更貼近自行車騎士需求的行銷推廣策略。藉由嚴謹的問卷設計與調查法,由 3 位受過問卷發放訓練的研究人員詢問 500 位當時正在新北市自行車道騎乘之騎士為對象。分析結果發現遊憩動機對專業化程度有顯著正面與負面影響,不同騎乘者特徵對遊憩動機與專業化程度有顯著差異。本研究調查上述變數關係,期望能幫助產業界深入分析消費者的騎乘行為與需求

關鍵字:自行車騎士、遊憩動機、人口統計變數、專業化

ABSTRACT

The rapidly development of bicycle industry fosters the manufacturers to pay more attention to the function design of bicycle and to keep in step with the changeable leisure needs of cyclists. Therefore, it is necessary for the bicycle industry to examine the cyclists' behavior, their requirements to bicycle. This trend has become an important research aspect in leisure sports field. With an aim to investigate the relationships among cyclist's demographic, recreation motivation and specialization, this study is expected to design the marketing promotion strategy that is closer to the demand of cyclists. This study thus designed the precise questionnaire and survey method. Three trained research assistants will ask to distribute questionnaire to 500 cyclists beside the bicycle path of Taipei city. The statistics results indicated that: (1) recreation motivation positive and negative influences specialization. (2) different cyclists' demographic characteristics have significantly difference of recreation motivation and specialization. This study is expected to examine the above-mentioned variables to help industries to deeply analyze consumers' riding behavior and demands.

Keyword: Cyclist, Recreation Motivation, Demographic, Specialization

一、緒論

近年來自行車產業的快速發展,促使廠商更加重視騎士對於自行車功能的設計(如車體材料、LED 車輪)與如何滿足騎士多變化的自行車休閒需求。同時,也由於自行車設計越加重視消費者需求的情況下,自行車廠商在 2009 年之產值更高達 NT\$825 億元,年產量達到 460 萬輛(梁志鴻,2010),這種快速發展的產業現象,如同良性循環般越加造就了國人熱愛自行車活動,使得自行車成為國人生活的一部份,不論在運動、休閒、低碳運輸(張馨文,2003)上都有不凡的表現。此一現象的形成,亦是受益於行政院體育委員會(2006)為提倡全民運動,曾於 2002 年推出運動人口倍增計劃,除了普設運動休閒自行車道,亦推展單車休閒運動。由此可知,不論是自行車產業深入探討「騎士對於騎乘自行車的需求及行為」,以及「自行車對於國人生活的影響」,為現今運動休閒領域的重要研究方向。

針對自行車產業的快速發展,學者進行許多相關研究的探討,例如張馨文(2003)以觀光的角度,探討台灣推動自行車觀光、運輸與自行車觀光實務,所能帶來的政府、社會、環境及產業效益。Ritchie(1998)從需求角度探討紐西蘭地區自行車騎士的個人特質、基礎設施和旅遊行為。研究結果顯示,自行車旅遊型式會受到騎士的背景、旅遊期望、態度與動機而造成不同。賴其勛、



楊靜芳、許世彥(2000)調查自行車消費者的人口統計變數及購買決策的差異性,黃顗芳(2003)針 對新竹縣峨眉湖自行車觀光客,探討自行車觀光客之特性環境偏好,並分析其背景屬性對環境態 度認知之差異,以及自行車觀光客遊憩體驗與其環境態度間的關係。

本研究綜合上述學者之研究與實務現象,認為調查自行車騎士的騎乘行為與認知等,的確有助於產業界深入瞭解騎士之需求,更有助於設計符合騎士需求的休閒活動與政策。因此,本研究預期以騎士的人口統計變數與遊憩動機,探討其與騎士的騎乘專業化程度間關係。為什麼由這個觀點來探討騎士的騎乘專業化程度?原因在於:政府為了講求休閒、低碳的環保風潮,已在全台各地推出許多專供自行車騎乘的單車道,讓騎士可以體驗到各種不同坡度、環境之遊憩路線。由此可知,環境屬性的不同(Lee, Graefe, & Li, 2007)會造成自行車騎士對於遊憩的動機或專門化程度產生不同認知。舉例而言,若騎士追求的是逃脫日常壓力之生活型式,由於個人想要經歷不同於每天固定工作、社交的環境,希冀參與休閒活動以放鬆日常生活的壓力,因此遊憩動機是偏向於悠閒與樂活式的型態,可能較想到大自然環境進行騎乘活動。但是,若騎士追求的是冒險、刺激的動機,則會選擇較困難、危險的騎乘路線,也因而需要更多的專業設備及訓練。由此可知,當探討騎士騎乘行為與認知時,遊憩動機可能會影響騎乘專業化程度,以及個人特徵的不同(如性別)亦有造成騎乘專業化之差異化之可能性。

有鑑於此,本研究認為透過自行車騎士的騎乘行為與個人認知調查,可以協助自行車產業在自行車的功能設計、行銷企劃、推廣活動上,能提出更符合騎士需求的因應策略。因此,本研究預期達成下列研究目的:(1)深入探討自行車騎士的騎乘行為與人口統計資料調查,透過上述騎乘行為之調查,有助於產業人士在設計行銷或推廣策略上有更詳盡的基礎資料。(2)深入探討自行車騎士的遊憩動機與專業化程度,有助於產業人士瞭解國人對於自行車所帶來的遊憩動機,以及對自行車專業認知程度。(3)深入探討自行車騎士不同人口統計變數(如性別、年齡)在遊憩動機、專業化程度上之差異程度,有助於產業人士發展與區分適當的顧客區隔,或是設計更符合特定顧客區隔的運動推廣策略。

二、文獻探討

(一)遊憩動機

動機或驅力乃是指引起個體活動、維持該種活動並導使該種活動朝向某一目標進行的一種內在歷程(陳思倫,1996)。游恆山(2001)指出動機是個體內的一種緊張狀態,它促發、維持並引導個體的行為朝向某些目標。因此,動機就是一種被刺激的需求,促使消費者採取行動來加以滿足、降低個人的焦慮與不安,可說是個人的傾向以及勇於嚐試以滿足其本質的心理狀況(Bromley,1990)。Moutinho(2000)認為動機是一種需求狀況,或是驅使個人採取某種行動,從中得到滿足。Mook(1996)亦定義動機為人們行為的起因(cause)。因此,遊憩動機為個體滿足休閒遊憩需求,引起個體從事產生且維持該遊憩活動,並導引該遊憩活動朝某一目標進行之一種內在歷程,藉此產生遊憩活動之行為(Crandall,1980)。

動機調查可採用推式及拉式二種(Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Goossens, 2000; Jang & Cai, 2002; Yuan & McDonald, 1990)。推式動機,為人們被內在驅力所趨使,決定旅遊的行為。可知乃是個人內在力量影響,並增加人們想要旅遊的渴望。拉式動機則是外在力量的影響(如觀光地景觀),由外在力量促使個人旅遊的動機(Dann, 1977)。Oh Uysal, and Weaver (1995)在的推力與拉力動機理論提出推力代表社會心理動機,會引發個體旅行的慾望;拉力:人們為何選擇該旅遊目的地,即吸引個體前往一旅遊目的地的因素,與目的地選擇有關。

McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie (1995)將遊憩動機基本理論,依需求將旅遊動機分為:(1)生理動機:透過對身體健康有益的旅遊活動來達成鬆弛身心的目的,如體力的休息、參加體育活動、遊憩及娛樂活動、溫泉療養、渡假休息、避暑避寒等。(2)文化動機:特點是著重在知識的獲得、了解各地的不同文化,包括了歷史文化傳統、音樂、藝術、民俗、舞蹈、繪畫及宗教方面等範疇,所產生的旅遊型態可以是觀賞風景名勝、古蹟文物、進行學術交流等。(3)人際動機:包括改變目前工作或生活的環境,探訪親友,結識良師益友、建立新的友誼等。這方面的動機主要以社交活動為主,通常有特地的目的地或拜訪的對象,比較常見於國內的旅遊。(4)地位與聲望動機:此項動機主要對個人成就和個人發展有利,想達到受人認同、引人注目、受人賞識、具有聲望的目的,例如出席高層次的學術會議、增加閱歷的修學旅行、參加專業團體的聚會等,期望能透過這些旅遊可以贏得名聲及注意,尋求自我和自我實現。Beard & Ragheb(1983)的研究中針對一般



旅客進行遊憩動機的調查,將旅客的遊憩動機以因素分析主成份分析法歸納成四個購面:1.知性動機(Intellectual motive):在休閒活動中包含多少程度的心智活動,像是含有學習、冒險、發現、思考、想像等成份的活動。2.社會動機(Social component):因友情及人際關係的需要而去休閒,而後者為了取得他人的尊敬或注意。3.主宰的誘因(competence mastery):人們因想達成、主宰、完成挑戰而進行休閒。4.逃避的誘因(Stimulus-avoidance):想逃避過於刺激的生活;想逃離人群的糾紛,尋求放鬆自己、自由獨立的感受。Fleischer and Pizam(2002)回顧先前研究,認為遊憩動機包含休息及消遣、社會互動、運動、學習、懷舊及追求刺激等。侯錦雄、郭璋仁(2003)將遊憩動機因素歸納為追求社交知識效益、追求自我與冒險、追求自然體驗、隨遇而安等類型。

(二)專業化程度

最早提出遊憩專業化概念的是由 Bryan 在 1977 年所提出,他提出遊憩專業化(recreation specialization)的觀點,並且將這觀點把釣魚者分為四組(偶爾為之者(occasional)、一般專業者 (generalists)、技術專業者 (technique-specialists),和技術和特定地點專業者 (technique-setting pecialists),分類的基礎建立在設備的差異、技能的運用和活動的偏好上。往後的研究也都支持 Bryan 所提出的專業化(Salz & Loomis, 2005)。

Bryan 對專業化的定義是一般廣泛的遊憩活動且低涉入到對活動產生特殊的興趣且高涉入的連續過程與行為,由於對活動產生特殊的興趣,會依據活動用裝備、技巧和對環境偏好來區別或評定活動者的專業化程度。另外,Bryan(1977)的研究結果顯示,涉入程度高低不同之使用者其活動中的行為與態度是有差異性:釣魚者通常會隨著時間增加,而經驗趨於專業化,並且高專業釣魚者通常會加入其相關社團,與團體中的每一個人有著相似的態度信仰以及意識型態。同時,隨著休閒專業化程度的變化,消費者對遊憩活動的承諾也會跟著提高,附屬投資也會增加(Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997; Salz, Loomis, & Finn, 2001)。由此可知,專業化程度可作為探討遊憩活動的重要因素。因此,休閒專業化的架構已經使用在許多不同的戶外休閒活動中,從一開始Bryan 在 1977 提出用在釣魚活動之後,陸續有學者開始研究用在其他休閒遊憩活動中。這些活動包括有獨木舟、健行、打獵、露營、賞鳥和泛舟等遊憩活動,活動的內涵雖不盡相同,但使用專業化的架構依舊能為這些活動做出有效的分群。

衡量專業化程度的構面上,Little(1976)提出專業化是由三大系統所組成,包括有認知系統、行為系統和情感系統。這些項目都可以用來衡量專業化程度。行為指的是參與活動的頻率與強度,認知指的是概念的內容和構造組織的面向,情感指的是對活動的與趣與支持。陳心怡(2004)則根據 Little(1976)的分類方法,設計自行車騎乘者專業化程度測量可從:(1)騎乘者之過去經驗(騎乘年份、過去一年騎乘頻率、平均每月騎乘幾公里、每趟平均騎乘多幾公里、過去一年內騎過幾條不同的路線)、技術程度、裝備、活動吸引力(重要性、愉悅性)、生活之中心性、自我表現等幾個面向發展問項進行測量。(2)行為面:由過去經驗、對遊憩環境熟悉度等二個變項加以測量。(3)情感面:由重要性、快樂性、自我表現、中心性等四個變項加以測量。

(三)研究假設

動機可以說是行為的內在歷程,促使行為發生的一種力量,這種力量可以分成內在心理因素與外在環境刺激,過去學者以釣魚活動為研究範圍,並認為動機構面包含選擇釣魚地點、釣魚抓到比例、成功釣到的過去經驗,並且正向影響著個人專業化程度(Salz et al., 2001; Sutton & Ditton, 2001)。另外,陳偉仁(2005)以水肺潛水活動為例,發現個人構成專業化必須由個人動機產生,當個人對水肺潛水活動產生挑戰感、樂於學習或與他人保持社交等動機,會正向影響個人在專業化程度(如吸引力、自我表現等)上的表現。因此,本研究推論自行車騎乘者在個人動機上的認知感受會正向影響其在自行車騎乘的專業化程度。

H1: 自行車騎乘者個人的遊憩動機會正向影響專業化程度。

鄭育雄、李英弘、葉源鎰(2005)調查中部自行車社團後指出,不同社團間對於專門化程度的認知面、情感面與行為面上的認知會有所不同,由此可知不同騎乘者在特徵上(如所處社團)的不同會造成專業化程度上的差異性。林建堯、傅克昌、歐聖榮(1999)發現參與騎乘活動的動機及對車道環境屬性重要度認知具有差異性,例如自行車道騎乘者的騎乘動機在騎乘者的教育程度、騎乘伙伴的不同會有所差異。Lee et al. (2007)調查 663 位參與獨木舟活動者,發現男性在專業化程上明顯高於女性,並且女性偏好體驗自然、休閒等動機。另外,朱瑞淵與陳梅君(2010)以美利達單車逍遙道活動的 391 位騎乘者進行調查,發現不同個人背景之自行車參與者在遊憩動機與遊憩



專門化上有顯著差異,例如男性的過去騎乘經驗多於女性、騎乘對象為車友的參與者之過去經驗 多於獨自或與親友之參與者。因此,提出假設2與3:

H2: 自行車騎士不同人口統計變數對其遊憩動機有顯著差異

H3: 自行車騎士不同人口統計變數對其專業化有顯著差異

三、研究方法

(一)研究架構

本研究整理過去研究成果後,主要目的為探討自行車騎士的遊憩動機、專業化程度之關係, 並藉由騎士的人口統計變數(如性別),分析其在上述二項變數間差異程度(如圖 1)。

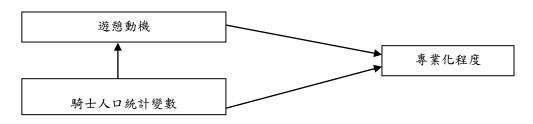


圖 1 研究架構圖

(二)量表發展

本研究之量表發展共分成三個階段。第一,本研究以過去學者使用過且信、效度表現良好之 題項做為量表基礎(如 McIntyre, 1992; Todd et al., 2000; 侯錦雄、郭璋仁, 2003; 鄭育雄等人, 2005)。第二,本研究各找尋3位及5位經常騎乘自行車之騎士,進行二次題項語義加以修改。 第三,本研究以35位騎士進行問券前測,各構面信度值範圍在0.7-0.88之間,形成正式問卷。

問卷內容可分成三部份。第一部份,詢問受測者的人口統計變數及騎乘行為,題項包含性別、年齡職業、每月收入、教育程度、陪同騎車對象與人數,投資在自行車金額、資歷、參與自行車活動與每月騎乘自行車次數。第二部份,遊憩動機。遊憩動機參考自 McIntyre(1992)與 Todd et al. (2002),構面可分為追求社交知識(樣本題項:與家人朋友之間一起騎乘自行車可以增進感情;騎自行車可以學習新的事物)、追求自我與冒險(樣本題項:騎自行車讓我肯定自己;想要冒險尋找刺激)、追求自然體驗(樣本題項:騎自行車是想離開都市親近自然)與隨遇而安(如心血來潮,騎車走走),各4題。第三部份,專業化程度,代表自行車騎乘者對於騎乘自行車活動的認知系統、情感系統和行為系統的了解程度,參考自鄭育雄等人(2005)、陳心怡(2004)與 Hollenhorst et al. (1995)。題項構面可分為騎乘環境(如:車道鋪面採用瀝青等較平整的自行車路線;指示設施完善的自行車路線)、認知程度(如:自己在騎乘自行車的技巧比別人還要純熟;我的生活中處處充滿了自行車活動的相關事物)、情感程度(如:參與自行車活動的過程我獲得許多樂趣)與行為程度(如:自行車服裝花費程度、平均投資自行車擺設等)。上述問項均為 Likert 5 點量表,由完全不認同(1)到完全認同(5),詳細題項已發展完畢,可在計劃通過後即期實行。

