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Contents

Economic Value Added VS. Stockholder's Equity Value Added	
Сhao-Ниі YEH	1
Residential vacancies, ownership and new construction in an earthquake region: Taiwan, 1982-2010)
Henry H. Y. HSIEH, John FORSTER	13
The effect of perceive quality and price on consumers purchase intention in Cosmetics	
Yi-Mei HUANG, Steven C.H. LIN, Tsung-Hao CHEN	37
Contagion Effects of 2011 Japan Earthquake - The Case of REITs Markets	
Ming-Che WU, Yung-Shi LIAU, Yung-Chang WANG	47
An Examination of the Relationship among Involvement, Fan Identification, and Fan Loyalty Pre-	
and Post- Brand Acquisition – An Empirical Study of Chinatrust Brother	
Yu-Chieh CHAO, Yu-Chen TUNG, Tzu-Ting HUANG, Hua-Lun LIN	65
The Impact of Information Asymmetry On Residential Construction Industry	
Henry HSIEH, Hsin-Mei LIN	79
A Study on the Correlation between Career Anchor and Job Satisfaction of the Grass-roots Civil	
Servants: Taking the Grass-roots Civil Servants of Town of Guangxi province	
Tao LI, Shu LI	99
An Empirical Research of Five-Phases Allelopathy Model on Stock Selection Strategy –	
An Example of Singapore Stock Market	
Alex K.H. CHANG, Wei-Hsuan PENG, Wen-Xing WANG, Hsin Ching LIN, Shuo-Cheng SHIU,	
Shao-Hua TSAI, Chih-Cheng SHIH, Chik-Ooi HENG	-119
An Empirical Research of Five-Phases Allelopathy Model on Stock Selection Strategy:	
An Example of the S&P 500 Index's Component Stocks	
Alex K.H. CHANG. Wei-Hsuan PENG	- 141



Economic Value Added VS. Stockholder's Equity Value Added

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ABSTRACT

In this manuscript, we will report a new general performance incentive scheme, which we will trademark as Stockholder's Equity Value Added (SEVA). We will show that the SEVA is a analytical method for calculating economic profit, with a fundamental financial sense and fitness of acting as an substitute to the economic value added (EVA). We discover that the SEVA has some relations with the EVA, and we form the equation model between EVA and SEVA (the 5th equation in this manuscript). It shows that two distinctive analyses are possible. The outcomes opened make this new SEVA method a good candidate for corporation valuation, incentive compensation, and capital budgeting. The SEVA offer us a new technique of thinking of the economic profit, which is a substitute to EVA but equally helpful. The SEVA is a full management scheme that changes significance and performance to focus on value. It is both the quantity of a corporation's real profitability and a strategy for creating corporation and stockholder wealth. The SEVA is seen as a new, original and logical device to management and inspire persons to make decisions based on the different strategic alternatives.

Keywords: Economic Profit, Economic Value Added, and Stoc Kholder's Equity Value Added



1. Introduction

In current years, stockholder value has become hypothesize of modern business without which any senior executive walks unprotected into the meeting room. The use of economic profit for incentive compensation has attracted considerable attention from administrators to researchers. Consulting corporations are promoting different formulae of economic profit-based performance measures, the most famous of which is maybe EVA by Stern Stewart & Co.

In current years, many of the world's largest corporations have used EVA for planning and control purposes. At the same period, the scholastic literature has built theoretical papers that support EVA for performance evaluation purposes. EVA in applied corporate finance have begun many helps struggling to get a link between performance measurement and value creation as well as to build appropriate compensation plans for workers.

Yet, there are two fundamental problems with EVA. The first problem relates to unfair treatment across a corporation's divisions in existing performance levels. Precisely, if a corporation pays divisional employees bonuses based on the level of its EVA earned by the division then employees in divisions that are currently experiencing negative or very low EVA will receive little bonus however employees in divisions that make huge EVA will receive very huge bonuses. To overcome this weakness, Stern-Stewart advises that bonuses should be tied to EVA's increases percentage, not levels (EVA's increase percentage rather than absolute amount). This recommendation resolves the unfair performance talent problem across a corporation's divisions, but fails to see differences concerning the hidden energy for making improvements in divisional EVA levels.

The second problem relates to the probabilities for managerial myopia that can result from the use of EVA. Their response to this problem comes in four parts with each advice designed to deal a specific issue. To illustrate the type of the problem consider the decision to undertake strategic investments. These investments are characterized by huge beginning outflows for capital, R&D and deferred payments. Huge beginning expenditures will decrease the corporation's EVA in the early years of the investment. This, in turn, serves as a dis-incentive for managers to undertake such an investment where they are compensated using either the level or changes in EVA. In these samples Stern-Stewart advise that GAAP accounting statements be adjusted such that at least a portion of the investment be capitalized (e.g., R&D expenditures) and unrecorded into the corporation's balance sheet (for internal evaluation purposes). For purposes of computing EVA, the capitalized expenditures are slowly calculated into the manager's internal capital account as the anticipated payments from the investment are expected to happen. This method highlights the basic source of the problem, however, implementation is difficult. For instance, when is an investment strategic? What portion of the investment should not be recorded the balance sheet? When and how is the withheld investment recorded to the firm's invested capital? Still another source of myopia arises out of the fact that managerial decision horizons may be shorter than the life of the investments that they are considering. The problem arises because managers who receive bonuses for short-term performance (e.g., annually) have an incentive to manipulate short-term results before leaving the firm or transferring to another division.



2. Stewart's EVA models

Stern Stewart constructed their value based management practice on the application of economic profit, specifically EVA. Pioneering and exhaustive research by Yeh (2001) discusses economic profit valuation model (EPVM hereafter). This paper extends the EPVM to derive mathematically the net present value (NPV hereafter). The NPV rule states that a project is profitable if its NPV is positive. The idea of maximizing NPV is standard in financial economics (see Yeh, 2001; Brealey and Myers, 2000; Copeland and Weston, 1982;) and traces back to Fisher (1930), whose analysis is carried out under assumption of certainty (see MacMinn, 2005, for the Fisher model under uncertainty). The NPV analysis is equivalent to the *q* theory of investment (Tobin, 1969): "In all of this, the underlying principle is the basic net present value rule" (Dixit and Pindyck, 1994, p. 5) and "the net present value rule is appropriate for decision making". The NPV of a project is then nothing but a mathematical transformation of the concept of economic profit.

From the stockholder's view the objective in designing a pay for performance system is to link employee compensation to measures of periodic performance that are directly connected to wealth creation. The class of measures we consider is broadly defined as EVA, which has a long history in the managerial accounting literature.

The EVA is a profitability index introduced by Stewart in order to provide a device for evaluating firms as well as for evaluating and compensating managers. The basic objective of EVA is to create a measure of periodic performance based on the concept of economic profit. In order for a firm to create wealth for its owners, it must earn more on its total capital invested than the cost of that capital. The total cost of capital is the product of the weighted average cost of capital (WACC) and the total capital invested (TC). By subtracting the total cost of capital from the net operating profit after taxes (NOPAT), we get EVA. If we use the symbol ROOC as the rate of Return On Opportunity Cost of equity capital, then we have, for period t,

$$\begin{split} EVA_{t} &= NOPAT_{t} - WACC \times TC_{t-1} \\ &= ROA \times TC_{t-1} - \frac{(ROD \times Debt_{t-1} + ROOC \times Equity_{t-1})}{Debt_{t-1} + Equity_{t-1}} \times TC_{t-1} \\ where \\ EVA_{t} &= ROA \times TC_{t-1} - ROD \times Debt_{t-1} - ROOC \times (TC_{t-1} - Debt_{t-1}) \\ EVA_{t} &= TC \times (ROA - ROOC) - Debt \times (ROD - ROOC) \cdots \Big\langle old \ EVA \ equation \Big\rangle \\ TC_{t-1} &= A_{t-1} = Debt_{t-1} + Equity_{t-1}, C_{t-1} \equiv 0 \end{split}$$

From the above old EVA equation, we can easily see that old EVA equation is only right when there is no individual cash account, and all assets are operational assets.

In the following section we will present the new EVA equation with an individual cash account, which is not operational asset.



$$\begin{split} EVA_{t} &= NOPAT_{t} - WACC \times TC_{t-1} \\ &= ROOA \times A_{t-1} + ROOC \times C_{t-1} - \frac{(ROD \times Debt_{t-1} + ROOC \times Equity_{t-1})}{Debt_{t-1} + Equity_{t-1}} \times TC_{t-1} \\ whence \\ EVA_{t} &= ROOA \times A + ROOC \times C - ROD \times Debt - ROOC \times (A - Debt + C) \\ EVA_{t} &= A \times (ROOA - ROOC) - Debt \times (ROD - ROOC) \cdots \Big \langle new \ EVA \ equation \Big \rangle \\ TC_{t-1} &= A_{t-1} + C_{t-1} = Debt_{t-1} + Equity_{t-1} \end{split}$$

Stewart's EVA is currently used as a measure of projects' periodic performance, as an index for evaluating firms, as a device for forecasting asset prices, as a yardstick for rewarding managers. The EVA is simply the NOPAT less the firm's book value ($Debt_{t-1} + Equity_{t-1}$) multiplied by the average cost of capital (WACC).

NOPAT (net operating profit after taxes) is the profit of the unleveled (debt-free) firm. Sometimes, it is also called EBIAT (earnings before interest and after tax). Note that the EVA mixes accounting parameters (profit, and equity and debt book value) with a market parameter (WACC). Then, we show that the present value of the EVA discounted at the WACC plus the enterprise book value (equity plus debt) equals is the enterprise market value (MVA). The MVA is the present value of the free cash flow discounted at the WACC. The relationship between MVA and EVA is shown below: the present value of the EVA discounted at the WACC is the MVA.

$$MVA = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{EVA_t}{(1 + WACC)^t}$$

Stewart (1991) defines MVA as the excess of market value of capital (both debt and equity) over the book value of capital. If the MVA is positive, the company has created wealth for its stockholders. To determine the market value, equity is taken at the market price on the date the calculation is made, and debt at book value. The total investment in the company, since day one, is then calculated as interest-bearing debt and equity including retained earnings. Present market value is then compared with total investment. If the former amount is greater than the later, the company has created wealth.

While the EVA is an accounting-based measure for the corporate performance of one year, the MVA is a market-generated number. The MVA is cumulative measure of the value created by the management in excess of the capital invested. There is a strong correlation between the change in EVA and change in MVA.

Because the EVA can be measured at any point in an Organization, bonuses linked to the EVA are a powerful influence on corporate behavior, aligning stockholder and management interests, and helping to emphasize one of the troublesome issues facing businesses - how pay is tied to performance. Employee incentives must be tied to the stockholder value program. It is the incentive that changes behavior, and changing behavior is what changes companies.

The bonus bank is vital. Essentially, each manager's bonuses are "banked", to be paid out over a number of years; that is, only half the bonus bank can be paid out in any year. Otherwise, a manager could perform brilliantly in Year One and, because he or she perhaps skimped on longer-term investments such as brand



advertising, crash in Year Two. Clearly, a company cannot pay a bonus one year and take it back the next. The bank ensures that performance is sustained and is rather an elegant solution to the tendency of managers to try and play the system.

3. Stockholder's Equity Value Added

In this section I would like to choose a different account of the economic profit: SEVA. I will show that the SEVA is good for measuring economic profit and is able to act as an alternative to the EVA. To see how SEVA deserves to be regarded as a true economic profit let us consider a decision maker with an initial equity (E_0) aims at evaluating an operation asset (OA_0) that creates equidistant certain cash flows $(\vec{a}=(a_0,a_1,\cdots,a_T)\in\Re^{T+1})$ at time $t=1,\cdots,T$. The outstanding asset (asset account balance) of OA (A_t^{OA}) at time t at the rate ROOA is given by $A_t^{OA}=A_{t-1}^{OA}(1+ROOA)-a_t$.

The operation asset is somewhat financed with debt, says D, whose outstanding value D_t^{OA} at time t develops along the following recurrence equation: $D_t^{OA} = D_{t-1}^{OA}(1+ROD) - d_t$.

The cash flows produced by operation asset (A_t^{OA}) are deposited in a savings account, say C, whose outstanding value C_t^{OA} at time t develops along the following dynamic system: $C_t^{OA} = C_{t-1}^{OA}(1+ROOC) + a_t - d_t$. The d_t indicate the cash outflow from debt.

Given $E_0^{CA} = E_0^{CC} = E_0 = Initial Equ \ ity > 0$, where E_0 denotes the value of the evaluator's net worth at time 0. This paper assumes that decision maker aims at evaluating the periodic performance of the project and faces two alternative courses of action:

- (I) To invest in OA
- (II) To keep her wealth in account C.