(三)抽樣設計

本研究將新北市設定為抽樣範圍,主要原因在於新北市人口數為全國之冠,並且在所得與消費能力上均有一定之水準。其次,抽樣地點則是新北市的自行車道,共計 12條(景美溪、新店溪、淡水河、社子島、基隆河、關渡口、金色水岸、八里左岸、二重環狀、大漢溪右左岸、新店溪),採用隨機抽樣方法抽取 5條自行車道(景美溪、社子島、金色水岸、大漢溪右岸與新店溪)為抽樣地點。在 1 週的時間內由 3 位已參與市場調查及問卷發放訓練的研究助理進行問卷發放。最後,研究助理在各處主要出入口發放 100 份問卷(總計 500 份)給予自行車騎士填寫,並於調查後提供贈品以增加受測者填答意願。

四、統計分析

(一) 樣本描述性統計



本研究總計發放 500 份問卷,有效問卷為 474 份。經由百分比分析後(如表 1)發現,多數騎 乘自行車者為男性(76.16%)、未婚(66.03%)、大專學歷以上(79.32%),並且騎乘多與朋友或家人 一同(約61%),較少單獨一人(約28%)。年齡方面,則是21-30歲為主(38.82%),但是31歲以上 者亦為數不少(>47%)。此外,騎乘自行車者收入以4萬以下居多(約64%),職業則是以服務、商 業(35.02%)與學生族群(32.91%)居多。由此可知,騎乘自行車者不只是年輕人喜愛、就算是中年 人也有一群支持者,並且多數為未婚高學歷者,與一群志同道合者一同出遊。

表 1 樣本人口統計變數百分比表

	- VC -	MC-4-> C . "		~	
樣本特性	人數	百分比	樣本特性	人數	百分比
男	361	76.16	未婚	313	66.03
女	113	23.84	已婚	161	33.97
單獨	130	27.43	1人	136	28.69
家人	140	29.54	2-5 人	305	64.35
社團車友	45	9.49	6-8 人 15		3.16
朋友	151	31.86	9-11 人	10	2.11
其他	8	1.69	12 人以上	8	1.69
20 歲以下	64	13.50	國中小	17	3.59
21-30 歲	184	38.82	高中職 81		17.09
31-40 歲	96	20.25	大專	310	65.40
41-50 歲	75	15.82	研究所以上	66	13.92

樣本特性	人數	百分比	樣本特性	人數	百分比
51-60 歲	44	9.28	學生	156	32.91
61 歲以上	11	2.32	軍公教	50	10.55
2萬元以下	163	34.39	商業	90	18.99
20001-40000	143	30.17	工業	43	9.07
40001-60000	103	21.73	服務業	76	16.03
60001-80000	35	7.38	自由業	20	4.22
80001-100000	13	2.74	家管	7	1.48
100001 元以上	17	3.59	無	20	4.22
台北市	214	45.15	其他	12	2.53
台北縣	213	44.94			
其他外縣市	45	9.90			

關於騎乘自行車者之騎乘行為(如表 2),本研究發現騎乘者在車服、安全防護與自行車擺設 裝飾上,花費均低於 1000 元/500 元(48-53%)。同時,騎乘自行車的資歷,以半年至三年內為 主(41.98%),亦符合本次自行車風潮的時間點,而五年以上者亦不在少數(31.12%),並且每月騎 乘次數以四次以上者居多久(38.82%)。由此可知,騎乘自行車者,對於騎乘自行車極為喜愛,並 且是一項花費不高的個人休閒活動。



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自行車車服	次數		百分比		安全	防護		次數	百分比	
1000 元以下		254	5	53.59	1000	元以	下		241	50.84
1001-3000 д	5	138	2	29.11	1001-	3000	元		172	36.29
3001-5000 д	5	50	1	0.55	3001-	5000	元		36	7.59
5000 元以上		32		6.75	5000	元以	上		25	5.27
騎乘資歷	次數	百分比	每月騎乘次	、數	次數	百	万分比	次數	擺設裝飾	百分比
半年內	63	13.29	沒有			99	20.89	500 元以下	229	48.31
半年-3年內	199	41.98	1-2 次			97	20.47	501-1000 元	130	27.43
3年-5年內	64	13.50	3-4 次			94	19.83	1001-1500 л	c 71	14.98
5年以上	148	31.12	4次以上		1	84	38.82	1501 元以上	. 44	9.28

(二) 構面信效度分析

本研究以 SPSS 軟體進行量表因素分析以檢測其效度表現,並依照主成份分析法配合最大轉軸法來選取 Kaiser 值大於 1 的因素,同時剔除因素負荷量低於 0.5 之題項,信度值則以 Cronbach's α 係數加以檢測。結果顯示可分成四個因素,各題項與因素間的負荷量高於 0.5 以上,因此無剔除題項。其次,各構面之信度值範圍為 0.63-0.72,尚在學者建議之標準值內,因此信度表現亦良好。最後,按照各構面與題項間關係,將遊憩動機各自命名(如表 3)為:學習與感情聯繫、追求自然體驗、追求自我與隨遇而安等四個構面。

表 3 遊憩動機效度與信度分析

命名	題項	因素	因素	因素	因素	特徵	累積變
			=	Ξ	四	值(α)	異量
學習	A2 與家人在騎乘自行車的過程中,可以進行機會教育	0.751					
與感 情聯	A4 騎自行車可以學習新的事物	0.724					
繋	A5 騎自行車可以重新回憶過去的經驗	0.668				3.805 (0.72)	23.780
	A1 與家人朋友之間一起騎乘自行車可以增進感情	0.595				(0.72)	
	A6 為了能夠結交更多喜愛騎自行車的朋友	0.557					
追求	A2 騎自行車是想離開都市親近自然		0.822				
自然 體驗	A13 騎自行車是為了欣賞自然生態景觀		0.777			2.162 (.76)	37.295
75.4	A11 為了舒解壓力所以選擇騎自行車		0.698			(.70)	
追求	A9 騎自行車是想要冒險尋找刺激			0.736			
自我	A7 騎自行車是想要追求時尚流行			0.609		1.462	
	A8 騎自行車是為了遠離人群享受孤獨與寧靜			0.569		1.462	46.433
	A10 騎自行車讓我肯定自己			0.568		(.03)	
	A2 騎自行車是為了做研究或調查			0.532			
隨遇	A14 為了打發時間騎車到處逛逛				0.822		
而安	A15 順應別人的自行車遊玩邀約				0.753	1.311	54.624
	A16 心血來潮,騎車走走				0.690	(.68)	

關於專業化程度量表,本研究亦採用 SPSS 軟體進行因素分析及信度分析。首先,基於專業 化程度量表為過去學者使用且信效度表現良好之問項,因此以各自構面進行因素分析,按照萃取 構面特徵值大於 1 且剔除問項與因素間負荷量低於 0.5 的標準後,因為 B1、B3 與其構面的標準



負荷量低於 0.5 而刪除。總計保留 24 個題項,並可區分成五個構面:騎乘環境、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力及技術程度等。最後,構面信度值範圍從 0.70-0.90,可知各構面信度表現良好。

表 4 專業化效度與信度分析

命名	題項	因素負荷量	特徵值	累積解釋量
騎乘	B5 設施完善的自行車路線對我來說是重要的	0.875		66.892
環境	B4 公共設施完善的自行車路線對我來說是重要的	0.866	3.345	
	B6 車道鋪面採用瀝青等較平整的自行車路線對我來說是重要的	0.801		
	B2 寬闊的自行車道對我來說是重要的	0.787	(.00)	
	B7 與機動車輛分開之自行車路線對我來說是重要的	0.754		
裝備	B23 我平均一年投資在自行車安全防護上的金額大約為(單選)例如:	0.903	2.315	77.176
投資	安全帽、車前(尾)燈、鎖具。	0.903		
	B22 我平均一年投資在自行車服裝上的金額大約為(單選)	0.884		
	B24 我平均一年投資在自行車擺飾上的金額大約為(單選)例如:水壺	0.848	(.85)	
	架、置物袋、碼表和停車架。	0.646		
中心	B12 我很清楚自行車社團比賽的活動內容	0.864		
性	B11 我很清楚自行車活動的相關資訊	0.834		
	B10 我會定期上網或到書店查詢關於自行車的最新資訊	0.816	3.914 (.89)	65.228
	B20 參加自行車社團是我生活中必備的事	0.813		
	B21 訂閱自行車的相關雜誌與多媒體對我來說是生活中不可或缺的	0.804		
	B19 我的生活中處處充滿了自行車活動的相關事物	0.706		

表 4(續) 專業化效度與信度分析

命名	題項	因素負荷量	特徵值	累積解釋量
吸引	B17 參與自行車活動的過程中我獲得許多樂趣	0.841		
力	B18 參與自行車活動的過程中我可以重新肯定自己	0.797	2.539	63.47
	B16 我認為自行車活動是最好的休閒活動	0.787	(.81)	03.47
	B15 參與自行車活動對我來說是件很重要的事	0.760		
技術	B13 我很清楚自行車修理保養的技能	0.790		
程度	B9 我時常會和同伴一起切磋討論自行車之騎乘技巧	0.770	2.117	52.010
	B14 我很清楚鄰近自行車活動場所的路線狀況	0.736	(.70)	52.919
	B8 我認為自己在騎乘自行車的技巧比別人還要純熟	0.599		

(三) 構面平均數分析

在遊憩動機方面,學習與感情聯繫為騎乘自行車者最重視的項目(M=3.92),可知受測者認為在騎乘自行車時,能夠與家人/朋友的情感有所聯結,並且學習與回憶相關知識為重要意涵。其次,自然環境的深刻體驗(M=3.39)為騎乘者喜愛之動機,或是悠閒的享受臨時起意的行程(M=3.36)。最後,則是追求自我目標與放逐、輕鬆的動機(M=2.86)。

表 5 構面平均數分析

遊憩動機構面	平均數	標準差	排名
學習與感情聯繫	3.9253	.54427	1
追求自然體驗	3.3917	.55568	2
追求自我	2.8679	.59386	4
隨遇而安	3.3643	.71032	3
專業化程度構面	平均數	標準差	排名
騎乘環境	4.3030	.61637	1
裝備投資	1.7433	.79874	5
中心性	2.7046	.74871	4
吸引力	3.5960	.68007	2
技術程度	3.1429	.65492	3

在專業化程度方面,受測者最重視的是騎乘自行車的環境,一個安全與舒適的場所 (M=4.30),是首重目標。其次,則是吸引力(M=3.59),代表騎乘自行車這項運動與個人息息相關, 是一種自我肯定與樂趣來源的行為。再者,個人騎乘與保養技術(M=3.14)亦是專業化程度的重要 項目,代表個人瞭解騎乘路線、騎乘技巧與騎乘、維修知識間的切磋。中心性則是第四個專業化



程度項目,代表騎乘自行車社團、資訊與活動在個人生活裡的重要性。最後,則是裝備投資 (M=1.74),代表個人投資金錢於騎乘活動之設備,例如服裝、自行車器材等,在專業化程度裡是重要性最低之項目。

(四)遊憩動機對專業化程度之影響

在進行遊憩動機對專業化程度影響關係的探討前,本研究先以 Pearson 相關矩陣來調查變數間相關性。如表 6 所述,遊憩動機與專業化程度大多為正向相關,僅有裝備投資與隨遇而安呈現負面相關,並且其餘專業化程度與隨遇而安構面為無相關(p>0.05)。此外,中心性與技術程度(相關係數=0.71)、吸引力(相關係數=.59)、吸引力與技術程度(相關係數=.57),以及追求自我體驗及追求自我(相關係數=.53)為顯著高度相關,其餘變數間關係為顯著中度相關。

表	6	相	闆	柘	陣	砉
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構面	A	В	C	D	Е	F	G	Н	I
A學習與感情聯繫	1.00								
B追求自然體驗	0.40*	1.00							
C追求自我	0.23*	0.53*	1.00						
D隨遇而安	0.10*	0.27*	0.28*	1.00					
E騎乘環境	0.33*	0.23*	-0.02	0.13*	1.00				
F裝備投資	0.23*	0.07	0.07	-0.19*	0.18*	1.00			
G中心性	0.33*	0.31*	0.39*	0.00	0.03	0.39*	1.00		
H吸引力	0.47*	0.43*	0.29*	0.02	0.20*	0.28*	0.59*	1.00	
I技術程度	0.31*	0.29*	0.32*	0.04	0.11*	0.38*	0.71*	0.57*	1.00

^{*} p<0.05

本研究以各變數之構面平均數為基礎,採用迴歸分析法配合強迫進入,探討自變數對依變數之影響。分析結果(如表 7)顯示,下列五個迴歸方程式均成立(52.52>F>13.89),並且解釋能力均高於10%(最高為30.9%),可知遊憩動機可合理解釋影響個人專業化程度。

在第一個方程式中,學習與感情聯繫為正向影響騎乘環境之最重要因素(β =.288)、追求自然體驗(β =.203)與隨遇而安(β =.102)亦正向影響騎乘環境,但是追求自我(β =-.218)則負向影響騎釋環境。在第二方程式中,隨遇而安為負向影響個人裝備投資的最重要因素(β =-.239),代表個人愈是隨性進行騎乘活動,則投資裝備的金額愈低;相反的,個人學習與感情聯繫動機愈高(β =.236)則愈樂於投資在自行車相關裝備當中。

表 7 遊憩動機對專業化程度影響之迴歸分析

	y -		11 1>C.17 H	1 // 11	
依變數	騎乘環境(t)	裝備投資(t)	中心性(t)	吸引力(t)	技術程度(t)
自變數					
學習與感	.288(11.35***)	.236(3.19**)	.235(5.32***)	.359(8.57***)	.226(4.85***)
情聯繫					
追求自然	.203(6.22***)	.000(04)	.067(1.29)	.265(5.45***)	.091(1.70)
體驗					
追求自我	218(-4.29***)	.081(1.55)	.343(7.08***)	.097(2.11*)	.237(4.70***)
隨遇而安	.102(2.29*)	239(-5.20***)	134(-3.14**)	118(-2.92**)	070(-1.58)
	$R^2 = .157$	$R^2 = .106$	$R^2 = .232$	$R^2 = .309$	$R^2 = .168$
	F=21.917	F=13.885	F=35.377	F=52.520	F=23.742
	DW=1.712	DW=1.582	DW=1.841	DW=1.937	DW1.862

^{*} p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

在第三個方程式中,追求自我動機(β=.343)則是正向影響中心性的最重要因素,代表個人追求自我定位、冒險等自我中心等,就會愈形成樂於將騎乘自行車當作生活中重要事物的認知,其次則是學習與感情聯繫動機(β=.235),而隨遇而安則是負向影響騎乘活動成為生活中心的動機因素。在第四個方程式中,學習與感情聯繫、追求自然體驗與自我均正向影響騎乘自行車活動對個人的吸引力,而隨遇而言則負向影響吸引力。在第五個方程式中,追求自我(β=.237),以及學習

所有自變數之 VIF<2



與感情聯繫(β=.226)對騎乘技術程度有顯著正向影響,代表個人追求自我定位或學習新知等動機 愈強,則對騎乘技術的要求愈高。綜上所述,吾人可以得知學習與感情聯繫動機為正面影響個人 專業化程度的重要因素,而隨遇而安則是降低個人專業化程度的重要因素(除技術程度外)。