Let us denote with $E_t^{\mathcal{O}A}$ and $E_t^{\mathcal{O}C}$ the net worth at time t for cases (I) and (II) respectively. The evaluation process starts at time 0, when two lines of action are compared. If we regard the investor's wealth as a dynamic system, we have that (I) and (II) give rise to different paths of the system. As for (I) at time t the net worth $E_t^{\mathcal{O}A}$ can be seen as built in three accounts: The account C, whose value is denoted by $C_t^{\mathcal{O}A}$; the operation asset, whose value is the outstanding capital $(A_t^{\mathcal{O}A})$; and the loan contract, whose outstanding debt is $D_t^{\mathcal{O}A}$; therefore, the following recurrence equations hold:

$$\begin{split} E_t^{OA} &= C_t^{OA} + A_t^{OA} - D_t^{OA} \\ A_t^{OA} &= A_{t-1}^{OA} (1 + ROOA) - a_t, A_0^{OA} = -a_0, A_T^{OA} = 0 \\ C_t^{OA} &= C_{t-1}^{OA} (1 + ROOC) + a_t - d_t, C_T^{OA} = E_T^{OA} \\ D_t^{OA} &= D_{t-1}^{OA} (1 + RODC) - d_t, D_0^{OA} = d_0, D_T^{OA} = 0 \end{split}$$



The first equation in this paper is (1) above. Graphically, we can easily illustrate the situations through the balance sheets. At time t we have the following balance sheets for case (I).

Table 1: At time t we have the following balance sheet for case (I).				
$C_t^{OA} = C_{t-1}^{OA}(1 + ROOC) + a_t - d_t$	$D_t^{\mathcal{O}A} = D_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}A}(1+ROD) - d_t$			
$A_t^{OA} = A_{t-1}^{OA}(1 + ROOA) - a_t$	$E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} = C_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} + A_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} - D_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} = E_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}\!A} + \Delta E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} =$			
	$E_t^{OA} = C_t^{OA} + A_t^{OA} - D_t^{OA} = E_{t-1}^{OA} + \Delta E_t^{OA} = E_{t-1}^{OA} + C_{t-1}^{OA} \times ROOC + A_{t-1}^{OA} \times ROOA - D_{t-1}^{OA} \times ROOD$			

If case (II) is instead chosen, the decision maker's wealth $E_t^{\mathcal{OC}}$ at time t will be comprised of the only account C, whose value I denote with $C_t^{\mathcal{OC}}$, given by $E_t^{\mathcal{OC}} = C_t^{\mathcal{OC}} = C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}}(1+ROOC)$ plus the interest yielded at the rate ROOC. Therefore, the following recurrence equation and Table 2 hold case for (II).

$$E_t^{\mathcal{OC}} = C_t^{\mathcal{OC}} = C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}}(1 + ROOC) \qquad t = 1, \dots, T.$$
(2)

The second equation in this paper is (2) above. Graphically, we can easily illustrate the situations through the balance sheets. At time t we have the following balance sheets for case (II).

Table 2: At time t we have the following balance sheet for case (II).				
$C_t^{OC} = C_{t-1}^{OC} (1 + ROOC)$	$D_t^{OA} = 0$			
$A_t^{OA} = 0$	$E_{t}^{OC} = C_{t}^{OC} = E_{t-1}^{OC} + C_{t-1}^{OC} \times ROOC = E_{t-1}^{OC} + E_{t-1}^{OC} \times ROOC$			

Giving equation (1) and equation (2), the two alternative dynamic systems are then expressed by the following recurrence equations:

$$\begin{split} E_t^{\mathit{OA}} &= E_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} + C_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOC + A_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOA - D_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROD = E_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} + \Delta E_t^{\mathit{OA}} \\ E_t^{\mathit{OC}} &= E_{t-1}^{\mathit{OC}} + E_{t-1}^{\mathit{OC}} \times ROOC = E_{t-1}^{\mathit{OC}} + \Delta E_t^{\mathit{OC}} \end{split}$$

This paper focuses on stockholders' wealth and assumes that, in case (I), stockholders reinvest the equity cash flows at the cost of capital ROOC (this is the standard assumption of the Net Present Value rule). Therefore, in each period stockholders' wealth is a portfolio of the cash inflow from operation asset, cash outflow from debt payment and the proceeds of the reinvestments in account C. The periodic income is given by

$$A_{t-1} \times ROOA + C_{t-1}^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOC - D_{t-1} \times ROD = \Delta E_t^{\mathit{OA}}.$$



Suppose, instead, that the operation asset is not undertaken and the amount E_0 is invested at the cost of capital: Letting $C_t^{\mathcal{OC}}$ be its compounded value at time t, wealth is such that $C_t^{\mathcal{OC}} = C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}} + C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}} \times ROOC$, so that the periodic income is $C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}} \times ROOC = \Delta E_t^{\mathcal{OC}}$. The item $C_{t-1}^{\mathcal{OC}} \times ROOC$ is the income that stockholder forgo if operation asset is undertaken.

The Stockholder's Equity Value Added is given by the difference of the two alternative incomes: $SEVA_t = A_{t-1} \times ROOA + C_{t-1}^{OA} \times ROOC - D_{t-1} \times ROOD - C_{t-1}^{OC} \times ROOC$

This means that for period t we have two alternative incomes, depending on the choice made. The economic profit is the incremental profit of (I) over (II), which is the difference between the two alternative profits come from the alternative dynamic systems. In other words, the item $\Delta E_t^{\mathcal{O}A} = E_t^{\mathcal{O}A} - E_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}A}$ is the periodic gain associated with case (I), and the item $\Delta E_t^{\mathcal{O}C} = E_t^{\mathcal{O}C} - E_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}C}$ is the gain associated with case (II).

The economic profit in period t is the incremental income of (I) over (II), based on the comparison of alternative wealth. I define the differential gain as SEVA:

$$SEVA_{t} \equiv \Delta E_{t}^{OA} - \Delta E_{t}^{OC} \tag{3}$$

The third equation in this paper is (3) above. Where $\Delta E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} = E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!A} - E_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}\!A}$ and $\Delta E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!C} = E_t^{\mathcal{O}\!C} - E_{t-1}^{\mathcal{O}\!C}$. Summing for t we obtain what I shall name the overall Stockholder's Equity Value Added (SEVA), which is just the Net Final Value (NFV) of the operation asset.

$$SEVA = \sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_t = E_T^{OA} - E_T^{OC} = NFV$$
(4)

The SEVA model is established on an all-inclusive way of reasoning: The net worth is a system structured in accounts whose value develops chronically following different laws. The algebraic sum of the accounts constitutes the value of the whole net worth.

4. A comparison of SEVA and EVA

Mathematically, it is shown that strict relations hold between the two views: The SEVA models and the EVA. Here different views are at work: EVA reminds accounting, measuring the profit and summing to it the initial capital invested (initial wealth + profit), SEVA is NFV-based, measuring the differential gain and summing to it the compounded initial wealth (compounded wealth + economic profit). This aspect is actually a salient feature of the two models: The EVA model is grounded on a financial reasoning along which the entire wealth is an investment whose rate of return is ROOC and whose cash flows are just the EVA_i . Conversely, the SEVA model satisfies a sound accrual reasoning, which presupposes that the end-of-period wealth is given by the initial wealth plus the profit of the period.



When t=1, from equation (3), we get $SEVA_1 = EVA_1$. The proof is below:

$$\begin{split} SEVA_1 &\equiv \Delta E_1^{\mathit{OA}} - \Delta E_1^{\mathit{OC}} = C_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOC + A_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOA - D_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROD - E_0^{\mathit{OC}} \times ROOC \\ &= C_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOC + A_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROOA - D_0^{\mathit{OA}} \times ROD - (C_0^{\mathit{OA}} + A_0^{\mathit{OA}} - D_0^{\mathit{OA}}) \times ROOC \\ &= A_0 \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_0 \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= EVA_1 \end{split}$$

It is worthy to note that SEVA and EVA coincide in the first period, while, in the second period, SEVA is given by the sum of the second period EVA and the interest on first period SEVA. $SEVA_2 = EVA_2 + (SEVA_1 \times ROOC); SEVA_3 = EVA_3 + (SEVA_2 + SEVA_1) \times ROOC$

The result is easily generalized in the following equation:

$$SEVA_{t} = EVA_{t} + \sum_{t=2}^{T} SEVA_{t-1} \times ROOC, t = 1, \dots, T$$
(5)

Equation (5) describes the $SEVA_t$ according to accumulations of past $\sum_{t=2}^{T} SEVA_{t-1}$.

Equation (5) implies that OA can be evaluated through the $SEVA_t$ by reversing the role of summing and discounting: The EVA_t is tied to the net present value via a discount-and-sum process, whereas the $SEVA_t$ paradigm employs a sum-and-discount process: Given that $NPV = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{EVA_t}{(1+ROOC)^t}$ when t=T in equation (5) one obtains

$$NPV = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{EVA_t}{(1 + ROOC)^t} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_t}{(1 + ROOC)^T} = \frac{NFV}{(1 + ROOC)^T}$$

The new $SEVA_t$ paradigm is first summed, and then discounted: The reverse of the classical the EVA_t process.

In terms of Net Final Value one gets, at time T, $\sum_{t=1}^{T} S\!EV\!A_t = N\!FV = N\!PV \times (1 + ROOC)^T.$ The net

final value is given by the uncompounded sum of all $SEVA_t$. This means that the $SEVA_t$ is additively coherent. The additive coherence, far from being a mere superior formal property, shows the powerful property of income aggregation, as opposed to discounting.

One can express the firm's market value as a function of the outstanding capital and the total economic profits:

$$MVE = BVE + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_{t}}{(1 + ROOC)^{T}}$$

Where BVE is the book value of equity, MVE is market value of equity, ROOC is required rate of



equity capital.

The Net Final Value NFV may be expressed in a further fashion, where no capitalization procedure is involved for the classical EVA, while the SEVA are only linearly synthesized.

Expanding equation (5), we get the following equations:

$$SEVA_{1} = EVA_{1}$$

$$SEVA_{2} = EVA_{2} + ROOC \times SEVA_{1}$$

$$SEVA_{3} = EVA_{3} + ROOC \times (SEVA_{1} + SEVA_{2})$$

$$\bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet = \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet$$

$$SEVA_{T} = EVA_{T} + ROOC \times (SEVA_{1} + SEVA_{2} + \bullet \bullet \bullet + SEVA_{T-1})$$
and, summing by column,
$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_{t} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} EVA_{t} + ROOC \times \sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_{t} \times (T - t), t = 1, \dots, T$$

The sixth equation in this paper is (6) above. Because that $\sum_{t=1}^{T} SEVA_t = NFV$, we have that

$$NFV = \sum_{t=1}^T EVA_t + ROOC \times \sum_{t=1}^T SEVA_t \times (T-t)$$
. The project's Net Final Value may therefore be

viewed as a double sum of economic profits: A sum of uncompounded conventional EVA plus a sum of linearly compounded SEVA. The proof of (6) is in the appendix.

The SEVA model is grounded on an all-inclusive way of reasoning: The SEVA is a system structured in accounts whose value develops chronically following different laws. The algebraic sum of the accounts constitutes the value of the whole net worth. This enables us to avoid compounding, whereas the EVA model depends on the idea of Net Final (Present) Values and on capitalization procedures. In a sense, by using an all-inclusive view we can sum cash despite its maturity. This result, far from being unreasonable, suggests that we can produce a cognitive view where there is no need of capitalization factors: Time dimension held through the system's chronic evolution.

The SEVA dominates over the EVA in the areas of compensation and day-to-day devices for evaluation that is both practical and personal. It not only measures performance but also helps people enhance it.

5. Remarks and Conclusions

This paper shows that the existing EVA models seem to emphasize financial reasoning, while the SEVA model here presented tries to convey economic information.

So we have now two valuable models capable of formally grasping the idea of economic profit. Are there other accounts? It might be, maybe reframing the evaluation process in another different way. However, in my conventionalist view, there is no best model, but just different ways to interpret the same concept. It is just a matter of custom to choose one or the other, a custom regarding the way we are willing to shape the evaluation process. Actually, there is no way of attaching objectivity to either model.

I do not state here that the EVA model is incorrect and that the SVA model is correct. The inconsistency I have shown is such only because we are in a systemic-chronic outlook, so the evolution of the financial system is relevant. Further, the adoption of either method is, in my opinion, a matter of custom. The index the decision maker must use depends on the information she wishes to get, that is on the idea of economic profit she is inclined to adopt.



Future researches can be complicated to investigate more thoroughly these two accounts: From a financial point of view, some eccentricities seem to arise in the description of the investor's financial system if the SEVA approach is adopted.

From a theoretical point of view it could be worthy to analyze the concept of economic profit focusing on its ambiguities as well as investigating the interrelations between such a concept and the Net Final (Present) Value. Further, other accounts of the idea of economic profit could be searched for and tests could be constructed to see whether either account is more natural for decision makers.

Furthermore, thus, the SEVA model can be seen in turn as an all-inclusive model. SEVA and EVA, though alternative, seem to bear strong relations to each other and these aspects deserve, in my opinion, careful attention.

Other possible expansions are the introduction of variable rates and multiple accounts, so improving the structure of the financial system of the decision-maker and the complexity of the evaluation process.