(五) 不同人口統計變數在遊憩動機與專業化程度之差異性

本研究採用 t 檢定探討騎乘自行車者性別、婚姻狀況在遊憩動機與專業化程度之差異性,其餘則採用 F 檢定分析之(結果如表 8)。首先,男性較女性在一中心性與技術程度有較高的專業化程度,代表男性認為騎乘自行車活動在其生活中具有重要角色,並且有較好的騎乘或維修技能。此外,學習與感情聯繫,以及專業化程度均是男性認知高於女性,代表男性騎乘自行車者較女性更認可以騎乘活動來連繫感情,以及形成高度的專業化程度。然而,女性在隨遇而安動機上明顯高於男性,代表女性在騎乘活動上較為隨性,無計劃性的出遊較為恰當。已婚者在各項專業化程度上均明顯優於未婚者,僅隨遇而安動機為未婚者高於已婚者。第二,台北縣市的騎乘者在隨遇而安、裝備投資與技術程度的認知上明顯高於其他縣市者,代表台北縣市騎乘者較樂於隨性的出遊行程、投資於自行車裝備,本研究推論可能原因在於受訪者大多是經常騎乘的專業騎士(由每月騎乘次數),並且熟悉當地環境,因而在上述因素明顯高於其他縣市者。第三,高中職的騎乘者在學習與感情聯繫動機、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力與技術程度上明顯高於大專程度以上者。第三,6人以上團體騎乘的自行車者在學習與感情聯繫動機、裝備投資、中心性與技術程度上明顯優於 2-5 人與 1 人之騎乘者。同時,獨自一人騎乘者在追求自我與隨遇而安動機明顯高於 2-5 人與 6 人以上團體者。最後,2-5 人團體騎乘者則較 1 人者較重視騎乘環境。

表 8 不同人口統計變數在遊憩動機與專業化程度之差異分析

从○小门八一巡司交数在投心别似六寸米10在及 ℃左六月初									
構面	構面 遊憩動機 專業化程度								
人口統變(入數)	Α	В	C	D	E	F	G	Н	I
a 男(361)	3.92	3.37	2.89	3.34	4.27	1.78	2.77	3.59	3.22
b 女(113)	3.95	3.45	2.78	3.43	4.40	1.63	2.51	3.60	2.88
t 值	-0.44	-1.31	1.76	-1.14	-1.92	1.76	3.27	-0.14	4.91
p 值	0.66	0.19	0.08	0.26	0.06	0.08	0.00	0.89	0.00
平均數比較							a>b		a>b
a 未婚(313)	3.85	3.37	2.89	3.49	4.25	1.60	2.61	3.52	3.06
b 已婚(161)	4.08	3.43	2.83	3.12	4.41	2.03	2.89	3.74	3.31
t 值	-4.40	-1.15	0.97	5.53	-2.66	-5.73	-3.98	-3.43	-4.06
p 值	0.00	0.25	0.33	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
平均數比較	b>a			a>b	b>a	b>a	b>a	b>a	b>a
a 台北市(214)	3.90	3.42	2.89	3.31	4.27	1.77	2.73	3.58	3.18
b 台北縣(213)	3.96	3.35	2.86	3.34	4.33	1.83	2.72	3.62	3.17
c 其他縣市(47)	3.91	3.45	2.83	3.69	4.36	1.24	2.51	3.52	2.83
F值	0.71	1.03	0.26	5.61	0.72	11.02	1.70	0.50	6.10
p 值	0.49	0.36	0.77	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.18	0.61	0.00
事後比較				a,b>c		a,b>c			a,b>c
a 國中小(17)	3.91	3.29	2.94	3.14	4.31	1.67	2.69	3.41	3.04
b 高中職(81)	4.10	3.42	2.82	3.29	4.41	2.05	2.92	3.82	3.33
c 大專(310)	3.91	3.40	2.88	3.41	4.28	1.69	2.66	3.57	3.09
d 研究所(含)以上 (66)	3.79	3.33	2.86	3.32	4.26	1.65	2.65	3.50	3.19
F值	4.26	0.57	0.25	1.35	1.05	4.94	2.78	4.00	3.32
P值	0.01	0.63	0.86	0.26	0.37	0.00	0.04	0.01	0.02
事後比較	b>c,d					b>c,d	b>c,d	b>a,c,d	b>c



表 8(續 1) 不同人口統計變數在遊憩動機與專業化程度之差異分析

横面	, , . <u>, , ,</u>		動機			事	業化程度		<u>'</u>
人口統變(入數)	A	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	I
a 1 人(136)	3.81	3.39	3.01	3.41	4.19	1.62	2.54	3.42	3.03
b 2-5 人(305)	3.95	3.38	2.81	3.37	4.36	1.74	2.73	3.65	3.16
c 6 人以上(33)	4.15	3.47	2.82	3.10	4.24	2.25	3.09	3.85	3.46
F值	6.60	0.40	5.71	2.60	3.96	8.66	7.99	7.98	5.96
p 值	0.00	0.67	0.00	0.08	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
事後比較	c>b>a		a>b	a>c	b>a	c>a	c>b>a	b,c>a	c>a,b
a 20 歲以下(64)	3.71	3.36	2.98	3.67	3.99	1.17	2.45	3.30	2.98
b 21-30 歲(184)	3.84	3.38	2.87	3.52	4.30	1.52	2.56	3.50	2.99
c 31-40 歲(96)	4.03	3.40	2.86	3.37	4.44	2.09	2.88	3.70	3.22
d 41-50 歲(75)	4.06	3.39	2.79	2.96	4.34	2.09	2.85	3.74	3.37
e 51 歲以上(55)	4.10	3.45	2.83	3.04	4.38	2.06	2.99	3.88	3.39
F值	7.57	0.25	0.86	16.19	5.75	26.98	8.06	8.17	8.23
p 值	0.00	0.91	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	c,d,e>a,b				b,c,d,e>a	c,d,e>a,b		c,d,e>a,b	
a 2 萬以下(163)	3.77	3.28	2.85	3.55	4.10	1.27	2.50	3.40	2.94
b 2 萬 01-4 萬(143)		3.49	2.90	3.38	4.45	1.84	2.77	3.68	3.20
c 4 萬 01-6 萬(103)		3.44	2.89	3.23	4.38	2.11	2.92	3.74	3.27
d 6 萬 01-8 萬(35)	4.07	3.34	2.81	3.10	4.33	2.13	2.71	3.69	3.24
e 8 萬 01-10 萬(13)		3.62	3.05	3.23	4.40	1.95	2.92	3.88	3.62
f 10 萬 01 以上(17)		3.25	2.61	2.90	4.38	2.33	2.66	3.50	3.18
F值	4.48	3.06	1.07	5.66	5.83	25.25	4.71	4.91	5.93
p值	0.00	0.01	0.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
事後比較	b,c,d,e>a			a>b>c,d,f		c,d,e,f>b>a	b,c,e>a		c,d,e>b>a
a 單獨(130)	3.78	3.38	2.99	3.36	4.17	1.63	2.59	3.43	3.05
b 家人(140)	4.01	3.44	2.80	3.30	4.35	1.83	2.79	3.60	3.20
c 車友(45)	4.28	3.39	2.85	3.36	4.40	2.19	3.14	4.01	3.44
d 朋友(151)	3.88	3.37	2.85	3.41	4.33	1.65	2.61	3.62	3.09
e 其他(8)	3.80	3.17	2.50	3.71	4.50	1.33	2.40	3.38	2.91
F 值	8.84	0.67	2.64	0.89	2.22	5.79	6.14	6.56	3.94
P 值	0.00	0.61	0.03	0.47	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
事後比較	c>b>a,d,e		a>b,d,e		b,c,d>a	c>b>a,d,e	c>b>a,d,e	c>b,d,e>a	c>b>a,d,e
1 學生(156)	3.75	3.31	2.89	3.60	4.09	1.21	2.46	3.37	2.94
2 軍公教(50)	3.90	3.37	2.76	3.26	4.48	1.85	2.75	3.59	3.11
3 商業(90)	4.01	3.40	2.81	3.16	4.31	2.14	2.84	3.63	3.30
4 工業(43)	3.85	3.44	2.86	3.25	4.38	1.74	2.60	3.60	3.06
5 服務業(76)	4.16	3.54	2.98	3.29	4.52	2.18	2.98	3.85	3.37
6 自由業(20)	4.02	3.28	2.84	3.70	4.31	1.85	2.57	3.71	3.10
7 無工作(27)	4.14	3.42	2.77	2.94	4.40	1.96	3.07	3.91	3.31
8 其他(12)	3.83	3.44	3.13	3.50	4.37	1.92	2.74	3.81	3.38
F值	5.92	1.37	1.21	6.57	5.09	22.34	5.75	5.38	5.06
p 值	0.00	0.22	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	5>2,4,8	•							
	3- 4,7,0								
事後比較	3,5,6,7>1			1,6>2,3,4, 5>7	2,4,7>1 5>3>1	3,5>2,4>1 6,7,8>1	2,3,5,7>1, 4,6	5,7>2,3>1 4,6,8>1	3,5>2,4>1 7,8>1

A 學習與感情; B 追求自然體驗; C 追求自我; D 隨遇而安; E 騎乘環境; F 裝備投資; G 中心性; H 吸引力; I 技術程度

第四,在年齡方面,31 歲以上的騎乘者在學習與感情聯繫、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力及技術程度的認知上均明顯較30歲以下者高。但是,愈是年輕的騎乘者在遇而安動機明顯高於年長者,並且年紀愈大的騎乘者相較於20歲以下者更重視騎乘環境。月收入愈高者相較於2萬以下的騎乘者,在學習與感情聯繫、追求自然體驗、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力及技術程度上的認知更高,代表月收入愈高者更重視上述動機與專業化程度。但是,月收入2萬以下的騎乘者相較



於2萬以上的騎乘者在騎乘環境上的重視度高。第五,在出遊陪同者方面,與社團車友出遊騎乘者在學習與感情聯繫、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力與技術程度上,明顯高於與家人一同者、或是單獨一人或朋友者。但是,一個人在追求自我動機上明顯高於家人/車友或其他人之認知,但在騎乘環境上的認知低於家人/車友或朋友出遊者。最後,在職業方面,本研究發現不同職業類別的騎乘者在遊憩動機與專業化程度上有所差異,例如服務業在學習與感情聯繫、騎乘環境、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力及技術程度上高於學生族群;學生族群僅在追求自我動機上高於其他型態者。

求自然體驗; C 追求自我; D 隨遇而安; E 騎乘環境; F 裝備投資; G 中心性; H 吸引力; I 技術程度

五、結論與建議

(一) 結論

本研究實證發現在台北縣市自行車道騎乘者,多為單身大專學歷以上的未婚男性,平均所得不高但卻相對自由(未婚)的族群。同時,騎乘雖然一人騎乘者不少(28%),但仍以同伴以家人/朋友居多,最常一起騎車人數為 2-5 人。台北縣市自行車騎乘者年齡以 21~30 歲最多(38.8%),但是 31 歲以上者亦不少(n>47%)。在職業的分佈比例上,以學生(32.9%)與服務、商業者(35.02%)最多。由此可知,自行車騎者大都是三五好友邀約一同騎乘,或者是自己一人騎乘,這都顯示自行車活動不但適合群體,對個人也是項不錯的休閒活動。此外,騎乘者年齡從年輕到年長均占有相當程度的比例(如 21-30 歲為 38.82%; 31-40 歲為 20.25%; 40 歲以上為 25%),可知自行車活動亦適合各個年齡層的參與者加入。

從遊憩動機來看,共可分成四種類型,包含學習與感情聯繫、追求自然體驗、追求自我與隨遇而安。其中,騎乘者認為騎乘自行車的動機以學習與感情聯繫為最重要因素,其次則是追求自然體驗,顯示有美好的自然景觀能吸引自行車族群。由此可知,自行車參與者是為了與他人產生情感上的連結、在騎乘的過程中溫故知新,並且享受美好的自然環境,因此與侯錦雄、郭璋仁(2003)研究成果相似,追求自然體驗是遊憩動機的重要元素。專業化程度則可分成五類,包含騎乘環境、裝備投資、中心性、吸引力與技術程度。其中,以騎乘環境最為重要,而裝備投資排序最低。綜上所述,騎乘自行車對於個人最重要之動機在於情感的聯結與知識的學習,在騎乘的過程中享受大自然的景觀,可知騎乘環境的設計與陪同騎乘者的角色極為重要。如同騎乘環境為專業化程度的最重要項目,個人對於環境的瞭解與舒適程度是騎乘活動開始時的要點,呼應了個人對於騎乘遊憩動機的重要認知。另外,金錢花費仍是個人認為較不重要的項目,可能在於經濟環境的影響,造成個人較不願意花費高額金錢於騎乘休閒活動。

在騎乘者的遊憩動機與專業化程度中,本研究發現以遊憩動機對吸引力之解釋能力最大 (R2=30.9%),最低尚有 10-15%之解釋能力,可知上述自變數對專業化程度有一定的解釋能力。不論是那一個迴歸方程式,學習與感情聯繫(β =.226-.359)都會對專業化程度產生正向影響,代表 個人若對騎乘過程中與他人情感連結或學習新知的動機愈強,則個人專業化程度愈高,例如對騎乘技術能力、裝備或騎乘活動在生活中的重要性等。由此可知,掌握這類型動機對於設備良好行銷策略有相當助益。此外,追求自我(β =.237-.343)對於中心性吸引力與技術程度有顯著正向影響,卻對騎乘環境有顯著負向影響(β =-.218);隨遇而安動機對騎乘環境有顯著正向影響,卻對裝備投資、中心性、吸引力(β =-.118~-.239)有顯著負向影響。由此可知,並非每一種遊憩動機都能顯著正向提升專業化程度。

在人口統計變數方面,吾人可以發現一個現象,就是不論陪同者是一人或多人、團體或單獨騎乘,一個人的時候總是偏好追求自我,並且愈多人一起騎乘,則在學習與感情聯繫、裝備、自行車活動在生活的重心與技術能力愈佳。如同 Brayan(1997)所述,高專業化參與者通常會參加特定團隊,其中的每一個人有相似的態度與意識型態,並且有一起騎乘的機會,因而在專業化程度表現較高。另外,由於單獨一人騎乘者參與騎乘活動可能是為了休閒或放鬆,因此在追求自我的動機上高於其他組別。另外,女性較男性偏愛隨性、無計劃的出遊行程,並且相較於男性較不認同透過騎乘活動來聯繫感情,可能原因在於女性是以他類活動(例如家庭話題、化妝品等)來連繫感情。年輕人較喜愛自我放逐或自我特色,而年長者較重視騎乘環境,並且服務業騎乘者較其他職業類別在遊憩動機(如學習與感情)與專業化程度(如騎乘環境、中心性)有較高的重視性。綜上所述,關注在不同消費者特性(如性別、年齡、職業)有助於形成實務的行銷策略。因此,本研究將上述成果分別論述於學術及實務貢獻。



(二)學術與管理實務貢獻

首先,本研究的抽樣對象與過去學者極為相近,例如朱瑞淵與陳梅君(2010)研究亦發現騎乘自行車者以未婚男性居多、大學學歷,年齡為21-30居多。參與自行車活動者是以達到身體健康與接觸大自然為主要動機,並且年輕人相較於30歲以上者在過去騎乘經驗稍低。由此可知,本研究的抽樣對象呼應了學者進行各項騎乘者行為調查的基本假設,亦即樣本具有相當程度的代表性。

同時,本研究分析騎乘者遊憩動機與專業化程度關係,如同行政院體育委員會(2006)的主張,能深入瞭解騎士對於騎乘自行車的需求與行為,更從迴歸分析結果可知,掌握騎士的騎乘動機能明確解釋其專業化程度。根據 Bryan(1977)的主張,當個人對遊憩活動的專業化程度愈高,則其涉入活動或花費就愈高,因而本研究成果能夠有效協助業者提出適當的行銷策略。