Finally, suggestions for corporate governance are straightforward: If managers are rewarded on the basis of the SEVA, then their past performance is not deleted, however it is deleted in the EVA model. The choice between EVA and SEVA as a compensation plan will then depend on whether stockholders are willing to consider or not of the fact that a higher/lower economic profit in the past have caused capital to be higher/lower today.

We have two different interpretations of the same idea, therefore two different ways of measuring it. Though more economic, the SEVA may be used in a capital-budgeting context, as a measure of a business's periodic performance and, in general, as a device of corporate governance (e.g. for rewarding managers). Both the SEVA and the EVA deserve attention and future researches may emphasize on studying in which situations one or the other view suits better the evaluator's needs, and to analyzing more thoroughly the theoretical concept of economic profit, maybe finding that such a idea is a conventional one, with no way of determining an 'objective' economic profit.

Appendix

$$\begin{split} &\Delta E_{1}^{OA} = (E_{1}^{OA}) - E_{0}^{OA} = (E_{0}^{OA} + C_{0}^{OA} \times ROOC + A_{0}^{OA} \times ROOA - D_{0}^{OA} \times ROD) - E_{0}^{OA} \\ &\Delta E_{1}^{OC} = (E_{1}^{CC}) - E_{0}^{OC} = E_{0}^{OC} \times (1 + ROOC) - E_{0}^{OC} = E_{0}^{OC} \times ROOC \\ &SEVA_{1} \equiv \Delta E_{1}^{OA} - \Delta E_{1}^{OC} = C_{0}^{OA} \times ROOC + A_{0}^{OA} \times ROOA - D_{0}^{OA} \times ROD - E_{0}^{OC} \times ROOC \\ &= (D_{0}^{OA} + E_{0}^{OA} - A_{0}^{OA}) \times ROOC + A_{0}^{OA} \times ROOA - D_{0}^{OA} \times ROD - E_{0}^{OC} \times ROOC \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} (ROD - ROOC) + (E_{0}^{OA} \times ROOC) - (E_{0}^{OC} \times ROOC) \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} (ROD - ROOC) \\ &EVA_{1} \equiv NOPAT_{1} - TC_{0} \times WACC_{1} = A_{0}^{OA} \times ROOA_{1} + C_{0}^{OA} \times ROOC - D_{0}^{OA} \times ROO_{1} - E_{0} \times ROOC \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} \times ROOA_{1} + C_{0}^{OA} \times ROOC - D_{0}^{OA} \times ROO_{1} - ROOC \times (A_{0}^{OA} + C_{0}^{OA} - D_{0}^{OA}) \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} \times (ROOA_{1} - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} \times (ROD_{1} - ROOC) \\ &EVA_{1} = A_{0}^{OA} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} \times (ROOA_{1} - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_{0}^{OA} \times (ROOA_{1} - ROOC) - D_{0}^{OA} (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= EVA_{1} = EVA_{1} \\ &= E_{0}^{OA} = E_{0}^{OA} = E_{0} = InitialEqu ity \end{split}$$



$$\begin{split} \Delta E_2^{\text{col}} &= (E_2^{\text{col}}) - E_1^{\text{col}} &= (E_1^{\text{col}} + C_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC + A_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOA - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROD) - E_1^{\text{col}} \\ \Delta E_2^{\text{col}} &= (E_2^{\text{col}}) - E_1^{\text{col}} &= E_1^{\text{col}} \times (1 + ROOC) - E_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC \\ SEVA_2 &= \Delta E_2^{\text{col}} - \Delta E_2^{\text{col}} - \Delta E_2^{\text{col}} &= C_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC + A_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOA - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOD - E_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC \\ &= (D_1^{\text{col}} + E_1^{\text{col}} - A_1^{\text{col}}) \times ROOC + A_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOA - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC - E_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} (ROD - ROOC) + (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} (ROD - ROOC) + (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} (ROD - ROOC) + (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} (ROD - ROOC) + (SVA_1) \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOA + C_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC - D_1^{\text{col}} \times ROOC \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROOA - ROOC) - D_1^{\text{col}} \times (ROD - ROOC) \\ &= SEVA_2 = EVA_3 + SEVA_4 \times ROOC \\ &= (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \\ &= A_1^{\text{col}} \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{\text{col}}) \times (E_1^{\text{col}} - E_1^{$$



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Residential vacancies, ownership and new construction in an earthquake region: Taiwan, 1982-2010

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ABSTRACT

Vacancies are usually considered in terms of short-run, rental housing markets, with structural vacancies associated with run-down local physical environments. However, nations can have such persistently high and spatially widespread vacancy rates that this is misleading. Taiwan has not only had a national vacancy rate that has been high for decades, but residential construction continues, and residential purchase prices rise in real terms. An explanation and a model consistent with these phenomena is the challenge for empirical modelling. For Taiwan the mass of total vacancies is interpreted as structural and imperfectly habitable units but having little housing market impact. Physically Taiwanese dwelling units are overwhelmingly urban, high-density and high-rise, with over eighty-five per cent of occupants being owners. Underlying this is a close relationship between construction and the housing market, with the impact of continually evolving earthquake construction codes considered critical. An aggregate model is estimated using two-stage least-squares on pooled cross-section time-series data for 23 cities and counties annually covering all Taiwan for 1982-2010. Interpretation of the model's results suggests that implicit improvements in new unit completions help raise real prices, and is consistent with completions forcing older but habitable units off the market into structural vacancies.

Keywords: Residential Construction, Taiwan, Earthquake, Vacancies, Housing Market, Home Ownership.



1. Introduction

A major objective of this paper is to reconcile a set of apparently contradictory contemporary and historical phenomena in the residential market and residential construction industry of Taiwan. The aggregate model presented is underlain by and is consistent with this reconciliation. The model itself has the objective of modelling long-term vacancies of owner-occupier housing markets, as opposed to virtually universal treatment of vacancies as expressions of excess demand in rental markets.

Taiwan's housing market has an unusual mix of features. One is the persistence of very high vacancy rates over several decades (a national vacancy rate 19.3% in 2010 ref). Also high by international standards is the home ownership rate (85.77% in 2012, DGBAS, 2012), with a correspondingly small rental market. The vast majority of dwelling units are apartments, which are increasingly in urban high rise buildings. While it is argued that these features stem from Taiwan's history since the Second World War, in the late 1940s and the 1950s few of them existed. From 1895 until 1945 Taiwan was part of the Japanese colonial empire. This led to much of its housing stock and its small industrial capacity being reduced by air operations, so that by 1945 Taiwan's 6 million residents had one of the lowest per capita GDPs in the World. The Chinese Civil War halted development, while 1949 saw the arrival of 1.3 million people with the retreating Chinese Nationalist government. Taiwan's population rose to nearly 7.5 million virtually overnight (McBeath, 1998; Clark, 1989). There was an enormous housing shortage and little means to alleviate it (Hsieh, 2005; Li, 1998). Then for the next quarter of a century the Nationalist government's command economy's 5-year plans emphasised defence, manufacturing and export-oriented growth (World Bank, 1993; Vogel, 1991; Wonoroff, 1992; Pang, 1992; Kuo, 1992; McBeath, 1998; Shepherd, 1993). Few resources were allowed for housing and other social projects (Li, 1998). To add to housing pressure, population growth was encouraged, rising without immigration to just under 24 million by 2010 (Table 1).

Table 1 Population in Taiwan (1,000 persons)

Year	persons	Year	persons	Year	Persons
1980	17866	1992	20803	2004	22689
1981	18194	1993	20995	2005	22770
1982	18516	1994	21178	2006	22877
1983	18791	1995	21357	2007	22958
1984	19069	1996	21525	2008	23037
1985	19314	1997	21743	2009	23120
1986	19509	1998	21929	2010	23162
1987	19725	1999	22092	2011	23224.9
1988	19954	2000	22277	2012	23315.8
1989	20157	2001	22406	2013	23373.5
1990	20401	2002	22521	2014	23379
1991	20606	2003	22605		

Source: Dept. of Household Registration Affairs, MOI. 2014



Taiwan's seismic activity also affects housing supply and its physical expression. While earthquakes cause relatively little direct destruction of residential units, (although the two major post-war earthquakes led to approximately 11,000 dwelling units destroyed in 1964 and 52,000 in 1999) from 1972 there have been escalating impacts upon building codes (see section 2), raising both the costs and resource intensities of residential construction.

These historical and physical factors suggest housing shortages. Instead there have been persistently high vacancy levels since at least 1980 (Table 2).

Region 1980 1990 2000 2010 Vacancies Rate **Vacancies** Rate Vacancies Rate Vacancies Rate (Units) (%) (Units) (%) (Units) (%) (Units) (%) North 219241 14.47 320683 13.85 564266 741855 19.6 17.6 Central 121605 13.12 149933 12.83 310504 18.9 365408 19.6 South 124657 11.36 183635 12.73 316315 406775 16.2 18.4 11.36 14336 20066 13.58 37713 21.0 42275 East 21.7 479839 Taiwan 13.09 674317 13.29 1228798 17.6 1556313 19.3

Table 2 Vacancies and vacancy rates

Source: DGBAS , 2000, ; DGBAS , 2010; Peng and Chang 1995, p68;

Total vacancies were just under half a million in 1980, just over 13% of total residential unit stock. By 2010 vacancies were just over 1.5 million and 19.3% of stock. The extreme example is Taichung City (population 2.5 million), the third largest city after Taipei City and Kaoshiung City. Taichung had a vacancy rate of 39.66% in 1996. Nonetheless in that year 25,488 new dwelling units were completed in Taichung, with developers receiving approvals for a further 13,140 units. Taichung's vacancy rates were 26% in 2000 and 26.2% in 2010. With very high population densities such vacancy rates imply especially enormous waste, as well as analytical challenges. Nevertheless, private developers find it profitable to build at the levels shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3 Dwelling Unit Completions: 1982-2010

Region	1982-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010
North	464,417	924,077	518,336
Central	168,197	540,728	180,650
South	250,525	448,740	224,593
East	23,014	41,334	12,703
All Taiwan	906,153	1,954,879	936,282

Source: DGBAS, 2014

Consequently, understanding the relationship between completions and vacancies is a key question, especially given dwelling unit real prices have been rising (Figure 1). Figure 1 shows real prices per unit of liveable floor space, standardising prices for different sizes of dwelling unit. This measure is used in the estimation.

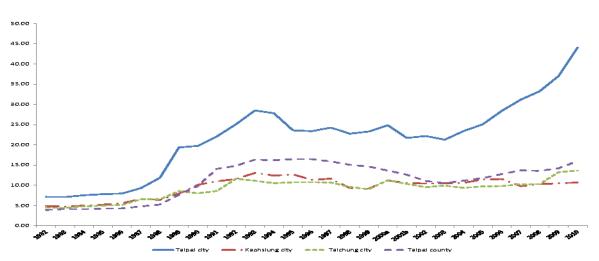


Figure 1: Dwelling Unit Prices (per square metre) in the Four Major Cities and County

Source: Ministry of Interior Data: 2014

If rising prices suggest developer construction behaviour is economically rational, why do prices continue to rise? This indicates a need to examine the construction industry and the housing market together. Note that a vital reason for using price unit of residential floor space, as opposed to price per dwelling unit is that the size of dwelling units in Taiwan has undergone distinct changes (discussed in Section 3).



Figure 2: Average size of unit

Source: DGBAS 2014,

Note: Average size of unit=total completed residential floor space/ total completed residential units

Home ownership is among the World's highest (85.77% in 2012: DGBAS, 2012). Consequently the analysis has to be with purchase prices not rents, but noting it is impossible to find data to measure or impute rental values in Taiwan. This is as opposed to most studies in this area that use rentals, such as Hagen & Hansen, 2010; Miceli & Sirmans; 2013 and Thalmann, 2012.

This paper is structured as follows. This first section gave a brief historical overview and outlined questions and objectives. In section 2 the housing market literature is examined, as well as some of the interactions between data availability involved in the present modelling. The literature is found lacking in that it applies mainly to rental rather than ownership markets. The third section describes Taiwan's seismic activity and



earthquake regulations and relates these to construction types, such as reinforced concrete and steel. These three sections underlie the construction and housing market model described in Section 4. Section 5 presents and discusses the model's estimated results. Section 6 draws conclusions relating to Taiwan's residential market and construction industry, and more generally to the problems of modelling owner-occupier markets.