本研究認為研究成果在學術上有兩點貢獻:第一,本研究以嚴謹的抽樣過程,實地訪問自行車騎乘者,並以足夠的樣本進行分析,並且與過去學者的抽樣成果相似,有助於形成良好的樣本代表性。同時,藉由自行車活動來探討遊憩動機與專業化程度的關係,能夠增加研究議題的多樣性,而不僅是聚焦在觀光活動(如 Oh et al., 1995; McIntosh, 1995)。第二,本研究以不同的騎乘者特性,分析其在遊憩動機與專業化程度的差異性,能深入瞭解騎乘者的騎乘行為與需求,因而回應了 Engel, Kollat, & Miniard (1995)對於消費者購買行為的部份主張,亦即有效評估騎乘者的需求與相關影響因素。

在實務貢獻方面,本研究認為自行車活動是老少咸宜的休閒活動,特別是在都市型的自行車道,兼具輕鬆與部份困難的車道特色,已可吸引不同年齡層的騎士,那麼:第一,業者應著重在設計年輕人VS年長者都有所喜好的場域,以設計全民性的自行車活動,舉例而言,年長者重視騎乘環境、年輕人重視自我表現,因而可在車道環境的設施上,提供騎乘環境的告示牌,或是自行車常識與概念。第二,騎乘環境應重視提供車友互動的場域,例如優美的自然環境搭配車道裡的涼亭或停車格,就能有助於車友間聊天或互動的機會。第三,開發女性自行車運動市場,大多數的車友為男性,業者可強調自行車運動對身體健康的優點,可提升女性參與的機率,或是以女性為主題的專賣店等。第四,開發車友對於裝備投資的金額,本研究發現雖然多數車友對於騎乘活動的專業認知極佳,但在裝備的購買金額上仍低,業者應針對其技術程度與遊憩動機設計適合之產品,例如強調專業化(金額高)或休閒化(金額低)的自行車配備,或是有助於車友聊天互動的產品。

(三)研究限制

本研究有三點限制。第一,本研究僅以台北市的自行車道為抽樣範圍,因而在推論到其他縣市的自行車活動上應多加注意,若是以相似車道或自然環境為考量,則有推論上之依據。因此,建議未來研究以不同車道或自然環境型態為抽樣範圍。第二,本研究僅針對部份騎乘者行為進行調查,若以 Engel et al. (1995)等人的消費者行為為基礎,本研究僅探討動機與騎乘行為,建議未來研究針對其他變數進行調查,例如騎乘滿意、騎乘後反應。第三,本研究係以休閒性質的自行車活動為主題,因此建議未來研究可針對不同主題(例如冒險性質的自行車)進行調查,亦能有助於增加不同自行車活動主題的豐富性。

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Does Executive Compensation Induce Managers to Task Idiosyncratic Risk?

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ABSTRACT

Differ to prior studies focus on whether the executive compensation can improve firms' performance and shareholders' wealth, this paper employ the listed firms in NASDAQ, NYSE and AMEX to investigates the link between executive compensation and idiosyncratic risk. This study attempts to figure out how executive compensation impact on firms' idiosyncratic risk by panel regression. This study finds bonus is not significant factors on idiosyncratic risk. Our results show that the salary is significantly negative with idiosyncratic risk, which means that higher salary can not induce managers to task higher idiosyncratic risk for improving firms' performance. However, long-term incentive and total executive compensation are significantly positive with idiosyncratic risk, which means that higher long-term incentive and total executive compensation can induce managers to task higher idiosyncratic risk for improving firms' performance.

Keywords: Executive Compensation, Salary Structure, Idiosyncratic Risk, Panel Data Model



一、緒論

經理人的薪酬制度在股東與經理人的利益一致上扮演著相當重要的角色,根據過去文獻,Jensen and Meckling (1976)提出的代理理論中,股東與經理人最終目標都是「追求自我利益極大化」,股東希望企業經營能為公司績效及股東財富極大化,而經理人希望追求自我財富極大化,並非股東期望的公司價值極大化,在公司所有權與經營權分離的組織體系之下,公司經理人可能會進行圖利自己的行為,損害股東財富,因此產生了「代理問題」。

因此,當公司股權分散與股東對於經理人之監督能力不足時,若經理人薪酬制度設計得當,並與績效相連結,更能激勵經理人為企業及股東權益努力,經理人的決策行為亦朝向股東財富極大化的方向前進,使得經理人與股東利益更趨一致,降低代理問題 (Elston and Goldberg, 2003);因此,以績效為基礎的薪資設計,乃是降低代理成本的良好機制,不但使得經理人與股東利益更趨一致,亦能提升公司經營績效 (Bai et al., 2004, Cheng et al., 2006)。

此外,本文認為經理人薪酬制度之設計會誘發經理人承擔的風險為獨特性風險,又稱為公司個別風險,主要原因在於獨特性風險為經理人所能選擇與控制之風險,例如:使用高營運槓桿或財務槓桿、匯率與利率等風險,這些均是公司經營過程中所需面對的個別風險,此外,過去文獻亦指出獨特性風險與公司預期報酬呈現顯著正向關係,獨特性風險愈高,則公司預期報酬愈高(Sharpe, 1964, Lintner, 1965, Black, 1972, Tinic and West, 1986, Malkiel and Xu, 1997, Fu, 2009),且本文實證發現 NASDAQ、NYSE 和 AMEX 美國三大交易所上市公司之股票報酬率與公司之獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,因此,本文認為若欲透過經理人薪酬制度之設計使公司股東與經理人之利益一致,則必須使薪酬制度有機會能誘發經理人承擔公司獨特性風險,以提高公司股東財富極大化之可能。

此外,由於經理人薪酬結構除本薪及獎金外,亦包含限制性股票 (the value of restricted stock grants)、長期激勵計劃 (long-term incentive plans)及股票選擇權價值 (the value of stock options granted)等長期激勵 (Aggarwal and Samwick, 1999, Jin, 2002),如何設計有效之經理人薪酬制度以誘發經理人承擔風險使經理人與股東之利益一致為相當重要的課題,Towers and Perrin (1997)指出在美國高階主管的薪酬組成以股票選擇權占的比例相當高;而 Rajgopal and Shevlin (2002)及 Chen et al. (2006)亦指出,風險趨避的經理人喜好從事風險較小且為正淨現值的專案,但藉由股票選擇權的獎酬激勵下,可誘發其從事原本不敢投資的高風險高報酬專案。因此,本文欲透過研究設計以瞭解何種薪酬結構對誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險較具顯著效果。

過去文獻對於經理人薪酬與公司風險的結論不一致,部分文獻主張經理人薪酬敏感度與公司風險是負相關(如 Aggarwal and Samwick, 1999, Jin, 2002);而 Prendergast (2002)卻認為在風險較高的環境下,經理人薪酬敏感度愈高;Dee et al. (2005)則提出經理人薪酬敏感度與公司風險有正向與負向關聯性。透過本研究亦可以確認經理人薪酬制度與公司風險之關係,彌補過去文獻之不足。本研究以 2000 年至 2009 年美國三大交易所 NASDAQ、NYSE 和 AMEX 上市公司為研究對象,利用橫斷面及時間序列混合資料模式 (Panel Data Model),檢驗經理人薪酬制度對獨特性風險之影響。

本研究發現經理人薪酬高低對於公司獨特性風險具有顯著影響力,經理人薪酬愈高,公司獨特性風險愈高,此外,本研究亦發現不同的薪酬制度對於公司獨特性風險亦具有顯著影響,經理人之薪酬結構中長期激勵愈多,公司獨特性風險愈高,此實證結果與本文之預期相符合,顯示經理人之薪酬制度有機會誘發經理人承擔公司獨特性風險,以提高公司績效與股東財富極大化之可能。

本研究之貢獻在於提出可將經理人薪酬、獨特性風險與公司績效三者的關係予以連接,彌補過去研究著重於經理人薪酬對公司績效的議題,缺乏探討為何經理人薪酬之激勵具有提升公司經營績效與股東財富之效果。其次,本研究之提出能作為探討經理人薪酬能提高公司績效與股東財富在於經理人因薪酬制度之激勵而使經理人較有機會願意承擔公司獨特性風險所致,並藉由本文以作為經理人薪酬制度與公司風險之關係相關論文的佐證。最後,本研究發現經理人薪酬制度之結構設計對於激勵經理人承擔獨特性風險有顯著影響,本文進一步發現長期激勵對於誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險具顯著效果。本文其餘內容:第二節為本研究之相關文獻;第三節為研究方法的說明,包括資料來源、變數定義與衡量與模型的建立;第四節說明公司治理對獨特性風險的實證結果;第五節為結論與建議。



二、文獻回顧與研究假說

Aggarwal and Samwick (1999)認為經理人薪酬敏感度與風險呈現顯著負向關係,並與代理理論一致,表示在風險愈高的環境下,提供給經理人的薪酬機制中,誘因強度就愈弱,而 Aggarwal and Samwick (1999)強調此薪酬敏感度指經理人薪酬對績效的敏感度,而非單只薪酬; Aggarwal and Samwick (1999)也提出經理人薪酬結構 52 是由本薪、獎金、限制性股票 (the value of restricted stock grants)、長期激勵計劃 (long-term incentive plans)及股票選擇權價值 (the value of stock options granted)等所組成;Jin (2002)也認為獨特性風險愈高的環境下,經理人對薪酬的敏感度愈低。

然而 Prendergast (2002)認為在較為穩定的環境中,主理人可以指示代理人執行何種決策方案,而在高風險的環境下,主理人可能沒有什麼選擇,只能提供代理合約誘發代理人執行適當的方案;故在風險較高的環境下,經理人薪酬對績效敏感度愈高,但這僅是 Prendergast (2002)提出的觀點,尚未得到實證。

Dee et al. (2005)則提出經理人薪酬敏感度與公司風險有正向與負向關聯性,以網際網路公司為樣本⁵³,期間為 1997 至 1999 年,起初實證結果與 Aggarwal and Samwick (1999)一致,薪酬敏感度隨著風險增加而降低,然而控制公司規模大小後,實證結果變成與 Prendergast (2002)一致,薪酬敏感度與風險呈現正相關。一般而言,網際網路公司是高成長且極不穩定,因此在股東與經理人之間存在著高度資訊不對稱,此項資訊不對稱意味著股東與經理人之間監控上的困難,導致以績效為基礎的薪酬有更高的需求量去監控經理人選擇公司價值極大化之方案,這也說明了薪酬與風險之間存在著正向關係;最後在做穩健性測試時,將樣本期間改至 2000 至 2002 年,結果又與 Aggarwal and Samwick (1999)一致,符合代理理論的預測。

許文彥與劉淑芬 (2006)以本國上市櫃公司檢視經理人薪酬與經營風險間的關係,並認為股東將補貼經理人額外承受的風險,另一方面,為要求經理人適度進行風險管理,薪酬將不會無限制上升,因此薪酬增加的速度會隨非系統風險的上升而趨緩,意即經理人薪酬與非系統風險呈曲線關係。最後,由於股東無法透過薪酬的給與,而要求經理人有效地管理系統風險,因此,薪酬與系統風險間的關係較不明顯。

此外,美國高階主管的薪酬組成以股票選擇權占的比例相當高 (Towers and Perrin, 1997),Rajgopal and Shevlin (2003)針對 121 家石油及天然氣公司做研究,研究期間為 1992 至 1997 年,主要在探討高階經理人股票選擇權 (Executive stock options)是否有提供誘因去投資風險較高的方案。結果顯示高階經理人股票選擇權誘因與未來探勘風險承擔間呈現顯著正相關,表示風險趨避的經理人原本傾向放棄高風險且高淨現值的方案,但透過股票選擇權的激勵下,可以誘發風險趨避的經理人從事原本不敢投資的高風險高報酬方案。

Chen (2003)以美國 1,140 家公司為對象,研究結果指出當經理人的獎酬計畫包含較高比例的股票選擇權時,經理人愈會去從事高風險的投資案,而且藉由股票選擇權的授予,可使經理人與股東財富一致,如此一來,可降低股東與經理人間的利益衝突。

Chen et al. (2006)認為經理人薪酬結構會誘發其承擔風險,其中又以股票選擇權更能誘發其承擔風險,但以銀行業為樣本,不同以往研究,Chen et al. (2006)檢驗經理人薪酬分別對銀行業的總風險、獨特性風險、系統風險及利率風險之影響,並提出兩項假說:第一、當經理人薪酬愈高時,銀行風險亦增加。第二、為降低經理人個人投資組合風險,當經理人薪酬愈高時銀行風險會愈低。

根據上述文獻,本研究試圖推論薪酬制度會誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險,而經理人薪酬結構是由本薪、獎金、限制性股票 (the value of restriced stock grants)、長期激勵計劃 (long-term incentive plans)及股票選擇權價值 (the value of stock options granted)等所組成,其中又以股票選擇權等長期激勵下更能誘發經理人承擔風險;因經理人每月領的本薪都是固定的,沒有與公司績效相連結,故無法誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險,而獎金與股票選擇權等其他長期激勵比較起來,占經理人薪酬比例不大。故本研究亦試圖推論本薪及獎金無法誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險。綜合上

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⁵² 文獻上稱 total direct compensation (以下變數定義簡稱 TDC),係為股東直接給與經理人之報酬;本薪及獎金屬於短期激勵,限制性股票、長期激勵計劃及股票選擇權等屬於長期激勵。

⁵³ 為了驗證 Prendergast (2002)的觀點,故選高風險公司樣本—網際網路公司。



述文獻回顧,本研究根據本文之研究目的建立以下研究假說:

假說一:當經理人薪酬愈高,愈能誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險。

假說二:當經理人本薪及獎金愈高,無法誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險。

假說三:當經理人長期激勵愈高,愈能誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險。

三、研究方法

(一)研究對象與資料來源

本文以 NASDAQ、NYSE 和 AMEX 美國三大交易所之上市公司為研究對象,排除金融保險、證券業、公共行政⁵⁴相關行業與資料不足或遺漏之公司,利用 Compustat 資料庫中的 SIC code 將所有樣本公司區分成 48 個產業,每個產業中小於 10 家公司的產業也予以排除,共 715 家公司。由於研究上的限制,關於樣本數篩選流程,請詳表一。

表一 樣本篩選說明

Well all Case M	
篩選原因	剩餘樣本數
ExecuComp 資料庫所收錄 2000 年~2009 年 NASDAQ、NYSE 和 AMEX 美國三大交易所上市公司數	2501
扣除金融保險、證券業、公共行政相關行業 (因公共行政行業銷貨收入為 0)	307
扣除沒有公司有上市時間資料之公司	525
扣除資料不足與遺漏之公司數	954
包含於本研究中之總公司數	715

經理人薪酬制度變數從 ExecuComp 高階主管薪酬資料庫取得, ExecuComp 高階主管薪酬資料庫涵蓋了美國上市公司前五大主管總薪酬資料 (依據其本薪加獎金排名),它不只涵蓋 CEO 亦包含其他高階主管總薪酬資料,資訊透明度、產品市場競爭及其他控制變數則由 Compustat 資料庫取得。本文的研究期間是從 2000 年至 2009 年為止共 10 年,樣本頻率為年資料。

(二) 變數定義與衡量方法

1. 經理人薪酬變數

(1) 經理人總薪酬比例

(2) 經理人本薪比例

本文以第 i 公司第 $^ au$ 年經理人本薪占第 i 公司第 $^ au$ 年營業費用總額的比例,稱之為 $SALARY_{i, au}$ 。

(3) 經理人獎金比例

 $\hat{\mathbf{x}}^i$ 公司第 $^{\tau}$ 年經理人獎金占第 i 公司第 $^{\tau}$ 年營業費用總額的比例,稱之為 t t

(4) 經理人長期激勵比例

此變數為第i公司第 τ 年經理人長期激勵計畫、限制性股票的發放及選擇權的取得與執行等屬於長期激勵的部分占第i公司第 τ 年營業費用總額的比例,分別稱之為 $LTII_{i,\tau}$ 、 $LTI2_{i,\tau}$ 。