2. The Residential Vacancies Literature and Data

The literature and some aspects of the Taiwanese data are discussed together as they lead in very different directions. Thus, while most empirical discussions of demand and supply for housing utilise rental market vacancy data, such data are neither available nor largely relevant for Taiwan. Analysing the rental market led to the 'natural vacancy rates' concept in Blank and Winnick (1953) and Smith (1974). This literature (Hagen and Hansen, 2010; Miceli and Sirmans, 2013 and Gabriel and Nothaft, 1988, notably with Tse and Macgregor (1999) in a high urban density environment similar to Taiwan) is, therefore, concerned with relatively short-run market phenomena. Vacancies are treated as measures of excess demand, representing market disequilibrium, the natural vacancy rate largely representing market friction vacancies (Thalmann 2012; Tse & MacGregor 1999). These important concepts are nonetheless largely irrelevant to Taiwan. Taiwan's vacancies are a measure of absent owners rather than an inability of landlords to secure tenants, and Taiwanese prices are asset prices rather than rents. Given the inapplicability of the natural vacancy rate concept for Taiwan, ideas of 'structural vacancies' and 'market vacancies' are used as having a potentially greater relationship to the longer term relationships of Taiwan's home ownership markets. Certainly, Taiwan's high levels of vacancies are a long-term phenomenon (Table 2). For Malta and Spain the literature has explained their persistently high vacancies as due to the presence of social housing and highly regulated housing markets (Vakili-Zad, and Hoekstra, 2011; Hoekstra and Vakili-Zad, 2011). These conditions are absent in Taiwan, not only in the present but also in the past.

Also absent in Taiwan are owner-occupier vacancies that in North America and its literature are 'abandonments' (Raleigh and Galster, 2014, Frazier, Bagchi-Sen and Knight, 2013). This is partly by virtue of Taiwanese law. Dwelling units that are not 'active' in the housing market have to be kept in repair, taxes paid and services connected, the rationale being the otherwise deleterious impact empty, untended units can have. This allows vacancy data to be created by counting dwelling units where electricity is connected, but where electricity consumption falls below the level implying active occupancy (DGBAS 2010; DGBAS 2000). This yields a very accurate count of active/inactive occupancy status (Peng & Chang 1995), although it does not identify unrented vs. owner-unoccupied properties. In principle such units can readily be brought back into the market if conditions change. This is rarely observed, even in Taipei City where high levels of demand also mean the vacancy rate is low by Taiwanese standards. One problematic measurement outcome is that developers' inventories (completions as yet unsold) are not counted as vacancies as electricity is not yet connected. Developers might keep them unsold in depressed market conditions, thereby acting as a price-moderating market mechanism. The overall implication is that Taiwanese total vacancies data almost entirely represent market-inactive stock, i.e. long-term withdrawals from the market.

Examining housing supply stock also requires examining other potential deletions (demolitions and earthquake damage) and additions (completions as in the estimated model) to and from stock. Taiwanese earthquake damage data indicate sporadic high levels of stock destruction, but incorporating these as an independent variable for deletions had no impact on model estimation. This negative result was unexpected but



one explanation is that the stock most likely to be destroyed is earlier, less earthquake-resilient stock (see section 3), which is also the stock most likely to be market-inactive. They were then excluded from further consideration. Decisions to demolish appear little in the housing literature, but see Niklaus et.al 2002, 2009; Igor et.al. 2008; Andre et. al. 2009; Raleigh & Galster 2014; Arny et. al. 2013). There are no Taiwanese data, but demolition is considered currently negligible in Taiwan. The reason is striking and important to the construction industry and housing market in Taiwan. This is that there is very strong constitutional protection for remaining owner-occupants when apartment blocks are being vacated by other owners. Court cases, at higher level courts because of the constitutional issues, have sided with remaining, sometimes solitary owner-occupiers in multi-unit blocks (CPM, 2010). To create an extreme hypothetical but not unrealistic example, one owner-occupier, unwilling to leave out of the other 19 in a 20 unit apartment block cannot be forced to leave. This can clearly have impacts on vacancy rates. This constitutional block may be less important than the physical aspects of apartments in an earthquake zone, but can interact with those physical aspects to create structural (long-term) vacancies.

3. Methodology

3.1 Earthquakes and Residential Structures

Taiwan, at the junction of the Philippine Sea Plate and the Eurasian Plate is extraordinarily earthquake prone (AAA, 1999). This geophysical environment, allied with very high urban and rural population densities directly influences the housing market through effects on residential structures and construction methods. Figure 3 shows the major fault lines, greater proximity to each being associated with higher earthquake probabilities and intensities (Cheng, C-T., Chio, S-J., Lee, C-T. And Tsai, Y-B., 2007). The North-South interior mountain spine of the island is the area most free of faults, but with steep, unstable slopes unsuitable for urbanization it is also the most sparsely populated.



Figure 3: Fault lines and High Earthquake-Zones

Based on Maps by Cheng, C-T., Chio, S-J., Lee, C-T. And Tsai, Y-B. (2007)



Residential earthquake engineering received little attention in Taiwan until the regulations enacted in 1974 (Table 4). Since then new residential buildings have been subjected to increasingly tough legislation (Table 4) given a rapidly increasing population, increasing GDP and living standards, higher urban densities and taller buildings and the readily visible impacts of earthquakes. This has also meant rigorous enforcement. Thus there was a specific response to the 1999 Chi Chi earthquake (Cheng, C-T., Chio, S-J., Lee, C-T. And Tsai, Y-B., 2007). Although occurring in a largely rural and less densely populated area, the Chi Chi earthquake lead to over two thousand deaths, over 44,000 dwelling units destroyed and a further 41,000 rendered uninhabitable. It was realised the disaster could have been greater if Chi Chi had been an urban area.

Table 4 Earthquake resistance coefficient

Construction regulation dates	Earthquake zoning and Z (Earthquake resistance coefficient)
	Strong earthquake Zone (Z)=0.263
1974	Medium earthquake Zone (Z)=0.21
	Mild earthquake Zone (Z)=0.158
	Strong earthquake zone (Z)=0.315
1982	Medium earthquake zone (Z)=0.252
	Mild earthquake zone (Z)=0.189
1997	Zone 1A (Z)=0.33
	Zone 1B (Z)=0.28
1991	Zone 2 (Z)=0.23
	Zone 3 (Z)=0.18
2000	Zone A (Z)=0.33 · Zone B (Z)=0.23
	The 2006 regulation uses proximity to the major fault lines (Map1) rather than
	zones. These are:
	A. Che Nung Pu fault line
	B. Shi Tan, Mt. Shen Chou fault lines
2006	C. Tung Tze Chiao fault line
2000	D. Mt. Mei fault line
	E. Hsin Huwa fault line
	F. Mt. Da Chien, Chu Kao fault lines
	G. Fault lines in Hualien and Taitung areas (Including Mi Luen, Yu Li, Chi Sung,
	and Chi Mei fault lines

Source: Construction Planning and Administration Bureau , 2012

Increasingly earthquake prone areas have been more precisely identified, each with corresponding tailored earthquake regulations. As examples of the numerical codes in Table 4, a building complying with a resistance coefficient of 0.08 to 0.25 should cope with an earthquake of Richter scale 5, while a resistance coefficient 0.25 to 0.4 implies an ability to cope with earthquake of Richter scale 6.

In response to these regulatory changes, as well as urbanization and population growth, the materials and methods of residential structures have rapidly changed. Table 5 shows the percentage of completions by floor



space in each year by method/material. Table 5 is examined in detail. Brick is considered first. While housing remained low-rise, Brick remained a suitable material/method. Brick was also low-technology and labour-intensive. Given the import-replacement emphasis of early post-war Taiwanese development plans, it also had the advantage that it was a domestically sourced raw material.

Table 5 Annual Completions (by floor space) by Structural Materials (%)

Year	Reinforced Concrete	Steel	Steel and RC	Brick	Timber	Other Materials
1982	75.1	2.9	0.7	21.18	0.1	0
1983	77.3	2.8	3.1	16.30	0.4	0.3
1984	72.5	3.5	6.9	16.82	0.3	0
1985	77.3	3.3	2.4	16.74	0.3	0
1986	78.7	3.5	0.8	16.93	0.1	0
1987	79.4	3.9	0.9	15.73	0.1	0.1
1988	78.7	4.8	2.2	14.24	0.1	0.1
1989	83.3	4.9	1.4	10.35	0.1	0
1990	82.5	7.1	1.2	9.10	0.1	0.1
1991	83.1	6.4	3.9	6.46	0	0
1992	85.6	5.3	4.7	4.26	0.2	0
1993	87.8	5.9	2.7	3.40	0.2	0.2
1994	89	3.8	4.5	2.60	0.1	0.3
1995	90.9	2.1	5.2	1.79	0.1	0
1996	88.8	2.6	6.6	1.91	0	0.1
1997	86	3.9	8	1.87	0.1	0.2
1998	86.2	3.6	8.3	1.72	0.1	0.3
1999	83.86	3.96	9.02	1.44	0.14	1.57
2000	79.21	3.88	12.53	1.62	0.24	2.52
2001	69.43	5.52	17.06	3.09	0.4	4.51
2002	70.57	3.25	20.05	2.02	0.27	3.83
2003	73.74	3.76	19.28	0.96	0.28	1.98
2004	80.9	2.27	14.99	0.74	0.27	0.84
2005	82.22	1.99	14.51	0.62	0.15	0.51
2006	82.87	8.8	7.61	0.57	0.07	0.08
2007	81.73	8.99	8.54	0.56	0.09	0.09
2008	82.25	10.55	6.38	0.67	0.07	0.09
2009	77.77	10.33	11.05	0.60	0.11	0.14
2010	72.48	14.55	12.01	0.65	0.2	0.11
2011	74.41	15.7	8.8	0.64	0.17	0.27
2012	76.43	14.5	8.14	0.60	0.15	0.18

Source: Hsieh & Forster (2006) · DGBAS(2012)



These advantages have long disappeared, Table 5 shows Brick in long term decline, and always below 1% of completions since 2003. This is not surprising given Brick's very poor earthquake resistance properties and unsuitability for high rise structures. Reinforced Concrete is important throughout the thirty year study period, but while Reinforced Concrete usage seemingly changes little from 1982 (75.1%) to 2012 (76.43%), it had increased to almost 90% in 1995, and was over 80% from 1989 to 1999. It then fluctuated between 69.43% in 2001 and 82.25% in 2008, but the reasons for these fluctuations are not known. In 1982 the only other significant residential construction material was Brick (21.18%), all other structural types combined representing less than 4% of total floor space constructed. Together Reinforced Concrete, Steel and Steel/Reinforced Concrete were 78.7% in 1982 but 99.07% by 2012. Steel/Reinforced Concrete is a compromise with some of the advantages of steel and reinforced concrete respectively. It offers flexibility in construction, thereby reducing costs. It rose from 0.7% of total floor space in 1982 to a peak of 20.05% in 2002, declining to 8.14% in. Steel was unimportant and less than 5% from the 1980s to the 2000s. However, in 2006 it rose to 8.8%, and 14.5% in 2012. The reason is almost certainly a combination of the tightening earthquake regulation and the increasing construction of high-rises and 'learning-by-doing'. What this table shows is a rapidly changing physical urban (built) environment. However, lagged responses to regulation changes due to time taken in both the approval and construction process make definitive statements about the timing of regulatory impact difficult. Certainly the regulatory changes proved impossible to incorporate as successful explanatory variables.

The trend towards construction methods suitable for earthquake protection and for high rise dwellings is nevertheless clear. Crucially for the empirical modelling and its interpretation, it also means that newer units are necessarily qualitatively different from older units. This will not only be in the changing combination of construction types between years, but also within the construction types. Thus reinforced concrete buildings completed in 2010 are more advanced than those of 1982. Consequently apartment buildings from 1982 are 'dated' not just from aging during their lifetime, but also due to compliance with earthquake regulations in 1982, 1997, 2000 and 2006. This has important implications, the first being that it begins to offer an explanation for Taiwan's large, persistent and increasing number of vacancies – these vacancies are in aged and technologically obsolescent stock, even though perfectly habitable. It is recognised that this is an explanation and cannot be a proven in the absence of targeted surveys. The second implication follows from the first: that because completions are technologically, i.e. qualitatively, superior to earlier construction, their role in the market is greater and more complex than a simple increase of supply. Third, the new earthquake resilient technologies make removal, i.e. demolition, increasingly more expensive and difficult. This reinforces the constitutionally difficult barrier to compulsory purchase-for-redevelopment is, occupiers having very clear rights of tenure.

All of these factors impinge upon the market and influence the formulation of the empirical model. While it has previously been argued that newly completed units will be superior in their amenity and will command a higher price on the market (e.g. Zahirovich-Herbert and Gibler, 2014) this finding was at the individual dwelling unit level, and is not necessarily present in aggregate models. The present modelling is for the market as a whole.



Additional but confounding evidence of qualitative change over time is size of units, i.e. floor space per unit. While this is a characteristic expected to rise as real incomes, savings and personal wealth rise, this expectation is not borne out by the data in Figure 2. The principal question is why did average unit size decline from 1990 to 1997, especially given the apparently compensating upswing from 1997 to 2001? Noting that decisions on size are taken at the time of approvals, thus leading completions by one to two years, the answer remains unclear. Part of the answer may be increasing population and population density as well as the impacts of regulations, of boom and slump and declines in the traditional extended family (Huang, 2006). The average number of person in Taiwanese households declined from 4.76 persons in 1980 to 2.82 persons in 2014 (Table 6) but this and other potential reasons are not compelling, especially given that unit size fluctuates so much. The possibility is that it is a developer reaction to medium and shorter term factors.

Table 6 Family size (Unit: person)

Year	Family persons	Year	Family persons	Year	Family persons
1980	4.76	1992	3.88	2004	3.16
1981	4.66	1993	3.82	2005	3.12
1982	4.58	1994	3.75	2006	3.09
1983	4.52	1995	3.67	2007	3.06
1984	4.48	1996	3.57	2008	3.01
1985	4.42	1997	3.50	2009	2.96
1986	4.34	1998	3.44	2010	2.92
1987	4.24	1999	3.38	2011	2.88
1988	4.14	2000	3.33	2012	2.85
1989	4.07	2001	3.29	2013	2.82
1990	4.00	2002	3.25	2014	2.82
1991	3.94	2003	3.21		

Source: Dept. of Household Registration Affairs, MOI., 2014

3.2 A residential construction-vacancies model for Taiwan

Based upon the previous discussion, the model comprises a set of identities and behavioural equations that relate the level of residential vacancies to residential construction over time and across all Taiwanese cities and counties.

The discussion above suggests the Taiwanese total vacancies data combines both 'market-active' and 'market-inactive' vacancies, i.e. a proportion of the vacancies will play no role in residential construction and market purchase decisions. That this unknown proportion is high is suggested by the persistent nature of Taiwanese vacancies since the 1980s. Consequently, the Taiwanese Total Vacancies are deemed to have two components: Market (market-active) Vacancies and Structural (market-inactive) Vacancies such that:

$$(1) VT = Vm + Vs$$

where:



VT = Total Vacancies

Vm = Market Vacancies

Vs = Structural Vacancies

As independent measurements can only be made on Total Vacancies they are decomposed into the Market Vacancies and Structural Vacancies components. This is accomplished by hypothesising that Structural Vacancies are a function of long-term factors. After some experimentation these long term factors were treated as a linear time trend (a quadratic specification added no significant increase in the level of explanation) with city/county dummy variables (the reference point being Taipei City). The Structural Vacancies mechanism in regression terms is:

(1) VT = f (long term factors) + residuals

In equation (1) the residuals from this estimated decomposition equation are the log of the market vacancies variable and are treated directly without further transformation as one of the model's jointly dependent variables. The final model was specified entirely in natural log form as:

- (1) Total vacancies = f(long term factors) + market vacancies
- (2) Market vacancies = f(market factors, Price, Completions)
- (3) Price = f(market factors, Market vacancies)
- (4) Approvals = f(market factors, price)
- (5) Completions = f(Approvals)

In equation (2) Market vacancies (residuals from the first equation) become the dependent variable. These are units that are vacant but are actively on the market, other than that period's newly completed units. As previously indicated, the completions are qualitatively different from all other vacancies, and being both (a) technologically superior, and (b) having the desirable quality of 'newness'. It is therefore expected that increasing completions, a superior substitute for other market active units, will increase the number of market vacancies. Similarly real price should also increase the number of market vacancies as should the real interest rate, being a cost of borrowing in order to purchase. In equation 3 the price (in real terms) of a unit will be negatively related to market active vacancies, whereas completions should increase price due to being a superior substitute. The real interest rate should have a negative impact upon price. Equation (4) indicates that approvals are determined by developers' expectations in the profitability of building. Given their product will be superior to existing vacant units, the major influence will be positive on price expectations, based on current price. Unfortunately in the Taiwan context a major factor that cannot be modelled due to lack of data is the availability of developable land. In equation (5) completions are simply positively related to lagged approvals, the lag representing construction time.

Demand and supply is influenced by external factors, which include singular events such as regulatory changes and earthquakes, macroeconomic factors and population growth. Although they do not enter into the estimated model, these factors help explain why completions and approvals continue despite very high vacancy rates. The nature of these variables is reflected in an owner-occupier market mechanism, a long-term feedback loop.



4. The Results and their Interpretation

This section presents estimates of the simultaneous equation model from estimation by Two-Stage Least-Squares. The model covers all Taiwan and is a pooled cross-section/time-series form, using annual data for 28 years (1982-2010) for all 22 cities and counties. Given the data the model cannot be used to explain differences in vacancies between individual regions. Fortunately, it does allow use of dummy variables representing each city and county that takes these differences into account. Thus any patterns in the dummy variables' estimated coefficients can be investigated after estimation. Taipei City, for example, has a distinct relationship with the highly urbanised Taipei County. The inter-urban hierarchy is fairly stable ove the study period, Taipei City representing 12.57% of Taiwan's population in 1982 and 11.31% in 2010 (Dept. of Household Registration Affairs, MOI, 2014). Coversely, contiguous Taipei County. Taipei County held 13.55% of Taiwan's population in 1982 and 16.83% in 2010. Taipei City is the reference constant term for the dummy variables in all equations.

The final estimated form of the Total Vacancies equation is:

 $Ln (Total Vacancies) = a0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} ai1Di + a2Ln(t) + Ln(eit)$

where

Di = city/county dummy variables, where n = 23.

The total vacancy model results are in Table 7. Also included in earlier versions were a quadratic term in time (square of time) and the number of units destroyed by earthquakes. Neither of these terms was significant so were omitted.



Table 7 Determining market vacancies
Dependent Variable: Ln(Vacancy)

	Unstandardized		Std.	t	Sig.
	В	Std. Dev.	Beta		
Constant	10.437	.044		235.777***	.000
Ln(time)	.434	.009	.392	45.974***	.000
Kaohsiung city	315	.053	070	-5.911***	.000
Taichung city	320	.053	071	-5.999***	.000
Taipei county	.623	.053	.138	11.689***	.000
Chilung city	-1.319	.053	292	-24.734***	.000
Hsinchu city	-1.661	.053	367	-31.158***	.000
Chia I city	-1.905	.053	421	-35.735***	.000
Tainan city	903	.053	200	-16.941***	.000
Pingtung county	-1.281	.053	283	-24.023***	.000
I Lan county	-1.394	.053	308	-26.145***	.000
Taoyuan county	097	.053	022	-1.827***	.068
Hsinchu county	-2.014	.053	445	-37.773***	.000
Miaoli county	-1.878	.053	415	-35.214***	.000
Taichung county	642	.053	142	-12.047***	.000
Chung Hua county	661	.053	146	-12.404***	.000
Nantou county	-1.622	.053	359	-30.423***	.000
Yunlin county	-1.388	.053	307	-26.025***	.000
Chia I county	-1.567	.053	346	-29.381***	.000
Tainan county	-1.004	.053	222	-18.836***	.000
Kaohsiung county	928	.053	205	-17.409***	.000
Taitung county	-2.424	.053	536	-45.454***	.000
Hualien county	-1.646	.053	364	-30.869***	.000
Penhu county	-3.037	.053	672	-56.959***	.000

^{***,} P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

Interpreting these results is relatively straightforward. Given that all other cities and counties are smaller than Taipei City the negative terms on all the city/county dummy variables, with the exception of Taipei County, were expected. The time trend shows increasing levels of vacancies for Taiwan as a whole over time at a highly significant level. This is consistent with the suggestion that construction is continuing but that removals from stock, such as though demolition are not occurring. What this cannot tell us is when this trend will come to an end.

 $R^2 = 0.953$, F = 570.448***, N = 666



4.1 Estimated Market Vacancies equation

The estimated market vacancy model is below and its empirical results are shown in Table 8.

 $Ln(Calculated\ Market\ vacancies) it = b0 + \sum i = 1n-1bi1Di + b2Ln(Real\ Price) it + b3Ln(Completions)\ it + b4\\ Ln(Real\ Interest) + eit$

```
where:
b = estimated coefficients
subscript t = time period
subscript i = city/region; i =1,...,n (n=21)
e = error term
```

The expectations concerning the signs of the estimated coefficients are: (a) that higher real prices will create higher market vacancies by increasing supply and decreasing demand; (b) higher interest rates will increase market vacancies by increasing costs of both supply and purchase by mortgage and (c) completions will have a complex and ambiguous effect on market vacancies. The rationale for (a) and (b) is standard demand and supply arguments that higher real prices and higher interest rates will decrease demand for units and so increase market vacancies before supply has time to adjust. A longer supply adjustment period allows new residential construction, and to a lesser extent to activate existing vacancies that are not market active, e.g. refurbishment. The impact of Completions is more uncertain. As an addition to market-active stock, completions increase supply and should therefore increase market vacancies — alone this effect would imply an estimated positive coefficient on completions. However, the evidence from Tables 4 and 5 is that completions are very different from existing stock and much more desirable. Consistently decreasing family size (see Table 6) also suggests greater desirability of units in tune with smaller, more nuclear families. It is impossible a priori to be certain how these two effects will balance against each other but the clear tenor of the arguments here is that qualitative differences are greater than supply changes. The city/county dummy variables should suggest greater market vacancies in areas outside Taipei City and Taipei County



Table 8 Market Vacancies Equation

Jointly Dependent Variable: Ln (Market Vacancy)

	Unstandardized		Beta	t	Sig.
	В	Std. error			
Constant	885	.182		-4.872 ***	.000
Ln(real price)	.242	.065	.420	3.705 ***	.000
Ln(completion)	.008	.025	.048	.325	.745
Ln(real interest)	034	.006	277	-5.569 ***	.000
Kaohsiung city	.195	.072	.213	2.704**	.007
Taichung city	.224	.075	.244	3.001 **	.003
Taipei county	.166	.075	.182	2.213*	.027
Chilung city	.197	.068	.216	2.904**	.004
Hsinchu city	.176	.062	.192	2.823**	.005
Chia I city	.190	.067	.207	2.840 **	.005
Tainan city	.180	.064	.197	2.820**	.005
Pingtung county	.287	.079	.313	3.651 ***	.000
I Lan county	.213	.068	.233	3.117 **	.002
Taoyuan county	.231	.078	.252	2.973**	.003
Hsinchu county	.198	.066	.216	3.009**	.003
Miaoli county	.291	.078	.317	3.742 ***	.000
Taichung county	.191	.070	.209	2.741 **	.006
Chunhua county	.210	.064	.234	3.271 ***	.001
Nantou county	.220	.069	.240	3.163**	.002
Yunlin county	.271	.074	.296	3.649***	.000
Chia I county	.230	.072	.251	3.197 ***	.001
Tainan county	.211	.067	.231	3.168**	.002
Kaohsiung county	.212	.066	.231	3.188**	.002
Taitung county	.249	.078	.272	3.217***	.001
Hualian county	.297	.078	.324	3.79***	.000
Penhu county	.247	.087	.269	2.833**	.005

^{***,} P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

N=666

The results in Table 8 do not completely conform to these expectations. The sign on the real interest rate is negative, the opposite of expectations, and is statistically highly significant. No convincing explanation of this phenomenon can be offered, although interest rate impacts in Taiwan may be confounded by long periods of very low real interest rates, as well as very high levels of per capita savings. The most interesting result is for completions, which has a positive sign and is statistically significant, although numerically very low (+0.004). This result indicates that new completions do not directly add to market vacancies in Taiwan in any significant



manner. Given that completions add to housing stock and will be market-active (other than developers' inventories), the implication is that they force some existing units out of the market to become structural vacancies. This result is consistent with developers being rational in constructing new units, even though there are increasingly high numbers of vacant, habitable units. Developer behaviour is rational, both because real prices are rising (Figure 1) and they are able to sell new units. Also as expected the impact of the real price variable is to increase market vacancies and at a statistically significant level. One part of this mechanism may be that it brings some vacant but inactive units back onto the market, especially in the highest demand areas. The city/county dummy variables conform to expectations. This includes Taipei County, which is much closer in value to Taipei City than most of the other estimated dummy coefficients, although its numerical value still suggests it belongs with other centres rather than Taipei City.

4.2 Estimated Housing Real Price Equation

The house price equation is estimated as below:

 $\label{eq:linear_line$

For Completions the expectation is that they will have a positive impact upon real prices as they are qualitatively superior to existing stock, even though they also increase supply of units. The market vacancies equation results (Table 8) and their interpretation also suggest that this impact on price will be positive, as they force other units off the market. It is expected that both market vacancies and real interest rates will have a negative impact upon real prices. Given the greater demand pressures on Taipei City's housing market all the other city/county dummy variables coefficients should be negative, apart possibly from Taipei County.