2. 獨特性風險之估計

目前文獻上有關於估計獨特性風險的方法主要有 Campbell et al. (2001)與 Xu and Malkiel

54 排除公共行政行業之原因為其銷貨收入幾乎皆為 0, 而在計算產品市場競爭變數 PCM2 時,分母為銷貨收入,故予以排除。

⁵⁵ 因資料庫無法直接取得薪資費用資料,故以營業費用替代。



(2003)的兩種方法。本文採用多數文獻所使用的 Xu and Malkiel (2003)的直接分解法 (direct decomposition method)來估計獨特性風險。此外,本文在估計獨特性風險時,則是運用 Bollerslev (1986)的 GARCH (1,1)模型來解決殘差項具有條件異質變異數的問題。報酬模型設定如下:

$$r_{i,t} = \beta_i r_{m,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{1}$$

$$\varepsilon_{i,t} \left| \psi_{t-1} \sim N\left(0, h_{i,t}^2\right) \right| \tag{2}$$

$$h_{i,t}^{2} = \phi_{0} + \phi_{1} \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^{2} + \phi_{2} h_{i,t-1}^{2}$$
(3)

其中,(3-1)式為市場模型 (market model)。 α_i , β_i , γ_i , k_i 為待估計參數; $\gamma_{i,t}$ 表示第 i 支股票第 t 日的超額報酬 56 ; $\gamma_{m,t}$ 表示市場投資組合第 t 日超額報酬; $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ 代表殘差項。 ψ_{t-1} 表示 t-1日前所有的資訊集合。 ϕ_0 , ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 皆為非負數之參數,而且 ϕ_0 + ϕ_1 <1。 $\varepsilon_{i,t}^2$ 為第 i 支股票在第 t 日之殘差平方, $h_{i,t}^2$ 為第 i 支股票在第 t 日之殘差平方, $h_{i,t}^2$

此外,本文以 $\varepsilon_{i,t}^2$ 及 $h_{i,t}^2$ 分别代表以 OLS 方法下與 GARCH 方法下的所估計的獨特性風險。為求每年獨特性風險,本文將(3-3)式所估計的每日獨特性風險 $\varepsilon_{i,t}^2$ 及 $h_{i,t}^2$ 依當年該公司股市交易天數加總 57 成每年獨特性風險,稱為 $IV_OLS_{i,t}$ 與 $IV_G_{i,t}$ 。

3. 控制變數

(1) 產品市場競爭

本研究參考並應用 Randoy and Jenssen (2004)的價格成本價差 (簡稱 $PCM2_{i,\tau}$)以及 Gaspar and Massa (2006)的價值加權超額價格成本價差 (簡稱 $VEPCM_{i,\tau}$)及等值加權超額價格成本價差 (簡稱 $EEPCM_{i,\tau}$)作為產品市場競爭之衡量;而在計算產業平均價格成本價差時,本文分別採取等值加權與價值加權兩種平均法,因此超額價成本價差分為等值加權與價值加權超額價成本價差 兩種。

(2) 資訊透明度

本文根據 Ashbaugh et al. (2006)的方法,以資訊及時性 (簡稱 $TIMELINESS_{i,\tau}$)作為資訊透明度之代理變數。首先建立下式迴歸方程式:

$$RET_{i,\tau} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NIBE_{i,\tau} + \beta_2 LOSS_{i,\tau}$$

$$+ \beta_3 NIBE_{i,\tau} \times LOSS_{i,\tau} + \beta_4 \Delta NIBE_{i,\tau} + \epsilon_{i,\tau}$$
(4)

其中, $RET_{i,\tau}$ 為第 i 公司第 $^\tau$ 年平均股票報酬率; $NIBE_{i,\tau}$ 為第 i 公司第 $^\tau$ 年非常項目前淨利除以年初之股東權益市值 58 ; $LOSS_{i,\tau}$ 為虛擬變數,若 $NIBE_{i,\tau}$ 為負數則 $LOSS_{i,\tau}$ 為 1,否則為 0; $\Delta NIBE_{i,\tau}$ 為第i公司第 τ 年非常項目前淨利的變化量除以期初之股東權益市值。本文計算第i公司第 τ 年資訊及時性的方式為:以每一個產業為基礎,利用上式進行同產業內所有公司第 τ 年資料的迴歸分析,此過程共進行 10 次 (因為有 10年資料)。將迴歸分析的殘差平方後乘上-1,即為第i公司第 τ 年資訊及時性 ($TIMELINESS_{i,\tau}$)。若 $TIMELINESS_{i,\tau}$ 愈大,代表資訊愈及時反應在報酬上,則公司資訊透明度愈高;資訊透明度愈高,公司的獨特性風險會愈低。

4. 其他控制變數

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⁵⁶ 個別公司超額報酬等於個別公司日報酬減美國一個月之國庫券利率,以美國一個月之國庫券利率作為無風險利率 (取自 http://www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h15/data.htm)。

⁵⁷ 參考 Gaspar and Massa (2006)將獨特性風險之日資料直接加總成月資料,再將月加總成年資料。

⁵⁸ Compustat 資料庫項目對應:非常項目前淨利: Compustat#18、期初股東權益市值=流通在外普通股股數 (compustat#25)× 每年最後一天收盤價 (Compustat#199)



本文參考過去文獻以公司之規模(簡稱 $LNSIZE_{i,\tau}$)、普通股市價對帳面價值比(簡稱 $MTB_{i,\tau}$)、設立時間長短(簡稱 $AGE_{i,\tau}$)、負債比率(簡稱 $LEV_{i,\tau}$)、股票週轉率(簡稱 $TV_{i,\tau}$)、資本支出比率(簡稱 $CE_{i,\tau}$)、資產報酬率(簡稱 $ROA_{i,\tau}$)與獲利波動(簡稱 $VROA_{i,\tau}$)等八個變數作為控制變數。

(三)實證模型與統計方法

本研究以橫斷面與時間序列混合資料 (panel data)模型作為研究模型,由於本文之研究資料為 2000 年至 2009 年的美國上市公司的橫斷面與時間序列之追蹤資料 (panel data),因此適合利用追蹤資料模型進行統計分析,而可減少共線性的問題,並獲得更豐富的變異來源以獲得有效率的參數估計、取得更多自由度並提供動態行為的研究。本節將就其模型選擇和估計、以及建立實證模型三方面來探討。

追蹤資料模型設定如下:

$$Y_{i,\tau} = \beta_{0_i} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \beta_k X_{k_i,\tau-1} + \varepsilon_{i\tau},$$

$$i = 1, ..., N, \quad \tau = 1, ..., T$$
(5)

其中, $Y_{i,\tau}$ 為第i公司第 τ 年之公司獨特性風險 $(IV_{i,\tau})$; $X_{k_i,\tau}$ 為第i公司第 τ 年第K 個解釋變數; β_{0_i} , β_{1} ,…, β_{K} 為待估計參數; $\varepsilon_{i,\tau}$ 為隨機誤差項。當 $\beta_{0_i} = \beta_{0}$ 時,(3-11)式即為共同迴歸模型 (pooled regression)。然而,當 $\beta_{0_i} \neq \beta_{0}$ 而具有異質性時,則以普通最小平方法 (OLS)估計共同迴歸模型的參數會產生偏誤,而其解決方法就是利用固定效果模型 (fixed effect model)或是隨機效果模型 (random effect model)兩種追蹤資料模型。當不同觀察單位有其自身的特定 β_{0_i} 時,即為固定效果模型;當 β_{0_i} 為特定隨機變數,亦即不同觀察單位有不同的特定隨機變數時,即為隨機效果模型。

四、實證結果

(一) 敘述性統計分析

本節將針對實證變數之敘述統計及分配特性進行說明,其包含平均數、標準差、中位數以及 四分位數,如表 2 所示。

在經理人薪酬變數部分,可看出經理人薪資結構中,長期激勵 (包含 $LTI1_{i,\tau} \times LTI2_{i,\tau}$ 二個變數)的平均數、標準差及中位數皆比本薪 ($SALARY_{i,\tau}$)及獎金 ($BONUS_{i,\tau}$)高,可見長期激勵



占經理人薪酬的比例相當高;另外,由平均數亦可看出經理人薪酬(包含 $TDC1_{i,\tau}$ 、 $TDC2_{i,\tau}$)是由本薪($SALARY_{i,\tau}$)、獎金($BONUS_{i,\tau}$)及長期激勵(包含 $LTI1_{i,\tau}$ 、 $LTI2_{i,\tau}$ 二個變數)所組成。此外,公司規模($LNSIZE_{i,\tau}$)的平均數及標準差分別為 7.1128 與 1.42,與 Ashbaugh-Skaife et al. (2006)之結果 8.46 及 1.49 相似;公司資產報酬率的部分, $ROA_{i,\tau}$ 的平均數及中位數分別為 0.0201 與 0.0555,亦與 Ashbaugh-Skaife et al. (2006)之結果 0.02 及 0.03 相似。

(二) 迴歸結果分析

在進行模型的實證分析之前,本文先利用 F test, LM test 與 Hausman test 來決定共同迴歸模型、固定效果模型與隨機效果模型何種模型較為適宜。由表 4 至表 19 之檢定結果,發現所有模型之 F test 與 LM test 均顯著拒絕 H_0 ,表示固定效果模型與隨機效果模型較共同迴歸模型適切。再進一步做 Hausman test,結果亦顯著拒絕 H_0 ,表示固定效果模型優於隨機效果模型,故本研究採用固定效果模型進行迴歸分析。

1. 經理人薪酬與公司獨特性風險之實證結果

表 4 為以 OLS 模型下估計的獨特性風險 $(IV_OLS_{i,\tau+1})$ 並採固定效果模型進行實證的結果。由實證結果發現所有模型皆顯示本期獨特性風險與下一期獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,隱含獨特性風險具與時改變的特性。再者,在 1%的顯著水準下,經理人薪酬(包含 $TDC1_{i,\tau}$ 、 $TDC2_{i,\tau}$ 二個變數,TDC2 的實證結果礙於頁數限制沒有報導)皆與公司獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,表示經理人薪酬愈高,愈有機會容易誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險,公司獨特性風險就愈大。在控制變數方面,從產品市場競爭指標來看,價格成本價差 $(PCM2_{i,\tau})$ 、等值加權超額價格成本價差 $(EEPCM_{i,\tau})$ 在 1%的顯著水準下與公司獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,結果與林楚雄等 (2010)的推論一致,意即產業愈競爭,則代理問題愈小、公司治理品質愈好,因而獨特性風險愈低。另外由表 4 的所有模型可發現資訊及時性 $(TIMELINESS_{i,\tau})$ 、公司規模 $(LNSIZE_{i,\tau})$ 、以及資產報酬率 $(ROA_{i,\tau})$ 均在 1%的顯著水準下與獨特性風險呈顯著負相關,表示資訊愈及時、公司規模愈大與資產報酬率愈大,則公司獨特性風險影愈小,與 Gaspar and Massa (2006)的實證結果一致。此外,在 1%的顯著水準下市價對帳面價值比 $(MTB_{i,\tau})$ 、公司上市時間 $(AGE_{i,\tau})$ 及獲利波動性 $(VROA_{i,\tau})$ 皆與獨特性風險呈正向關係,市價對帳面價值比 $(MTB_{i,\tau})$ 、公司上市時間 $(AGE_{i,\tau})$ 的結果雖與 Gaspar and Massa (2006)的實證結果不一致,本文發現市價對帳面價值比愈大、公司上市時間愈長及獲利波動愈劇烈,公司獨特性風險愈高。



表二 敘述性統計量摘要

	平均數	標準差	Q1	中位數	Q3
IV_OLS _{i,τ}	0.2564	0.3159	0.0877	0.1571	0.3001
$TDC1_{i,\tau}$	0.0218	0.0421	0.0048	0.0105	0.0228
$TDC2_{i,\tau}$	0.0224	0.0469	0.0045	0.0096	0.0218
$SALARY_{i,\tau}$	0.0052	0.0133	0.0013	0.0028	0.0058
$BONUS_{i,\tau}$	0.0022	0.0114	0.0001	0.0008	0.0024
$LTI1_{i,\tau}$	0.0149	0.0367	0.0020	0.0055	0.0142
$LTI2_{i,\tau}$	0.0155	0.0425	0.0012	0.0042	0.0129
$PCM2_{i,\tau}$	-0.2010	4.0144	0.0110	0.0515	0.1011
$EEPCM_{i,\tau}$	1.9393	6.1999	0.0555	0.6228	1.4679
$VEPCM_{i,\tau}$	-0.1938	4.2259	-0.0661	-0.0081	0.0579
$TIMELINESS_{i,\tau}$	-0.2818	0.6111	-0.2748	-0.0754	-0.0160
$LNSIZE_{i,\tau}$	7.1128	1.4222	6.2426	7.0289	7.9770
$MTB_{i,\tau}$	6.9465	122.3981	1.5510	2.5250	4.1293
$LEV_{i,\tau}$	0.4619	0.2796	0.2829	0.4433	0.5927
$TV_{i,\tau}$	24.682	56.294	11.315	18.310	30.355
$CE_{i,\tau}$	0.2450	0.2123	0.0780	0.1745	0.3487
$AGE_{i,\tau}$	8.1604	0.6795	7.9033	8.2887	8.5942
$ROA_{i,\tau}$	0.0201	0.2620	0.0148	0.0555	0.0979
$VROA_{i,\tau}$	0.0901	0.2663	0.0140	0.0278	0.0773

附註:Q1 代表第一四分位數;Q3 代表第三四分位數。 IV_OLS_{ix} 代表第 i 公司第T年之個股獨特性風險(OLS); $TDC1_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人薪酬結構 1 占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $TDC2_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人薪酬結構 2 占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $SALARY_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人本薪占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $BONUS_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人类。占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $LTI1_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人長期激勵 2 占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $LTI2_{ix}$ 代表第 i 公司第T年之經理人長期激勵 2 占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $PCM2_{i,x}$ 表示第 i 公司第T年之經理人長期激勵 2 占第 i 公司第T年營業費用總額的比例; $PCM2_{i,x}$ 表示第 i 公司第T年之價格成本價差; $EEPCM_{i,x}$ 與 $VEPCM_{i,x}$ 為第 i 公司第T年之等值加權與價值加權超額價格成本價差; $TIMELINESS_{i,x}$ 為第 i 公司第T年之資訊及時性; $LNSIZE_{i,x}$ 為第 i 公司第T年之公司市值規模取自然對數; $MTB_{i,x}$ 為第 i 公司第T年之負債比率; $TV_{i,x}$ 為第 i 公司第T年之資產報酬率之波動程度。