Table 9 Real Housing Price Equation

Jointly Dependent Variable:: Ln(Real housing price)

	Unstandardized		Beta	t	Sig.
	В	Std. error			
(Constant)	1.489	.228		6.543***	.000
Ln(market vacancy)	.227	.115	.131	1.982*	.048
Ln(completion)	.195	.028	.665	6.898***	.000
Ln(real interest)	030	.009	143	-3.422 ***	.001
Kaohsiung city	765	.067	480	-11.418 ***	.000
Taichung city	824	.067	517	-12.288 ***	.000
Taipei county	787	.070	494	-11.302 ***	.000
Chilung city	365	.086	229	-4.261 ***	.000
Hsinchu city	341	.078	214	-4.379***	.000
Chia I city	255	.087	160	-2.914**	.004
Tainan city	544	.070	342	-7.777***	.000
Pingtung county	851	.076	534	-11.261 ***	.000
I Lan county	426	.084	267	-5.041 ***	.000
Taoyuan county	884	.067	555	-13.194***	.000
Hsinchu county	463	.078	291	-5.920***	.000
Miaoli county	778	.081	489	-9.655***	.000
Taichung county	713	.067	448	-10.573 ***	.000
Chunhua county	534	.072	341	-7.370***	.000
Nantou county	450	.085	283	-5.287***	.000
Yunlin county	723	.078	454	-9.239***	.000
Chia I county	439	.090	275	-4.895***	.000
Tainan county	612	.071	384	-8.615 ***	.000
Kaohsiung county	605	.071	380	-8.509***	.000
Taitung county	356	.101	224	-3.516***	.000
Hualian county	716	.087	449	-8.264***	.000
Penhu county	208	.117	131	-1.776	.076

***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

N=666

The estimated coefficients on the city/county dummy variables are all negative in relation to Taipei City (Table 9), as expected, and the expectation that market real interest rates have a negative impact upon real prices is confirmed. However, market vacancies appear to have a positive effect on real prices. This result runs counter to expectations and just statistically significant at better than the standard 5% level. No firm explanation can be offered for this result, although it may be due to price rises occurring in the latter half of the study period, while total vacancies have also been strongly rising. The most important result is that completions have a highly



statistically significant positive impact on prices. This is as expected based upon the quality of construction and safety argument, and is also consistent with a greater adaptation of new construction to current family size. What is important for the model as a whole is that it is entirely consistent with the result that shows completions having zero impact upon the levels of market vacancies. This suggests the model as a whole is working.

4.3 Estimated Residential Approvals Equation

The residential approvals equation is estimated as below:

 $\label{eq:linear} Ln(Residential\ approvals) it = d0 + \sum i = 1n-1 \\ di \\ 1Di + d2 \\ Ln(Real\ interest) + d3 \\ Ln(Real\ GDP\ growth) + d4 \\ Ln(Real\ housing\ price) it + eit$

Approvals of unit development applications represent developers' beliefs they can profit from housing construction. So it expected that the real housing price is positively related to approvals. Real growth in the economy should also support this belief into the future, whereas the real interest rate should have a negative impact, by the standard argument of creating finance costs for both developer and potential owners requiring mortgages.



Table 10 Residential Approvals Equation Jointly Dependent Variable: Ln(Approvals)

	Unstandardized		Beta	t	Sig.
	В	Std. error			
(Constant)	2.213	.525		4.217***	.000
Ln (Real price)	1.704	.170	.508	10.044 ***	.000
Ln(Real growth)	3.838	.908	.104	4.225***	.000
Ln(Real interest)	.099	.017	.138	5.762 ***	.000
Kaohsiung city	1.525	.215	.282	7.084***	.000
Taichung city	1.267	.220	.234	5.751 ***	.000
Taipei county	1.527	.205	.282	7.459***	.000
Chilung city	477	.209	088	-2.279*	.023
Hsinchu city	318	.201	059	-1.584	.114
Chia I city	-1.046	.200	193	-5.227 ***	.000
Tainan city	.308	.204	.057	1.508	.132
Pingtung county	.833	.248	.154	3.360 ***	.001
I Lan county	294	.214	054	-1.377	.169
Taoyuan county	1.707	.226	.315	7.537***	.000
Hsinchu county	.109	.213	.020	.515	.607
Miaoli county	.574	.248	.106	2.315*	.021
Taichung county	1.256	.214	.232	5.862 ***	.000
Chunhua county	.377	.208	.070	1.814	.070
Nantou county	335	.217	062	-1.545	.123
Yunlin county	.449	.237	.083	1.895	.059
Chia I county	177	.221	033	800	.424
Tainan county	.860	.212	.159	4.058***	.000
Kaohsiung county	.747	.213	.138	3.508***	.000
Taitung county	917	.223	169	-4.116***	.000
Hualian county	.093	.248	.017	.376	.707
Penhu county	-1.810	.223	334	-8.117***	.000

^{***,} P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

N=666

The empirical results in Table 10 indicate that prices are a substantive inducement for approvals and the estimated coefficient is highly significant. Similarly economic conditions (Real GDP growth rate) also lead to higher approvals. However, higher real interest rates are associated with higher approvals and the relationship is statistically significantly. No valid behavioural reason can be suggested for this. As suggested previously, real interest rates have been very low especially in those years after 2006. Very low real interest rates need not influence developers' decisions or purchasing decisions to any great degree. Nevertheless this remains an unexplained anomaly throughout the results. The pattern of the signs on the city/county dummy variable coefficients is difficult to explain and at this stage is beyond the scope of the model.



4.4 Estimated Residential Completions Equation

The residential completions equation is as below:

 $Ln(Residential\ completions)it = e0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1}ei1Di + e2Ln(Approval(t-1))it + e3Ln(Approval(t-2))it + eit$

We expect completions to be almost entirely explained by prior levels of approvals. Lags are attached to approvals to account for the time taken for construction.

Table 11 Residential Completions Equation

Jointly Dependent Variable: Ln(Completions)

	Unstandardized		Beta	t	Sig.
	В	Std. error			
(Constant)	.967	.393		2.461 *	.014
Ln(approval t-1)	.724	.131	.722	5.521 ***	.000
Ln(approval t-2)	.175	.125	.175	1.396	.163
Kaohsiung city	275	.111	051	-2.488*	.013
Taichung city	.083	.110	.015	.757	.449
Taipei county	.305	.113	.056	2.705 **	.007
Chilung city	437	.139	081	-3.151**	.002
Hsinchu city	197	.130	036	-1.516	.130
Chia I city	096	.153	018	623	.533
Tainan city	023	.116	004	197	.844
Pingtung county	405	.119	075	-3.400***	.001
I Lan county	412	.136	076	-3.020**	.003
Taoyuan county	168	.111	031	-1.512	.131
Hsinchu county	351	.125	065	-2.802**	.005
Miaoli county	480	.126	089	-3.820 ***	.000
Taichung county	252	.109	047	-2.308*	.021
Chunhua county	299	.116	055	-2.576*	.010
Nantou county	402	.138	074	-2.916**	.004
Yunlin county	348	.124	064	-2.793**	.005
Chia I county	670	.136	124	-4.925***	.000
Tainan county	490	.111	090	-4.428***	.000
Kaohsiung county	378	.112	070	-3.370 ***	.001
Taitung county	582	.164	107	-3.539***	.000
Hualian county	407	.140	075	-2.905**	.004
Penhu county	481	.202	089	-2.379*	.018

***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05

N=620



construction period of between one and two years from the grant of an approval. A two period lag was investigated, the results indicating that very few residential completions take two to three years to finish. The city/county dummy variables suggest that most cities and counties convert approvals into completions at a lower rate than Taipei City - as might be expected from the consistently greater pressures in Taipei City, although the levels of statistical significance suggest this effect is not a strong one.

6. Conclusions

The model is predicated upon specific features of the Taiwan's historical development since the Second World War, as well as the specific features of the Taiwanese housing market itself. Consequently any conclusions have to be tempered by a recognition of these special features of Taiwan operating in combination. Among the most critical is the absence of a rental market. This means that the homeownership market and the residential construction market are modelled together, implying longer term relationships than for rental market analysis. Also critical is a recognition of Taiwan's earthquake regulation combined with the constitutional/legal difficulties in demolishing and redeveloping pre-existing blocks with multiple owner-occupiers. While these features do not directly appear in the model they create the conditions for modelling.

The model then indicates that while completions may create an increase in market-active vacancies, a more important impact is to create market-inactive (structural) vacancies that are then no longer part of market supply. This is because there are demonstrable qualitative differences between new completions and older housing, especially with respect to earthquake resistance and building structures/materials. This allows the most recent completions to gain a ready market in what would otherwise appear to be a saturated market. A major element in the model is the absence of an excess demand variable (as in the rental market literature) that relies upon vacancies as its measure. Instead, in Taiwan, the distinction drawn between market-active vacancies versus structural vacancies, i.e. not market-active is justified by the success of the estimated model as well as the prior reasoning upon which the model is based.

The present findings might be suggestive of a counter-argument against the reasoning that indicates long-term high vacancy rates can be due to direct government intervention in housing market. In Taiwan the factors are more complex and less direct, and do not include an intention to overturn the operations of a private market. These factors include previously unsuspected interactions between a constitutional barrier to compulsory purchase to demolish to redevelop and the obsolescence of habitable housing stock created by increasingly tight earthquake resilience regulations.

What this model does not show is how the problem of high vacancies will be resolved. In fact the modelling indicates that the very high vacancy rates will continue until the nexus of the underlying factors is broken. There is no evidence in the modelling that market forces alone will be sufficient in any reasonable period of time.



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The effect of perceive quality and price on consumers purchase intention in Cosmetics

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to investigate the Cambodia consumer perception and country of origin, brand preference, perceived product quality, and purchase intention of fast food products from four counties: Cambodia, Thailand, Korean, and Malaysia and compare their brand names: Lucky7, Pizza Company, Pizza World and KFC (franchises from Malaysia). This study also examines the phenomenon of consumers of local and non-local brand preference that are influenced from their country of origin and the differences between the two. The result shows that country of origin has a strong influence on nonlocal brand preference, but less influence on local brand preference. However, Thailand brand (Pizza Company) has a significant difference compared to a Cambodian brand. Additionally, this study found that consumers' purchases were influenced by country of origin information. Consumers assume perceived product quality by perceived country of origin and perceptions of price.

Keywords: Country of Origin, Brand Preference, Perceive Product Quality, Perception of Price,

Purchasing Intention.



1.1 Introduction

Cosmetics has been a necessity needed since people believe that aesthetic or physical beauty is an important value of life. In the past time, Italian women used boiled chestnuts and potatoes, elderberry flowers, and rice infusions to whiten the skin. Neanderthal man painted his face with clay, mud, and arsenic, ancient people used bones to curl the hair, ancient Greek physicians invented cold cream, and The Romans used oil-based perfume on their bodies (Kumar, 2005). For centuries, the esthetic ideal was based on artist and anatomist drawings, where as most of the measurements of an ideal facial structure have been based on the Caucasian face as a standard of beauty (Talakoub & Wesley, 2009). Until recently, women tended to use diverse ingredients for the whitening of their skin, because dark color skin was considered synonymous with poverty and self-stigmatized (Pieroni et al., 2004). In Asia, most people still believe that having a white smooth skin is beautiful, that is why whitening products have been popular in Asia until now. However, nowadays the standard of beauty is not referred to as a Caucasian look anymore. People's minds have been opened to see a different kind of beauty throughout races and skin tones.

The greatest growing market of male cosmetics is also supported by the increasing income and lifestyle of people. The function of cosmetics has been developing through time, where cosmetics is not only needed to upgrade the physical appearance but also to show the identity of someone. Male cosmetics are not only used for upgrading their appearance, but also to boost their confidence. A good physical appearance is a signal of success and wealth and taking care of physical appearance is showing a status of manhood. A well groomed body, hair, and skin are believed to represent a professional image. Thus, the physical appearance became an important matter in things such as work and community occasions. Moreover, there is an implicit value in using cosmetics which are related by status consumption motives. Chao (1998) has conducted a study about the relative consumption of cosmetics (with a study case of female cosmetics). The status-consumption is related to the social visibility of a product. This did not just happen to female consumers, but also to the male consumers. For example, a man with an expensive after shave has more pride, or men with glowing skin look of a higher class.

1.2 Research objective and research questions

The purpose of this study is to identify the consumer perceived value of male CFT products to enhance our understanding of gender issues in the CFT market. The construct of consumer perceived value (CPV) refers to judgments or assessments of the overall value a consumer gains when considering what is received versus what has been given up in the marketplace exchange. This study explored why male consumers use CFT products (rather than use unisex products) and specifically focused on what dimensions of perceived value mostly influenced the consumers' overall perception of value for male cosmetics. To accomplish those missions, the objective of this research is to



construct a model of consumer perceived value on male CFT products.

By addressing the perceived value of male CFT products, we would understand the purchase intention of male consumers of CFT products. This leads to the following basic question:

- 1. Why do men in Indonesia and Taiwan use male CFT products?
- 2. What is the most important dimension of perceived value in constructing the overall value of male CFT products in Indonesia and Taiwan?
- 3. Is there any difference between Indonesian and Taiwanese consumers in perceived value of male CFT products?

2. Literature review

2.1 The nature of value

According to Woo and Fitzharris (1992), value is not only of true worth to people in the broad context of the well-being and survival of individuals, but also means what is seen collectively important by society, and what an individual holds to be worthwhile to possess, to strive for, or exchange.

2. 2 Understanding consumer perceived value

Perceived value and satisfaction are distinct concepts, value perception can be generated without the product or service being bought or used, while satisfaction depends on experience of using a product or service (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). In the purchasing decision process, perceived value occurs at various stages, but satisfaction refers to post-purchase evaluation. Williams, Woodall, and Birch (2003) defined value for consumers as any demand-side, personal perception of advantage arising out of a customer's association with an organization's offering, and can occur as reduction in sacrifice; presence of benefit (perceived as either attributes or outcomes); the result of any weighed combination of sacrifice and benefit (determined and expressed either rationally or intuitively).