表四 經理人薪酬對獨特性風險之迴歸結果

解釋變數 (預期符號)	被解釋變數: $IV_OLS_{i,\tau+1}$					
所作安奴(原州行 炕)	模型1	模型 2	模型3			
截距項	NA	NA	NA			
公司獨特性風險(OLS) $IV_OLS_{i,\tau}(+)$	0.3102	0.3103	0.3107			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
經理人薪酬比例 1 $TDC1_{i,\tau}(+)$	0.3336	0.3368	0.3377			
	(0.0096)***	(0.0089)***	(0.0088)***			
公司價格成本價差 $PCM2_{i,\tau}(+)$.35E-02 (0.0067)***					
等值加權超額價格成本價差 $EEPCM_{i,\tau}(+)$.37E-02 (0.0004)***				
價值加權超額價格成本價差 $VEPCM_{i,\tau}(+)$.16E-02 0.1829			
資訊及時性 $TIMELINESS_{i,\tau}(-)$	47E-01	46E-01	47E-01			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
公司規模 $LNSIZE_{i,\tau}(-)$	56E-01	55E-01	56E-01			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
市價對帳面價值比 $MTB_{i, au}(-)$.22E-03	.22E-03	.22E-03			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
負債比率 $LEV_{i, au}(+)$.15E-01	.15E-01	.21E-01			
	0.5781	0.5839	0.4342			
股票週轉率 $TV_{i, au}(+)$.13E-04	.13E-04	.13E-04			
	(0.0973)*	0.1062	(0.0998)*			
資本支出比率 $CE_{i, au}(+)$	85E-01	73E-01	89E-01			
	0.326	0.403	0.308			
公司上市後時間 $AGE_{i,\tau}(-)$.39E-01	.35E-01	.39E-01			
	(0.0019)***	(0.0043)***	(0.0019)***			
公司資產報酬率 $ROA_{i,\tau}(-)$	75E-01	77E-01	68E-01			
	(0.0018)***	(0.0012)***	(0.0044)***			
公司資產報酬率之波動 $\mathit{VROA}_{i,\tau}(+)$.89E-01	.88E-01	.87E-01			
	(0.0001)***	(0.0001)***	(0.0002)***			
$Ad-R^2$	0.3209	0.3217	0.3201			
F-test	2.39	2.39	2.39			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
LM-test	3.77	3.63	4.37			
	(0.052)*	(0.0568)*	(0.0364)**			
Hausman test	67.27	70.05	67.9			
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***			
觀察值數目	5202	5202	5202			

Granted),為直接擷取資料庫之數據; $PMC_{i\tau}$ 為產品市場競爭程度指標,分別以 $PCM2_{i\tau}$ 、 $EEPCM_{i\tau}$ 及 $VEPCM_{i\tau}$ 取代)。其餘變數定義請參閱表 2 之附註。

2. 不同薪酬結構下的迴歸結果

本文進一步研究經理人的薪酬結構組成下對獨特性風險之影響,同樣以 OLS 模型下估計的獨特性風險並採固定效果模型進行實證的結果。由表 5 之實證結果發現與經理人薪酬實證結果一致,本期獨特性風險與下一期獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,隱含獨特性風險具與時改變的特性。其



次,由實證結果亦發現所有模型皆顯示在 1%的顯著水準下,經理人長期激勵 (包含 $LTI1_{i,\tau}$ 、 $LT12_{i,\tau}$ 二個變數,LT12的實證結果礙於頁數限制沒有報導)與公司獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,意即經理人在長期激勵下較有機會願意承擔獨特性風險,公司獨特性風險就愈大。而在 10%顯著水準下,本薪 ($SALARY_{i,\tau}$)與公司獨特性風險呈顯著負相關,表示即便將經理人本薪提高,亦無法誘發經理人承擔獨特性風險,反而公司獨特性風險愈小。



表五 不同薪資結構下對獨特性風險之迴歸結果

解釋變數(預期符號)	被解釋變數: IV _ OLS _{i,τ+1}				
肝件变数(识别付號)	模型 4	模型 5	模型 6		
截距項	NA	NA	NA		
公司獨特性風險(OLS) IV _ OLS _{i,t} (+)	0.3091	0.3092	0.3097		
	(0.0000)*** -1.7929	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
經理人本薪比例 $SALARY_{i,\tau}(X)$	(0.0822)*	-1.7119 (0.0931)*	-1.4449 0.1604		
施理!整人にたDONUIC(V)	1.4148	1.3435	1.1131		
經理人獎金比例 $BONUS_{i,\tau}(X)$	0.1712	0.1899	0.2811		
經理人長期激勵比例 $1 LTI1_{i_{\tau}}(+)$	0.4272	0.4278	0.41988		
空生八、大朔 放胸 化 例 1 $LII1_{i,\tau}$ (1)	(0.0017)***	(0.0017)***	(0.0021)***		
公司價格成本價差 $PCM2_{i\tau}(+)$.42E-02				
	(0.0015)***				
等值加權超額價格成本價差 EEPCM _i ,(+)		.41E-02			
,,		(0.0001)***	.21E-02		
價值加權超額價格成本價差 $VEPCM_{i, au}(+)$.21E-02 (0.0849)*		
THE DIEGO	45E-01	45E-01	46E-01		
資訊及時性 $TIMELINESS_{i, au}(-)$	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
八司相域 INCIZE ()	59E-01	58E-01	59E-01		
公司規模 $LNSIZE_{i,\tau}(-)$	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
市價對帳面價值比 $MTB_{i_{\tau}}(-)$.22E-03	.22E-03	.22E-03		
	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
負債比率 $LEV_{i,\tau}(+)$.11E-01	.12E-01	.18E-01		
1,† ()	0.675	0.6552	0.5027		
股票週轉率 $TV_{i,\tau}(+)$.13E-04	.12E-04	.13E-04		
,	(0.0986)*	0.1091	0.1014		
資本支出比率 $CE_{i,\tau}(+)$	81E-01 0.3493	68E-01 0.4341	86E-01 0.3229		
LOT LOT	.38E-01	.35E-01	.38E-01		
公司上市後時間 $AGE_{i, au}(-)$	(0.0019)***	(0.0048)***	(0.002)***		
Λ コ次文切取 Φ $D \cap A$ ()	74E-01	75E-01	67E-01		
公司資產報酬率 $ROA_{i,\tau}(-)$	(0.0022)***	(0.0017)***	(0.0053)***		
公司資產報酬率之波動 $VROA_{i\tau}(+)$.89E-01	.87E-01	.87E-01		
	(0.0001)***	(0.0002)***	(0.0002)***		
$Ad-R^2$	0.3215	0.3222	0.3204		
F-test	2.39	2.39	2.39		
1-1651	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
LM-test	3.63	3.54	4.22		
	(0.0566)*	(0.06)*	(0.0398)**		
Hausman test	68.69	70.78	68.03		
also play the set on	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***		
觀察值數目	5202	5202	5202		

實證模型為 $IV_OLS_{i,r+1} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 IV_OLS_{i,r} + \alpha_2 SALARY_{i,r} + \alpha_3 BONUS_{i,r} + \alpha_4 LTII_{i,r} + \alpha_5 PMC_{i,r} + \alpha_6 TIMELINESS_{i,r} + \alpha_7 LNSIZE_{i,r} + \alpha_8 MTB_{i,r} + \alpha_9 LEV_{i,r} + \alpha_{10} TV_{i,r} + \alpha_{11} CE_{i,r} + \alpha_{12} AGE_{i,r} + \alpha_{13} ROA_{i,r} + \alpha_{14} VROA_{i,r} + e_{i,r+1}$

附註:括號內 P-value:*,**,***,分別代表 10%、5%、1%之顯著水準。

LTI1_{1,7}=長期激勵計畫+限制性股票的發放+選擇權的取得 (Value of Option Granted);

 $PMC_{i\tau}$ 為產品市場競爭程度指標,分別以 $PCM2_{i\tau}$ 、 $EEPCM_{i\tau}$ 及 $VEPCM_{i\tau}$ 取代)。其餘變數定義請參閱表 2 之附註。

在控制變數方面,表 5 的實證結果均與經理人薪酬實證結果一致,從產品市場競爭指標來看,價格成本價差 $(PCM2_{i,\tau})$ 、等值加權超額價格成本價差 $(EEPCM_{i,\tau})$ 在 1%的顯著水準下與公司獨特性風險呈顯著正相關,結果與林楚雄等 (2010)的推論一致,意即產業愈競爭,則代



理問題愈小、公司治理品質愈好,因而獨特性風險愈低。另外由表 5 的所有模型可發現資訊及時性 $(TIMELINESS_{i,\tau})$ 、公司規模 $(LNSIZE_{i,\tau})$ 、以及資產報酬率 $(ROA_{i,\tau})$ 均在 1% 的顯著水準下與獨特性風險呈顯著負相關,表示資訊愈及時、公司規模愈大與資產報酬率愈大,則公司獨特性風險就愈小,與 Gaspar and Massa (2006)的實證結果一致。此外,在 1% 的顯著水準下市價對帳面價值比 $(MTB_{i,\tau})$ 、公司上市時間 $(AGE_{i,\tau})$ 及獲利波動性 $(VROA_{i,\tau})$ 皆與獨特性風險呈正向關係,市價對帳面價值比 $(MTB_{i,\tau})$ 、公司上市時間 $(AGE_{i,\tau})$ 的結果雖與 Gaspar and Massa (2006)的實證結果不一致,本文發現市價對帳面價值比愈大、公司上市時間愈長及獲利波動愈劇烈,公司獨特性風險愈高。

3. 穩健性測試

本文再以 GARCH 模型下估計的獨特性風險進行穩健性測試,結果與第四章第二節的實證結果相當一致,同樣礙於頁數限制未能於文中報導。

五、結論與建議

綜觀過去文獻,至今有許多針對經理人薪酬的研究,其中與公司績效衡量的相關研究占大部分,鮮少直接探討經理人薪酬對於公司獨特性風險之影響,本文企圖探討經理人薪酬制度之設計 是否能誘發經理人承擔公司獨特性風險,使股東財富較有極大化之可能。

本文在分析經理人薪酬對獨特性風險的影響時,是利用橫斷面及時間序列混合資料模式 (panel data model),檢驗經理人薪酬對獨特性風險之影響,其中經理人薪酬包含本薪、獎金、限制性股票 (the value of restricted stock grants)、長期激勵計劃 (long-term incentive plans)及股票選擇權價值 (the value of stock options granted)等。此外,為使獨特性風險的估計更為準確,本文利用考慮 GARCH 效果的 Xu and Malkiel (2003)的方法進行估計。

本研究發現經理人薪酬高低對於公司獨特性風險具有顯著影響力,經理人薪酬愈高,公司獨特性風險愈高,此外,本研究亦發現不同的薪酬制度對於公司獨特性風險亦具有顯著影響,經理人之薪酬結構中長期激勵愈多,公司獨特性風險愈高,此實證結果與本文之預期相符合,顯示經理人之薪酬制度有機會誘發經理人承擔公司獨特性風險,以提高公司績效與股東財富極大化之可能。

本研究將經理人薪酬、獨特性風險與公司績效三者的關係予以連接,彌補過去研究著重於經理人薪酬對公司績效的議題,缺乏探討為何經理人薪酬之激勵具有提升公司經營績效與股東財富之效果。再者,本研究之提出能作為探討經理人薪酬能提高公司績效與股東財富極大化之可能在於經理人因薪酬制度之激勵而使經理人較有機會願意承擔公司獨特性風險所致,並藉由本文以作為經理人薪酬制度與公司風險之關係相關論文的佐證。

建議未來研究者可拓展至其他國家或市場探討經理人薪酬制度與公司獨特性風險之關係,並可透過不同產業來分析經理人薪酬對獨特性風險之影響以瞭解不同產業適合不同之經理人薪酬制度,此外,Prendergast (2002)認為不同的風險環境適合不同的經理人薪資結構來誘發經理人承擔風險,因此,本文建議未來亦可區分高獨特性風險公司與低獨特性風險公司以分析不同風險條件下所適合的經理人薪酬制度。

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網路標會利率結構與風險分析

Interest Rate Structure and Risk Analysis of e-Huei

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摘要

本文介紹了網路標會的運作模式,並以各會腳的現金流量模式為基礎,使用零和遊戲的概念推導出標會內含之殖利率,有別於以往研究中以假設之數據推導出合理之得標金額,本研究以網路標會的實際得標金額資料佐以推導出之殖利率公式來計算結果,並進一步實證分析標會殖利率所受影響之變數。另外,本研究亦觀察了實際標金的變化,探討其影響之因素。實證結果顯示出,標會殖利率與得標金額間呈現正向關係,標會殖利率與平均定存利率呈現反向關係,台股大盤指數一般來說與標會殖利率間也呈現反向關係,得標金額與標會期數呈現正向關係,標會期數與標會殖利率間則有反轉現象,是否參與競標與標會殖利率間無明確關係。

關鍵字:網路標會、標金、分量迴歸

ABSTRACT

This paper introduces the framework of e-Huei. The interest rate of e-Huei is determined by the foundation of cash-flow models of all members and based on zero-sum game. In contrast to prior literature, we collect the data from e-Huei and compute its yield rates, then observe the fluctuation of the yield rates under changes in different factors.

Empirical results show that the yield rates of e-Huei increase when Hui discounts and TAIEX increase, respectively, decrease when the spar rates increase, the Huei discounts increase when the number of members in an e-Huei increases. The yield rates may increase or decrease when the number of members increases in different quantile regressions. There is no clear relationship between yield rates and whether a bidder exists..

Keywords: e-Huei; Hui Discount; Quantile Regression



一、 前言

標會是亞洲社會中相當常見的一種民間金融投資工具,在過去各種資訊以及金融服務相關產業較不足的年代中,大多數人就以標會為融通資金的辦法,是一種重要的理財工具,由於其兼具儲蓄以及融資的功能,又在個人投資報酬率的決定上具有相當的靈活性等等優點,所以在社會各個階層中都有一定的接受度,長久以來一直與人們的日常生活具有密切關係。標會雖然是一項相當不錯的理財工具,但是與其它所有金融商品一樣都是有風險的,利率以及倒會就是標會主要的兩項風險來源。

此外,近年來由於個人電腦以及網際網路的進步,電腦與網路和人們的生活愈來愈密不可分,許許多多的事物都已進入e化的時代,金融相關服務也不例外,金管會於2004年10月時宣布,為鼓勵金融創新,舉凡證券、保險與銀行等等的新金融商品,將視其創新的程度,給予三個月至半年不等的保護期,以防止同業之模仿抄襲,其中也有銀行業者看上了標會這個投資工具,推出網路標會的平台來提供給投資者使用,破解了傳統標會時間以及空間的限制,降低投資人的社會成本,且業者充當了標會召集人的身分,過濾各會腳的財務能力與背景,並於會腳發生倒會時,取代其身分繼續參與標會,免除了其餘會腳的倒會風險。業者僅以收取部分手續費的方式,提供了許多傳統標會沒有的優勢來吸引大眾參與網路標會,本研究以某金控成立的網路標會為研究對象,統計至2010年2月8日止,已成立有1054組網路標會,會金總規模達到一億四千餘萬元(會金*人數總計),且規模持續增長當中。過去的研究中,大多數主題皆以會金的大小以及人數,並以自訂之標會利率推算合理各期得標金額,而今日網路標會業者於其網站上提供了完整的得標金額記錄,本研究將從實際的得標金額資料著手,分析網路標會得標金額的所提供之內含訊息,並推導出標會殖利率公式,以實際資料求算殖利率並作分析,探討網路標會殖利率所受影響之因素,以及殖利率與得標金額資料的關係。

目前論及其功能性學術文獻多從借貸、契約、法律限制以及運作模式等等議題來進行研究。學術界除了討論其功能性之外,另外尚有探討其標金趨勢、類型的選擇,以及互助會的實證分析。Kuo(1993)運用了拍賣理論中的密封式最高價得標法,探討內標標會之標金模型,Kuo將標會視為一個有規律性的資金競標契約協定,而各會員對於資金的評價會影響其投標的價格,在獨立私有資訊假設下(I.P.V),Kuo求出內標會員的均衡投標策略,並發現隨著標會持續的進行,愈後期的競標金額會愈低。Calomiris and Rajaraman(1998)在認同 Besley et al.(1993)所提及參與標會的動機源於購買耐久財之外,也認為標會具有的避險功能也應該是民眾參與的動機之一,Calomiris and Rajaraman提出在同時參加多個標會下,若遇到意外事故或是突發事件所導致的週轉危機,則標會便可以消弭意外導致的支出不確定性。Handa and Kirton(1999)運用牙買加互助會的資料進行實證分析,資料顯示有71%的參與者將所得資金用來購買耐久財,另外有14%則是為了防範意外事件之急用而參與互助會。這個結果與前面之學者所提的結果相同,互助會資金目的是消費耐久財,以及其具避險功能之論述,此外,在透過實證後發現互助會的總參與人數與會金呈現反向關係,由於人數與資金、風險成正比,因此這個結果符合一般的經濟直覺。Liao(2003)指出,標會的得標金額是由標會人數(即標會期數)、折扣率(即標會內含之殖利率)以及會員之違約率所組成