2.3 Identifying consumer percieved value dimensions

Studies about consumer perceived value has tried to identify the multi-dimensional nature of perceived value. Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991)identified the value of dimensions more specifically by distinguishing the five dimensions of value, those are functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value. This value dimension is attributed-related and associated with the functional benefit (quality) of the product. Functional benefit of the product is directly related to the intrinsic cues of the product. The differences in product features can be defined as a functional benefit. This can be the competitive advantage of the product, where some products



offer safety, some offer simplicity, or some offer advance technology. Leunissen, Prevo, and Roest (1996) classified that functional benefits include framework of time (e.g. availability, responsiveness, waiting time, process time, and repeatability); fault freeness (e.g. correctness of information, control procedures, and physical items specified); flexibility that captures benefit (e.g. the personnel's attitude, service ambiance); steering (e.g. clarity, service consistency); safety (e.g. attributes as honesty of information, security, and confidentiality).

2.4 Purchase behavior: intention to buy and decision to buy

The purchase intention and the actual act of buying are a distinct concepts (Ferrell & Hartline, 2008). The consumers may have intention to purchase the product, but several factors may occur to prevent the purchase decision. For example, a customer may have every intention to purchase a product, but at the same time he/she may postpone the purchase due to unforeseen circumstances. Purchase intention is not only formed under the assumption of a pending transaction and considered an important indicator of actual purchase (Chang & Wildt, 1994), but also positively related to brand trust and even more strongly to brand affect (Luo, Lehmann, & Neslin, 2015). Referring to the definition by Courtesy of the Department of Marketing, Faculty of Business and Economics, Monash University, purchase intention is defined as the likelihood that a consumer will buy a particular product resulting from the interaction of his or her need for it, attitude towards it and perceptions of it and of the company which produces it. Whereas the purchase decision emerges from the evaluation of alternatives, it is a financial commitment to make the acquisition (Ferrell & Hartline, 2008).

Figure 1: Purchase Decision Process



According to Stafford and Day (2015), consumer's decision making is related to consumer's involvement. How complex the consumer is in making the decision to purchase is defined as consumer involvement. Consumer involvement can be distinguished into low or high involvement (Rahman & Reynolds, 2015).

3. Research Model

This model explains the variables of this study. There are two kinds of models that would be constructed. The first model explains the interrelationship between seven identified value dimensions (as the independent variables) with overall value (as the dependent variable). This model would be



constructed for each response, both Indonesians and Taiwanese, which i=1 for Indonesians and i=2 for Taiwanese. By using the linear regression analysis, the first model would be

$$OV_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 QV_{ij} + \beta_2 EMV_{ij} + \beta_3 EPV_{ij} + \beta_4 SV_{ij} + \beta_5 MC_{ij} + \beta_6 BC_{ij}$$

Where:

 $OV_{ii} = Overall value;$

 $QV_{ij} = Quality value;$

 EMV_{ij} = Emotional value;

 EPV_{ii} = Epistemic value;

 $SV_{ii} = Social value;$

 $MC_{ij} = Monetary cost;$

 BC_{ij} = Behavioral cost;

 $\beta_0 = \text{Constant};$

 β_1 = Parameter of quality value;

 β_2 = Parameter of emotional value;

 β_3 = Parameter of epistemic value;

 β_4 = Parameter of social value;

 β_5 = Parameter of monetary cost;

 β_6 = Parameter of behavioral cost.

Moreover, to see the interrelationship between overall value and purchase intention, the simple linear regression would be conducted for all total 200 responses. This model would be

$$PI_{j} = \delta_{\rm 0} + \delta_{\rm 1}OV_{j}$$

Where:

 PI_i = Purchase intention;



 $\delta_0 = \text{Constant}$

 δ_1 = Parameter of overall value.

The conceptual frameworks of this study as follows:

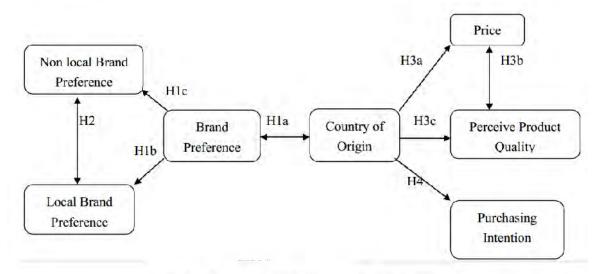


Figure 1: The conceptual framework of this study

3.1 Hypotheses

To answer research questions, six hypotheses are proposed:

- H1: Quality value of male CFT products is positively associated with overall value
- H2: Emotional value of male CFT products is positively associated with overall value
- H3: Epistemic value of male CFT products is positively associated with overall value
- H4: Social value of male CFT products is positively associated with overall value
- H5: Monetary value of male CFT products is negatively associated with overall value
- H6: Behavioral value of male CFT products is negatively associated with overall value



3.2 Overall value and purchase intention

Previous studies about the relationship between perceived value and purchase intention proved there is a positive relationship between perceived value and purchase intention. Chang & Wildt (1994) conducting an empirical study to examine the price, non-price product information, and purchase intention. The result showed that a trade-off between perceived quality and perceived price leads to perceived value. Moreover, it showed perceived value as a primary factor of purchase intention. The assumption is the value of perceptions drives the behavior, therefore the more value consumers expect to receive from a particular channel, the more likely it is chosen (Broekhuizen, 2006).

Kuo, Wu, and Deng (2009) conducted a study to construct an instrument to evaluate service quality of mobile value-added service by doing analysis about service quality, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and post-purchase intention. Using a structural equation model and multiple regression, findings of the study showed that perceived value positively influences post-purchase intention. Therefore, a hypothesis is constructed to revisit the influence of perceived value to consumer purchase intention.

H7: Overall value of male CFT products is positively associated with consumer purchase intention

4 Research Methodology

4.1 Research design and data collecting

The purpose of this study is investigating the identified value dimensions of consumer perceived value of male CFT products which include:

- Skin care (for example: cream, face cream, body lotion, sunblock)
- Hair care (for example: shampoo, hair conditioner, hair gel, hair spray)
- Make-up (for example: face make-up, nail make-up, eye make-up)
- Fragrance (for example: perfume, cologne, body spray)
- Personal Hygiene (for example: bathing stuff, shaving products)

Since several factors can affect the consumer behavior in perceiving the value, it is necessary first of all we understand the consumer characteristic. In fact, some consumers have some characteristics in common. Thus, here the market segmentation process takes a role. Market segmentation is dividing a market into distinct groups with distinct needs, characteristics, or behaviors who might require separate products or marketing mixes (Kotler & Armstrong, 2009). In segmenting the market, we divide the total market of a particular product or product category into relatively homogeneous segment or groups (Ferrell & Hartline, 2008). The questionnaire was



conducted as it provides accurate information about responses, moreover it is quick, efficient to reach the targeted sample, and low cost.

4.2 Findings

The objective of this study is to identify the consumer perceived value of male CFT products by modeling the consumer perceived value on male CFT products for Indonesian and Taiwanese consumers. A survey was conducted by distributing questionnaire forms through online and papers. There were 200 responses who participated in this survey, this included 100 Indonesian men and 100 Taiwanese men. The research findings showed both the Indonesian and Taiwanese responses tended to have a high level of perceived value on male CFT products, which means the responses tended to have high perceived benefit and low perceived cost. There were 91% of Indonesian responses used male CFT products, which 89% of Indonesian responses stated that it is important for men to use male CFT products. While 81% of Taiwanese responses used male CFT products and stated that it is important for men to use CFT products. However, most of Indonesian and Taiwanese responses were low spenders on consuming male CFT products.

5. Conclusion and recommendation for future research

The findings of this study provided some information about consumer behavior on male CFT products and answered the basic research questions of this study. Both Indonesian and Taiwanese responses mostly used and thought that it is important for men to use male CFT products, which means men are more concerned about the importance of using CFT products and realized the facts about the different needs between men and woman in CFT products. The responses also tended to have a higher perceived value of CFT products. Through emotional value CFT products deliver psychological benefits, through epistemic value CFT products fulfill the curiosity of men to experiment with their appearance, and through socializing CFT products bring the feeling of social acceptance for men. Overall, the overall value that consumers perceived indicated men believe that male CFT products provided a certain benefit that they otherwise would not receive and certain advantages that cannot be fulfilled by other products. Those findings imply the importance of a male brand line in the CFT industry today, because nowadays men realize their need of aesthetics and are more concerned about the advantage of using grooming products dedicated to men.

The number of samples is too limited for broad generalizations. This limitation is regarding to the first limitation and time limitation for the survey coverage. Therefore, for a better understanding of the consumer perceived value on male CFT products, further empirical evaluations, are needed to replicate the findings in different contexts and surroundings. Besides the development regarding to this studies limitation, a better understanding of the various factors may be taken into account in utilization of male CFT products, such as demographic and psychographic, are recommended for future research.



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Contagion Effects of 2011 Japan Earthquake - The Case of REITs Markets

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ABSTRACT

Powerful earthquake may cause serious damage upon international financial markets. On March 11, 2011, a 9.0 magnitude undersea mega thrust earthquake hit Tohoku in Japan. In accordance with the Bloomberg data revealed that the disaster decreased the Nikkei 225 index by 17.3% and the J-REIT Index by 26.2% in 2011. Did the contagion effects of natural disasters exist on the REITs markets of other country (or region)? The purpose of this study uses the heteroscedasticity biases on unconditional correlation coefficients by Forbes and Rigobon(2002) and T-GARCH model to examine the contagion effects of the March 11, 2011 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis on the global REITs markets. This study findings reveal that no individual country REITs market suffered from the contagion effect. Our results have paramount implications of demonstrate that the international REITs market transmission not occur contagion effects, even on the emerging markets or neighboring countries, during the great earthquake, tsunami, and subsequent nuclear crisis event.

Keywords: Japanese Earthquake, Contagion Effects, REITs, Correlation Coefficients, T-GARCH Model



1. Introduction

Natural disasters have inflicted serious damage on human life, property, and economy(Asongu, 2012). Powerful earthquakes may also incur heavy damage to the financial markets of the affected countries (regions), and through the contagion effect may even spillover to impact other countries (regions)(Lee, et al., 2007). On March 11, 2011, a 9.0 magnitude undersea mega thrust earthquake hit Tohoku in Japan. The 9.0 magnitude earthquake (Richter) with a hypocenter approximately 130 kilometers off the Sanriku coast and Ojika Peninsula was the largest earthquake ever recorded in Japan. The Great East Japan Earthquake and subsequent tsunami caused overwhelming damage to the region's coastal areas and the Fukushima nuclear power plants. Economic outlook reports released by various organizations collectively indicate that one of the largest impacts of the earthquake was a loss of infrastructure, the government of Japan estimated losses totaling JPY16 to 25 trillion. On the other hand, the NLI Research Institute estimated that the disaster will decrease Japan's GDP growth by 1.6 points to 0.1% in 2011(Hironori and Andrew, 2011).

Additionally, the powerful earthquake also caused heavy damage to financial market, particularly in stock market and REITs market. In accordance with the Bloomberg data revealed that the disaster decreased the Nikkei 225 index by 17.3% and the J-REIT Index by 26.2% in 2011. Furthermore, Hang Seng Index was reduced by 21.3% and Hang Seng REIT Index was decreased by 13.3%. In addition, Straits Times Index was reduced by 18.2% and Hang Seng REIT Index was decreased by 16.5%.

According to the previous findings, during international financial crises, financial markets are characterized by large drops in asset prices, increases in market volatility, and hence co-movements in asset price across markets(Lee, et al., 2007). Nevertheless, prior research shows that the contagion effect was not sure occurred across financial markets after natural disaster (earthquake) occurs (Lee et al., 2007; Lee and Wu, 2009; Asongu, 2012; Asongu, 2013). However, there are few arguments regarding how contagion effects in international REITs markets associated with natural disaster in current literature, in particular, the powerful earthquake events. The purpose of this study, therefore, utilizing the heteroscedasticity biases on unconditional correlation coefficients by Forbes and Rigobon(2002) and T-GARCH model to examine the contagion effects of the March 11, 2011 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis on the global REITs markets. In other words, we seek to offer evidence as to whether such a disasters has increased the interdependence among REITs markets in different countries(or region).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the contagion definitions and the related literatures on contagion effects, describes the data and methodology in section 3, we provide empirical analysis in section 4. Finally, section 5 summarizes the findings and presents conclusions.



2. Contagion definitions and the related literature

2.1 Definitions of contagion

Not all economists established consensus on the definition of contagion. Forbes and Rigobon (2002) contagion is defined as a significant increase in market co-movement after a shock to one country. According to the World Bank, however, the contagion could be classified three definitions. Firstly, from a board definition, contagion could be identified with the general process of shock transmission across countries. This definition takes account of both positive and negative spillovers. Secondly, from a restrictive definition, the phenomenon could be conceived as the propagation of shocks between two countries in excess of what should be expected, with respect to existing fundamentals after considering co-movements triggered by common shock. This second definition is restricted only to shocks and presupposes the mastery of what constitutes the underlying fundamentals. Otherwise, it is impossible to effectively appraise whether excess co-movement have occurred and whether contagion is display. Thirdly, from a very restrictive definition, the phenomenon as the change in transmission mechanisms that take place during a period of crisis, and it can be inferred basing on a significant increase in the cross-market correlation.