之函數,並提供數學證明說明了:得標金額與標會人數呈現正向關係、得標金額與折扣率呈現反向關係。鄭振龍與林海(2005)以標會現金流量的基礎推導出標會隱含的利率期限結構公式,並以福建省東南沿海地區某個民間金融十分發達之縣城,取了某個十餘年未曾發生倒會的會首的實際標會資料,實證結果指出:愈後期得標的折扣率愈高(即得標金額愈低),但其中的波動也說明了突發事件對標會之影響、標會的利率期限結構基本上是負斜率的一條曲線,但也可能受到突發事件影響,呈現向上傾斜的結構,一般來說標會的長期利率相較短期穩定許多。

二、 研究方法

透過各會腳現金流中,我們可以推出隱含的利率期限結構,在連續複利的情況中並且完 全競爭的情況下,各會腳之現金流量現值應該皆為0,可推出下列之方程式:

$$[(N-1)(H-d_0)](1-x_0) - \sum_{t=1}^{N-1} He^{-tr_t} = 0$$
 (1)

$$\begin{split} -(H-d_0) + \big[H + (N-2)(H-d_1)\big](1-x_1)e^{-r_1} - \sum_{t=2}^{N-1}He^{-tr_t} &= 0 \\ -(H-d_0) - (H-d_1)e^{-r_1} + \big[2H + (N-3)(H-d_2)\big](1-x_2)e^{-2r_2} - \\ \sum_{t=3}^{N-1}He^{-tr_t} &= 0 \end{split} \tag{2}$$

(3)

$$-\sum_{t=0}^{2}(H-d_{t})e^{-tr_{t}}+[3H+(N-4)(H-d_{3})](1-x_{3})e^{-3r_{3}}-\sum_{t=4}^{N-1}He^{-tr_{t}}=0 \eqno(4)$$

:

$$-\sum_{t=0}^{N-2} (H - d_t) e^{-tr_t} + [(N-1)H + (N-N)(H - d_{N-1})](1 - x_{N-1}) e^{-(N-1)r_{N-1}}$$

$$= 0$$
(N)



表 1 殖利率公式推導變數說明

符號	變數名稱	變數說明
Н	會金	會金的金額大小,即死會會員每月繳納之數目,網路標會共出現四 種會金,5000、10000、20000 以及30000。
d	得標金額	各期得標金額的數目,首期為 $\mathbf{d_0}$,會尾為 $\mathbf{d_{N-1}}$,且 $\mathbf{d_{N-1}} = 0$,
		標會最後一位得標者無須競標。
		會員人數也同時表示了會期長度,扣除第一人是在首期得標,網路
N	會員人數	標會會期長度有一年期、二年期以及三年期三種,人數分別為 13、
		25 以及 37。
		依照得標期數以及會期長度的不同,每期得標者管理費率也不同,
x	管理費率	會首管理費為X ₀ ,會尾管理費為X _{N-1} ,實際管理費率請參考前面
		章節說明。
		為前一期至當期的期末短期殖利率,例如『1即為第 0 期到第 1 期的
r	殖利率	期末殖利率,也就是標會開始後第一個月的期末殖利率, $\mathbf{r_{N-1}}$ 即為
		標會最後一期的期末殖利率。

以上共有 N 條方程式, N-1 個未知數,理論上有可能會出現無解的結果,但經過一些運算 測試後,幸運的發現此方程組能解出唯一解,我們將(1)式減去(2)式,(2)式減去(3)式,依此類推 至(N-1)式減去(N)式,可得如下結果:

$$(1) - (2)$$
:

$$\begin{split} \{H-d_0+[0H+(N-1)(H-d_0)](1-x_0)\} \\ -\{H+[1H+(N-2)(H-d_1)](1-x_1)\}e^{-1r_1}&=0 \\ (2)-(3): \\ \{H-d_1+[1H+(N-2)(H-d_1)](1-x_1)\}e^{-1r_1} \\ -\{H+[2H+(N-3)(H-d_2)](1-x_2)\}e^{-2r_2}&=0 \end{split}$$

$$(N-1)-(N)$$
:

$$\begin{split} \{H-d_{N-2}+[(N-2)H+(N-N+1)(H-d_{N-2})](1-x_{N-2})\}e^{-(N-2)r_{N-2}}\\ -\{H+[(N-1)H+(N-N)(H-d_{N-1})](1-x_{N-1})\}e^{-(N-1)r_{N-2}} \end{split}$$

經過以上運算後,很容易的發現此 N-1 條方程組,能夠透過簡單的對數轉換消除指數部分,並得出以下公式:



$$\ln \frac{\{H-d_0+[0H+(N-1)(H-d_0)](1-x_0)\}}{\{H+[1H+(N-2)(H-d_1)](1-x_1)\}} = -r_1$$

:

$$\ln \frac{\{H - d_{N-2} + [(N-2)H + (N-N+1)(H - d_{N-2})](1 - x_{N-2})\}}{\{H + [(N-1)H + (N-N)(H - d_{N-1})](1 - x_{N-1})\}}$$

$$= (N-2)r_{N-2} - (N-1)r_{N-1}$$

一般式則可寫作如下:

有前兩期的得標金額即可求出**r**₁,有第二期以及第三期的得標金額,即首期得標後的兩次得標金額,加上先前求出的**r**₁,即可求出**r**₂,依此類推即可將所有的標會殖利率計算出來。此處計算出的殖利率為短期的期末殖利率,舉例來說,由首期得標之金額以及第一期得標之金額計算出來的**r**₁代表首期得標日至次月同日這段期間的短期期末殖利率。此外,我們都知道標會是一個同時具有借貸功能的金融工具,且推導公式前的設定即為個會腳所得現值為零,也就是以零和遊戲的概念來求算推導,所以各期計算出來的結果表示了參與標會所有人"平均"的借貸利率,意即標會在該期內含的殖利率,也因標會目前並無特定的價格數目,所以也可作為標會在該段期間價值以及價格之參考。

三、結果分析

(一) 殖利率與標準差

我們將實際的資料帶入前面推導之殖利率公式中計算結果,在計算出結果後我們發現,殖利率有出現負值的情況,以數學的角度來觀看,公式的確可能計算出負值,自然對數函數的對應域為整個實數。而在觀察實際標金資料後也發現到,當後一期的得標金額高出前一期許多時,該期殖利率明顯會偏低,而較前期之殖利率受到複利的影響較少所以出現負值機率較高,可以發現殖利率的確受到實際標金之影響甚大。(圖 1)為各得標期數殖利率平均,其中 37-5000 這組殖利率曲線前期與一般曲線稍有不同,觀察實際資料後發現,後期得標金額較前期高的組數稍多,加上標會組數較少,所以稍微出現一點反常的現象,而後期則與一般情況相符,各組殖利率皆趨於平緩許多。(圖 2)為各得標期數殖利率的標準差,可以看出各標會種類中,愈前面的得標期數,其標準差也愈高,後期則都一樣趨於平緩,另外線圖中也可以看出,期數愈長之標會,前期的標準差也明顯看得出來較高,得標金額的變化較大相對的也使計算出來的標會殖利率變化愈大。(表 2)以



及(表 3)則為殖利率平均以及標準差的實際數字列表

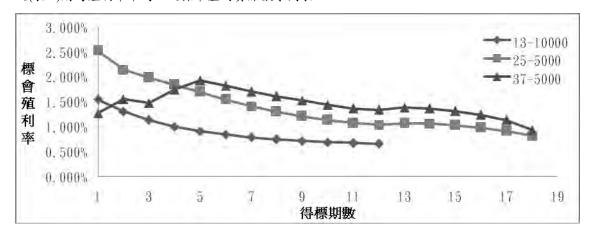


圖 1 各得標期數殖利率平均

表 2 各得標期數殖利率平均

得標期數	1	2	3	4	5	6
13-10000	1.54%	1.30%	1.13%	0.99%	0.90%	0.84%
25-5000	2.52%	2.14%	1.98%	1.83%	1.69%	1.54%
37-5000	1.26%	1.55%	1.47%	1.74%	1.92%	1.82%
得標期數	7	8	9	10	11	12
13-10000	0.78%	0.74%	0.71%	0.68%	0.67%	0.65%
25-5000	1.41%	1.29%	1.20%	1.13%	1.06%	1.03%
37-5000	1.70%	1.60%	1.52%	1.43%	1.36%	1.33%
得標期數	13	14	15	16	17	18
13-10000	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-5000	1.06%	1.05%	1.02%	0.97%	0.91%	0.81%
37-5000	1.38%	1.36%	1.31%	1.23%	1.12%	0.93%

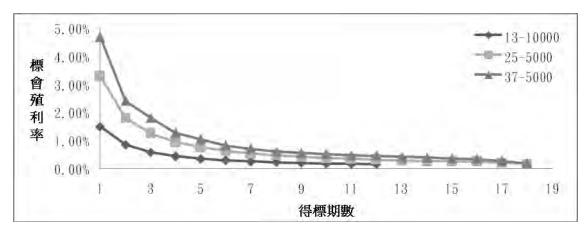


圖 2 各得標期數殖利率標準差



表3各得標期數殖利率標準差

得標期數	1	2	3	4	5	6
13-10000	1.49%	0.85%	0.57%	0.43%	0.34%	0.28%
25-5000	3.29%	1.81%	1.25%	0.93%	0.75%	0.61%
37-5000	4.69%	2.41%	1.81%	1.27%	1.04%	0.81%
得標期數	7	8	9	10	11	12
13-10000	0.24%	0.22%	0.19%	0.17%	0.16%	0.15%
25-5000	0.53%	0.46%	0.41%	0.37%	0.34%	0.31%
37-5000	0.70%	0.60%	0.54%	0.52%	0.46%	0.44%
得標期數	13	14	15	16	17	18
13-10000	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-5000	0.28%	0.25%	0.25%	0.24%	0.21%	0.16%
37-5000	0.41%	0.38%	0.35%	0.33%	0.27%	0.17%

此處我們再將各月份殖利率取平均,不考慮到得標期數之差異,以下為線圖,並加入平均固定利率之線圖作比較,(圖 3)可看出就算已不考慮到標會前後期的差異,平均起來的標會殖利率可能相對拉低,但是各時期依舊比定存固定利率高出甚多,此外,在 2008 年底時平均之殖利率較高,也是因為在網路標會剛興起時數個月內所成立的組數逐漸成長所導致的,該期間內所平均的殖利率較多為標會前期資料,以至於殖利率平均值較高,對應到標準差圖表也可以印證此點,(圖 4)中可以看出網路標會成立後前面數個月間的標準差較高,同樣可以說明到是因為其中較多數是屬於標會前期的資料。另外此處並無加上其它組別如期數 37 會金 5000 的標會種類,理由如前面所述,因各月份成立之組數較少,有些月份甚至缺少成立之組別,以至於若以各月份平均起來的數據,會有部分結果因數據較少受離群值影響,較無參考性所以並無列出。

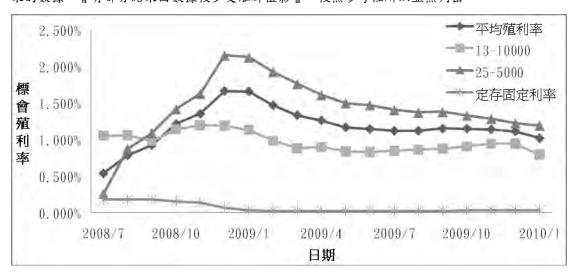


圖 3 各月份殖利率平均



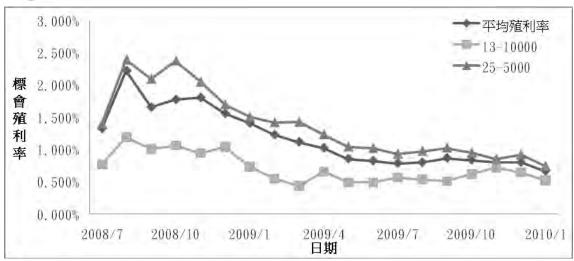


圖 4 各月份殖利率標準差

繼續我們將所得的資料分組來觀察,分組方式是將同樣開始月份之標會分為一組,計算各得標期數之平均值,(圖 5)與(圖 6)是將常見的兩種標會類型,依照此分組計算出之平均值,取前六期得標計算出之結果,將同得標期數,不同月份的平均值作連線之結果,圖中雖然不一定能看出明確的結果,但是對於殖利率變化的走勢來看,可以告訴我們一些簡單的標會情況,兩種類標會皆相同,在業者剛推出網路標會時,殖利率都較低,當服務經營三至四個月時這段期間殖利率皆有增長,而 13-10000 此組標會曾在 2008 年底的時候一度殖利率降低許多,而 25-5000 此組標會首期殖利率則繼續維持殖利率攀升的情況,而第二至六期得標期數的殖利率也有曾經降低再往上爬的情況。而不同期數的連線之間雖然有些交叉,但是大致上來看依然是前期得標之平均殖利率轉後期得標之平均殖利率為高。

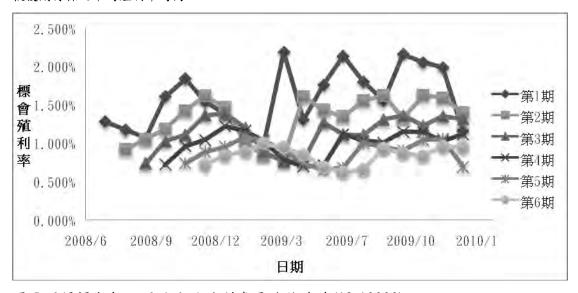


圖 5 同得標期數不同月份的殖利率平均值連線(13-10000)



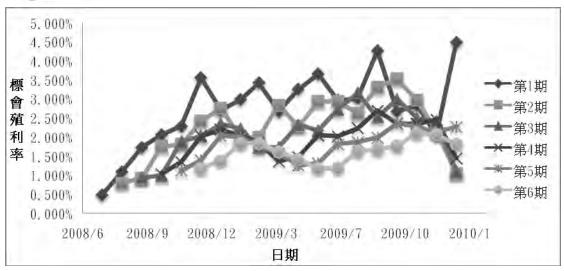


圖 6 同得標期數不同月份的殖利率平均值連線(25-5000)

(二)全部資料 OLS 分析

由於各標會一般來說,前期得標與後期得標的殖利率間差異頗大,前期一般來說波動較大, 而後期大部分都會趨於平緩,觀察資料後我們得知,通常各標會前六期的競標都相對較熱烈,六 期之後就較少人參與競標了,所以接下來的分析中,我們去除了未競標或是競標金額為底標的情 況,來看看殖利率受到變數的影響程度是否會有所不同,所以除了計算出的原始三種類組別的殖 利率外,我們額外將資料取出一組來作分析,即 DW 虛擬變數為 1 的一組(表 4)。

首先先來看到尚未作此分組前的 OLS 分析結果(表 5),得標金額之變數在各組的係數都為正且達到 1%的顯著水準,表示得標金額愈高,則殖利率也會愈高,該期標會競標的情況愈熱烈,帶動了得標金額上升,也會使得標會的殖利率愈高,而在平均固定利率以及台股大盤指數的兩項變數的結果裡面,都呈現了負相關且達到 1%的顯著水準,顯示此兩項變數與標會殖利率呈現了反向的關係,代表了當在景氣較低迷時,存款利率不高且股市表現也欠佳,此時投資者就比較願意投入資金在網路標會中,因為標會的確可以為投資者帶來較市場利率為高的報酬率,而有無競標的虛擬變數在會期 13 會金 10000 的組別中呈現負相關且達 1%顯著,在會期 25 會金 5000 的組別中呈現正相關但未達顯著,在三種類標會合併資料的組別則呈現正相關,顯著水準達到 1%,說明在會期 13 的組別中,有競標情況下的殖利率會較無競標的情況下相對來說較低,在三種類標會合併資料的組別則是有競標的情況下殖利率會較高,而在會期 25 會金 5000 的組別中,管理費的虛擬變數達到了 5%的顯著水準,係數則為正,表示標會前期尚未降低之管理費所計算出的殖利率也較後期的殖利率相對為高,而在標會組別虛擬變數的結果中則顯示出會期 25 會金 5000 與會期 37 會金 5000 的殖利率是比會期 13 會金 10000 的殖利率來得低。



表 4 模型變數說明

變數	類型	變數 符號	變數名稱	附註
依	變數	HR _t	殖利率 得標金額	公式推導出之殖利率。 除以會金作標準化處理。
	數值變	mr	平均固定利率	取自於台灣經濟新報中五大行庫之月平均資料。
	数	mi	收盤價	取台股大盤月平均資料,並作 LN 標準化處理。
自變	名目	D25	會期變數 25 會期變數 37	設立一名目變數來區別不同會期,進而比較之間的 差異,D25=1表示其為會期長度25之標會其中一 期的殖利率,依此類推,D25=D37=0表示此為會 期為13的標會。
	變數	D37	冒州安奴 37	得標金額大於底標者為1,反之為0,設定此變數
		DW	是否參與競標	用意在於辨別有無參與競標是否會影響殖利率之變化。
自變數	名目變數	DM1	管理費變數 1	對照前面章節的階段式管理費表可知網路標會的管理費有三種數字,此處設定若管理費為 2.25%則 DM1=1,反之為 0,若管理費為 2.75%則 DM2=1,反之為 0,若管理費為 1.75 則 DM1=DM2=0,依照不同標會組別出現之管理費變數也不相同,例:25期會金 5000之標會其分析僅具 DM1 變數。



表 5 原始資料 OLS 結果

組別	變數	係數	T 值	P值	R ²	adj R²	
	常數	.015	4.186	.000**			
	dН	.449	42.501	.000**			
13-10000	mr	181	-9.791	.000**	.355	.354	
	mi	002	-5.576	.000**]		
	DW	001	-4.111	.000**			
	常數	.056	6.295	.000**			
	dН	.215	23.114	.000**]	.199	
25-5000	mr	741	-16.992	.000**	.200		
23-3000	mi	006	-6.331	.000**	.200		
	DW	.001	1.584	.113			
	DM1	.002	2.525	.012*			
	常數	.044	9.538	.000**			
	dН	.160	28.067	.000**]		
三種類標會	mr	488	-20.697	.000**			
合併資料	mi	004	-8.385	.000**	.206	.205	
合併貝科	DW	.003	10.173	.000**			
	D25	001	-3.104	.002**			
	D37	008	-13.872	.000**			

^{**} 表示顯著水準在α=1%下結果顯著

* 表示顯著水準在α=5%下結果顯著

接下來我們將得標金額之變數反過來當成依變數,殖利率則改為自變數來作 OLS 分析,(表6)為結果,殖利率在各組的結果都呈現正相關且達到 1%顯著,說明當殖利率愈高時,得標金額也愈高,與前面之結果相同,平均固定利率的結果也都呈現正相關且達 1%顯著,說明當市場上的存款利率愈高時,標會的得標金額也會愈高,代表著投資人投標的金額是與市場有著正向的連結的,存款利率較高的時候,得標金額也會較高,而台股大盤指數變數在各組間則無呈現一致的結果,在會期 13 會金 10000 的組別中呈現正相關,在其餘兩組中則呈現負相關,而在 DW 虛擬變數的部分就已經是代表了是否有競標,在各組中都顯示出正相關且達 1%顯著水準的結果也與實際情況相同,管理費的虛擬變數則顯示出不顯著的結果,表示管理費可能不會影響到得標金額的大小,D25 與 D37 的虛擬變數部份則顯示出正相關且達 1%顯著,表示標會期數愈長,除以會金標準化後的得標金額可能也會愈高。



表 6 得標金額為依變數 OLS 結果

組別	變數	係數	T 值	P值	R^2	adj R²	
	常數	.011	2.709	.007**			
	HR	.587	42.501	.000**			
13-10000	mr	.340	16.382	.000**	.610	.610	
	mi	.001	3.139	.002**			
	DW	.010	47.746	.000**		1	
	常數	.074	5.543	.000**			
	HR	.487	23.114	.000**			
25-5000	mr	1.590	25.035	.000**	.556	.556	
23-3000	mi	003	-2.001	.045*	.550	.550	
	DW	.027	41.967	.000**			
	DM1	001	769	.442			
	常數	.089	11.614	.000**			
	HR	.436	28.067	.000**			
三種類標會	mr	1.153	30.244	.000**			
合併資料	mi	008	-9.431	.000**	.755	.754	
合併貝計	DW	.019	50.114	.000**			
	D25	.036	103.273	.000**			
	D37	.068	109.444	.000**			

^{**} 表示顯著水準在α=1%下結果顯著

(三)去除未競標 OLS 分析結果

接下來看到去除未競標資料後的 OLS 分析結果(表 7),得標金額部份的結果與前面的結果相同,都呈現正相關且達 1%的顯著水準,說明在去除了未競標的情況下,得標金額愈高,殖利率也會愈高,平均固定利率的部份也同樣的與前面有著一致的結果,當市場的存款利率愈低時,標會的殖利率則會愈高,大盤指數的部份雖與前面有同樣結果,但是在會期 13 會金 10000 的組別中並未達到顯著,會期虛擬變數則也顯示出會期較短的標會組別殖利率是較高的。

表7去除未競標資料OLS 結果

組別	變數	係數	T 值	P值	R^2	adj R²	
	常數	006	734	.463			
13-10000	dН	.457	28.742	.000**	.332	.331	
13-10000	mr	235	-7.107	.000**	.332	.331	
	mi	.000	.096	.923			
	常數	.037	2.074	.038*			
	dН	.217	16.133	.000**			
25-5000	mr	742	-11.197	.000**	.139	.137	
	mi	004	-2.296	.022*			
	DM1	.005	.871	.384			
	常數	.035	3.594	.000**			
	dН	.189	21.118	.000**			
三種類標會	mr	590	-15.245	.000**	.147	.146	
合併資料	mi	003	-2.663	.008**	.14/	.140	
	D25	004	-5.330	.000**			
	D37	014	-13.415	.000**			

^{**} 表示顯著水準在α=1%下結果顯著

^{*} 表示顯著水準在α=5%下結果顯著

^{*} 表示顯著水準在α=5%下結果顯著



接下來看到去除未競標資料後,得標金額變數作為依變數的 OLS 分析結果 (表 8),殖利率在各組的結果都與前面尚未去除未競標資料的分析結果相同,呈現了正相關且達到 1%顯著,說明當殖利率愈高時,得標金額也愈高,平均固定利率的結果也與前面結果相同,都呈現了正相關且達 1%顯著,說明當市場上的存款利率愈高時,標會的得標金額也會愈高,而台股大盤指數變數在會期 13 會金 10000 的組別未達顯著,在其餘兩組則有達到 5%的顯著水準且係數為負,管理費的部份與前面相同未達顯著,而 D25 與 D37 的虛擬變數也同樣顯示出當標會期數愈長時,除以會金標準化後的得標金額會愈高,說明了當會期愈長時,也就是參與標會的人愈多時,得標金額可能會相對愈高。

表 8 去除未競標資料後得標金額為依變數 OLS 結果

組別	變數	係數	T 值	P值	R^2	adj R²	
	常數	.031	2.904	.004**			
13-10000	HR	.725	28.742	.000**	.363	.362	
13-10000	mr	.456	11.209	.000**	.303	.302	
	mi	.000	.018	.986		1	
	常數	.125	4.459	.000**			
	HR	.547	16.133	.000**			
25-5000	mr	1.674	16.449	.000**	.216	.214	
	mi	007	-2.403	.016*			
	DM1	.009	1.084	.279			
	常數	.130	8.154	.000**			
	HR	.509	21.118	.000**			
三種類標會	mr	1.407	22.821	.000**	.651	.650	
合併資料	mi	012	-6.583	.000**	.031	.030	
	D25	.049	59.224	.000**			
	D37	.084	72.118	.000**			

^{**} 表示顯著水準在α=1%下結果顯著

(四)分量迴歸分析與 OLS 分析結果比較

分量迴歸的結果數據部份將列在附錄的部份,此處我們將各分量部份有達到顯著的,列出正負值並與前面的 OLS 分析作比較,而得標金額為依變數的部分則因得標金額變數群聚在同一個值的情況相當多,以至於分量的計算下會出現問題,所以此處並無加上得標金額為依變數的分量迴歸結果。(表 9) 為整理出之結果,先看到分量迴歸的部份,有三個地方出現了反轉的情况,分別是會期 25 會金 5000 的管理費變數部份,以及三種類標會合併資料的 D25 以及 D37 虛擬變數部份,在管理費變數的部份可以看出當殖利率在 0.1 以及 0.2 的低分量下時,管理費與殖利率是呈現負向關係的,0.3 分量下不顯著,0.4 分量直到 0.9 分量下管理費與殖利率則都呈現正相關,OLS 結果則也同樣呈現正相關,而 D25 變數則在 0.1 至 0.6 分量下都呈現正相關,0.7 分量下不顯著,0.8 與 0.9 以及 OLS 的部份則呈現負相關,D37 的變數則在 0.1 與 0.4 分量下呈現正相關,0.2、0.3 以及 0.5 分量下不顯著,0.6 至 0.9 分量以及 OLS 下呈現負相關,此兩項變數結果顯示出當殖利率為較低分量情況下時,會期 25 會金 5000 與會期 37 會金 5000 的殖利率都較會期 13 會金 10000 的標會為高,當殖利率為較高分量下時,則會期 13 會金 10000 的標會殖利率較其它兩種類標會殖利率為高。在得標金額變數的部份,分量迴歸則與 OLS 結果相同,除了少數分量

^{*} 表示顯著水準在α=5%下結果顯著



下未達顯著外,其餘皆顯示得標金額與殖利率呈現正向關係,平均固定利率與台股大盤指數變數的 OLS 結果與分量迴歸的結果也大致來說相同,除少數未達顯著外,其餘皆呈現負相關,而是 否競標的虛擬變數則在會期 13 會金 10000 以及會期 25 會金的組別中,OLS 與分量迴歸呈現了 不同的結果,在會期 13 會金 10000 組別中,DW 在各分量下都不顯著,OLS 的結果則顯著為負,在會期 25 會金 5000 的組別中,0.3 至 0.9 分量下都顯著為正,而 OLS 卻未達顯著。

表 9 全部資料分量迴歸結果

組別	變數	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	OLS
	Intercept	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	dH	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
13-10000	mr	-	1	-	1	1	1	X	1	X	1
	mi	X	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
	DW	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
	Intercept	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	dН	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
25-5000	mr	-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-
23-3000	mi	X	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-
	DW	X	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	X
	DM	-	1	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	Intercept	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	dН	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
- ee de 14 A	mr	-	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	1
三種類標會 合併資料	mi	X	_	_	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
合併貝科	DW	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	D25	+	+	+	+	+	+	X	-	_	-
	D37	+	X	X	+	X	1	1	1	-	_

十 表示在 α=5%下結果顯著且係數為正

(五)去除未競標後分量迴歸分析與OLS分析結果比較

(表 10)為去除未競標後分量迴歸與 OLS 的結果比較表,此處只剩管理費的虛擬變數具有反轉的情況,在 0.1 分量下管理費與殖利呈現負相關,0.2、0.3 以及 0.8 還有 OLS 下不顯著,其餘為正相關,在得標金額與平均固定利率則與前面尚未去除未競標資料的結果相同,得標金額與殖利率呈現正向關係,平均固定利率與殖利率呈現負向關係,其中只有少數幾個分量未達顯著,而此處台股大盤指數變數的部份則與前面有所不同,在會期 13 會金 10000 的標會下全部未達顯著,顯示出在去除了未競標的得標金額資料以後,此標會種類下的台股大盤指數變數已經與殖利率間並無明顯關係了,說明之前的影響大多是來自於未競標資料的部份,其餘兩組資料中的台股大盤也是在大多數分量下都不顯著,D25 與 D37 則已無出現前面之反轉現象,且 D37 在各分量

一 表示在α=5%下結果顯著且係數為負

X 表示結果不顯著



下都已顯著為負,結果與前面比較也合理,未競標部份的殖利率實際上就較有競標之殖利率為低,而去除未競標的資料就如同原本資料部分去除了較低分量的部份,所以此處 D25 以及 D37 虛擬變數反轉的部份已經被去除,管理費變數反轉的部份也只剩下 0.1 一個分量。

表 10 去除未競標後分量迴歸結果

組別	變數	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	OLS
	Intercept	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	X	X	X
13-10000	dН	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
13-10000	mr	_	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	1	1
	mi	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Intercept	+	+	+	+	+	X	+	X	X	+
	dН	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
25-5000	mr	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	1	1
	mi	X	X	1	1	1	X	-	1	X	1
	DM	-	X	X	+	+	+	+	X	+	X
	Intercept	+	+	+	+	+	+	X	+	X	+
	dН	X	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
三種類標會	mr	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	1	-
合併資料	mi	X	X	1	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
	D25	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	1	1	_
	D37	-	_	1	1	1	_	_	1	1	-

十 表示在 α=5%下結果顯著且係數為正

X 表示結果不顯著

四、結論

在回顧了許多標會相關文獻後發現,舉凡標會的介紹、法律部份之研究、倒會之分析以及理論標金之計算推導,各議題皆有不少之研究,而在實證方面的研究則相對較少,這與標會資料的取得與收集上之困難有關,而由於網路標會的興起,其資料的取得相當容易,所以本研究則以實際資料代入理論推導的公式,重點在於探討標會殖利率、實際得標金額與其餘變數之關係,並分析實際得標金額之變化。本篇研究中實證資料的來源是網路標會之得標金額,而網路標會為近兩年興起的金融創新商品,其便利且無倒會風險之種種特性吸引了許多投資者,往後之發展可說相當看好,且目前尚無以網路標會實際資料作實證分析之研究,本文章率先以實際資料導入理論公式中分析,希望能得出一些較有貢獻之結果。

在觀察實際得標金額之資料過後,發現標會前期投標者較願意以較高金額投標,且前期得標金額之變化幅度較高,而除首期以外,各期得標金額會受到前期得標金額之影響,前期得標金額愈高,本期之得標金額也會愈高。本研究中所推導之殖利率,假設了各投資人之現金流量現值為零,是以零和遊戲之概念所推導出來的,為短期之期末殖利率,為所有該標會參與者的平均借貸利率,與個人之標會報酬率較為不同。

一 表示在 α=5%下結果顯著且係數為負



由以上實證分析之結果可以看出,本研究選取之變數中對於殖利率影響最明顯的為得標金額,除三種類標會合併資料的 0.1 分量不顯著以外,其餘所有結果中都顯示出標會殖利率與得標金額之間呈現正向關係;標會殖利率與平均固定利率則呈現反向關係,標會期數愈長則得標金額也相對愈高,但是標會期數與標會殖利率間的關係則有出現反轉現象,較低分量下為正向關係,較高分量下則為反向關係,去除未競標資料後則反轉現象消失,除部份未顯著外,其餘為反向關係;管理費在會期 25 會金 5000 的標會中則有出現反轉現象,低分量下為反向關係,中高分量以及 OLS 下為正向關係;是否有競標的虛擬變數則無明確關係;台股大盤指數一般來說與標會殖利率間呈反向關係,若去除未競標資料後則在許多分量下出現未顯著的結果。

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