Referring Lee and Wu(2009) for making the result of this study more circumspect, we will focus on the first and third definition of contagion, to examine the level of co-movement and the degree of volatility spillover after March 11, 2011 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis on the global REITs markets. Meanwhile, we define contagion both as significant increase in REITs market co-movement after a shock occurred in one country and the spillover effect to other REITs markets more significantly when natural disaster occurs. Therefore, the paper uses two measure methods to examine contagion effect after powerful earthquake by referring to related studies (e,g., Engle and Ng, 1993; Fomari and Mele, 1997; Forbes and Rigobon, 2002; Hon et al., 2004; Lee, 2004; Caporale et al., 2005; Corsetti et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2007; Hon et al., 2007; Saleem, 2008; Arouria et al., 2009; Lee and Wu, 2009; Lee, 2012; Asongu, 2012; Asongu, 2013). First, utilizing heteroscedasticity biases on unconditional correlation coefficients to test cross-market co-movement. Second, using T-GARCH model to examine the spillover effects.

2.2 Related literature

Schmukler (2004) pointed out there are three main channels of contagion have been identified in the literature.(1) Through real links which are often tied to trade links. (2) Via financial channels especially when two economies are connected through the international financial system. (3) Lastly, as a result of herding behavior or panic resulting from asymmetric information, a financial market might transmit shocks across other markets.

As regards method of measuring contagion, current studies offer many methods to measure the propagation of international shocks across countries. Forbes and Rigobon (2002)indicated four



different methodologies have been utilized to measure how shocks are transmitted internationally: cross market correlation coefficients (King and Wadhwani, 1990; Forbes and Rigobon, 2002; Collins and Biekpe, 2003; Lee et al., 2007; Lee and Wu, 2009; Asongu, 2012; Asongu, 2013); ARCH and GARCH models (Hamao et al., 1990; King et al., 1994; Bekaert et al., 2005; Brailsford et al., 2006; Lee and Wu, 2009; Saleem, 2009); cointegration techniques (Longin and Solnik, 1995; Kanas, 1998; Yang and Bessler, 2008); and direct estimation of specific transmission mechanisms (Forbes, 2000; Ang and Bekaert, 2001). To consistent with the board definition and the restrictive definition of contagion, the paper shall adopt Forbes and Rigobon (2002) and GJR-GARCH model for the examination of strong earthquake.

Forbes and Rigobon (2002) use heteroscedasticity bias tests for contagion basing on correlation coefficients, and their empirical findings indicated little evidence of contagion between stock markets after the US stock market crash of 1987, Mexican peso devaluation of 1994, and the Asian crisis of 1997, which they call interdependence. Lee et al. (2007) also used Forbes and Rigobon (2002) method to examine 26 international stock indexes and exchange rates whether any contagion effect occurred after the strong earthquake in South-East Asia of 2004, this study shows that no individual country stock market suffered from the contagion effect, but that the foreign exchange markets of some countries (namely India, Philippines and Hong Kong) did suffer from the contagion effect. Lee and Wu (2009) also used the heteroscedasticity biases based on correlation coefficients and EGARCH model to examine the contagion effects of natural disasters on the financial markets of neighborhood countries. The study finds that contagion effect is more significant in the stock market of the Asian Pacific neighboring countries after the Osaka-Kobe, Japan earthquake on 1995. The result implies that country with stronger economic capacity might cause the spillover effect to other international markets (particularly emerging markets) more significantly when natural disaster (earthquake) occurs.

In addition, Asongu(2012) also used this approach to examine 33 international stock indexes and exchange rates whether any contagion effect occurred after the March 11, 2011 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis, and results reveal that while no sampled foreign exchange market suffered from contagion, stock markets of Taiwan, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia and South Africa witnessed a contagion effect.

With respect to REITs markets, Chiou et al.(2014) also employed unconditional correlation coefficients suggested by Forbes and Rigobon (2002) and GJR-GARCH models to test contagion and found that during the global financial tsunami in 2007 most prominent contagion was found for such small REITs markets as Taiwan and Hong Kong. This implies those countries with smaller market and fewer issuances are more vulnerable to international financial distresses.

3. Data and Research Design

The daily data used in this study are retrieved from the Datastream and consist of the REITs



index for Canada, United States, Germany, United Kingdom, French, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Australia and New Zealand. The sample period extends from March 11, 2010 to September 10, 2011. Since Japan Earthquake Tsunami on March 11, 2011 caused house prices volatility, the whole period is accordingly partitioned into fourth nearly sub-periods: the pre-12 month, post-1 month, post-3 month and post-6 month period to observe co-movement, asymmetric volatility and contagion effect of REITs. The pre-12 month period covers from March 11, 2010 to March 10, 2011, the post-1 month period starts from March 11, 2011 to April 8, 2011 and the post-3 month period starts from June 10, 2011 to April 8, 2011, with the post-6 month period begins from March 11, 2011 and ends on September 10, 2011. Returns are calculated by taking the logarithmic difference between daily closing indices.

Table 1 present GDP, REITs market capitalization and the total amount of exports. As Table 1 shows that Japan is number two in the all sample countries rank of GDP. As regards of REITs capitalization, Japan is number six in the all sample countries rank from Table 1. The evidence indicates that Japan has the great influence to the world economy.

This study uses correlation coefficient to test the co-movement between Japan and other sample market REITs, and then apply T-TGARCH model to detect volatility spillover for the pre-311 and post-311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. First, the adjusted correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases introduced by Forbes and Rigobon(2002) is employed to examine co-movement effect. The formula is as followed.

Table 1 2011 GDP and REITs market capitalization

Region	Country	G	DP		REITs Capita	alization	2011 Ja The Total A	panese S mount o	
		Million US Dollars	Sample Rank	World Rank	Billion US dollars	Sample Rank	Million US dollars	Sample Rank	Percentage Of Exports
North America	US	15,094,000	1	1	343.9	1	126,079	1	15.3
	Canada	1,736,051	6	11	27.3	5	Na	-	Na
Europe	Germany	3,570,556	3	4	0.9	10	23,517	5	2.9
	U.K.	2,431,589	5	6	36.8	4	16,436	7	2.0
	France	2,773,072	4	5	48.6	3	Na	-	Na
Asia	Japan	5,867,154	2	2	26.0	6	Na	-	Na
	Taiwan	466,881	8	22	2	.4 9	50,863	2	6.2
	Hong Kong	243,666	9	38	9.8	8	42,982	3	5.2
	Singapore	239,700	10	43	17.0	7	27,276	4	3.3
Oceania	Australia	1,371,746	7	14	70.4	2	17,905	6	2.2

Source: 1.The GDP data from World Bank on 2012. 2. The exports data from Country Report. 3.The REITs data from Datastream.



The traditional correlation coefficient is Equation (1).

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \tag{1}$$

According to the adjusted correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases innovated by Forbes and Rigobon(2002) is Equation(2).

$$\rho *= \frac{\rho}{\sqrt{1 + \delta[1 - (\rho)^2]}} , \ \delta = \frac{\sigma_{xx}^h}{\sigma_{xx}^l} - 1$$
 (2)

where ρ and ρ^* are conditional correlation coefficient and adjusted unconditional correlation

coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases, respectively. σ_{xx}^h is x REITs return variance in high volatility period and σ_{xx}^h is x REITs return variance in low volatility period. Forbes and Rigobon(2002) indicated that the conditional correlation coefficient increases in higher volatility period, but the adjusted unconditional correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases in consistent in lower or higher volatility period.

First, this study computes correlation coefficient $\rho_S(\rho_t)$ between Japan and sample market REITs in normal (311 Japan earthquake tsunami) period. After ρ_S and ρ_t is calculated, we transform them ρ_t^* and ρ_s^* via Equation (2). If ρ_t^* is larger than ρ_s^* , this result shows that the co-movement is more evident after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. Furthermore, this study test adjusted correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases via Fisher Z coefficient.

To calculate the adjusted correlation coefficient, the turmoil period often used as the high volatility period and the stable period often used as the low volatility period. Borrowing from Lee et al(2007), the following hypothesis is then tested

 $H0: \rho t \leq \rho s$

 $H1: \rho t \ge \rho s$

Where, pt is the adjusted correlation coefficient during the turmoil period, and ps is the adjusted correlation coefficient during the stable period. We compare the difference in correlations between stable and crisis periods is then carried-out. Contagion is then measured by the significance of adjusted correlation coefficients in the crisis period versus those of the stability period. If REITs market contagion exists, co-movement during the crisis period would be more obvious than that of the stable period. Where H0 is the null hypothesis of no contagion and H1 is the alternative hypothesis for the existence of contagion.

We utilize Fisher's Z transformations of correlation coefficient to test for pair-wise cross country significance. Fisher's Z transformations convert standard coefficients to normally distributed Z variables. Before hypothesis testing, therefore, the ρ value must be transformed to a Zr value. The



following hypothesis testing demonstrates:

$$H_0: \rho_t \leq \rho_s \Rightarrow H_0: Z_{rt} \leq Z_{rs}$$

$$H_1: \rho_t > \rho_s \Rightarrow H_1: Z_{rt} > Z_{rs}$$

where

$$Z_{rt} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 + \rho_t}{1 - \rho_t} \right)$$

$$Z_{rs} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 + \rho_s}{1 - \rho_s} \right)$$

$$Z = \frac{Z_{r_t} - Z_{r_s}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_t - 3} + \frac{1}{n_s - 3}}}$$

where, nt (ns) are number of actual observe days during the turmoil (stable) period. The critical values for the Fisher's Z-test at the 1, 5 and 10% levels are 1.28, 1.65 and 1.96, respectively, so any test statistic greater than those critical values indicates contagion (C), while any test statistic less than or equal to those critical values indicates no contagion (N).

The GARCH model developed by Bollerslev (1986) is used to observe the change of conditional variance. Nevertheless, the ordinary GARCH model does not distinguish the differential impact on volatility between good news and bad news. We thus use Threshold GARCH (T-GARCH) model which allows for the asymmetric news impact (Glosten et al., 1993). The T-GARCH model is, therefore, given by:

$$R_{t} = \mu + \phi R_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t} \tag{3}$$

$$h_{t} = \omega_{0} + \alpha_{1} \varepsilon_{t-1}^{2} + \beta_{1} h_{t-1} + \gamma \varepsilon_{t-1}^{2} d_{t-1}$$
(4)

where Rt and Rt-1 are the REITs returns in time t and time t-1, respectively, ε_i denotes a new shock in time t, and $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sqrt{h_i})$, d_{i-1} stands for the dummy variable with a value of unity if $\varepsilon_{i-1} < 0$ and zero otherwise.

Equation (3) describes the first order autoregressive process for the stock return with ϕR_{r-1} capturing autocorrelation. Equation (4) shows that the conditional variance responds asymmetrically to negative and positive shocks in the stock price. Specifically, $\gamma > 0$ indicates increased volatility associated with negative shocks and there exist leverage effects in the conditional variance.



4. Empirical Results

First of all, this study applies correlation coefficient to test the co-movement between Japan and other sample market REITs for the pre-311 and post-311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. The result of adjusted correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases show in Table 2. Compared with pre-12, post-1, post-3 and post-6 month tsunami, the adjusted correlation coefficients are increasing except for Taiwan and Singapore. Moreover, the adjusted correlation coefficients are decreasing except for Germany, Hong Kong and New Zealand during post-6 month tsunami. After the test of Fisher Z coefficient shows that all adjusted correlation coefficients are insignificant after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis, implying that the co-movement does not exist. This study also compares the coefficient γ before and after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis, and shows the property of asymmetric volatility. If the coefficient γ becomes larger, indicating that a higher asymmetry after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis and vice versa. Furthermore, a higher asymmetric volatility after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis shows that REITs is affected by Japan and volatility spillover is existence. Table 3~5 show the result of T-GARCH model. The conditional variance shows that the GARCH terms are mostly statistically significant in all markets for pre-12 crisis period and similar to those findings in prior applications to financial data. The asymmetric volatility is captured by $\gamma > 0$ and the asymmetric response of volatility to return shocks holds in each market, i.e., negative return shocks tend to influence future volatility more than positive return shocks do. γ is significantly positive before the 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis for 5 out of 10 markets. Moreover, γ is insignificantly for most cases after 311 Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. All $\alpha + \beta$ is less than one in each market for the four sub-periods, exhibiting that T-GARCH model is appropriate.

Table 6 shows the t test of γ for the pre- and post- Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. Compared to pre-12 post-1 month Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis, γ is increasing except for Canada, Germany, Taiwan and New Zealand. γ is decreasing except for U.K., Frence, Hong Kong, Singapore and Australia after the post-3 month Japane earthquake tsunami. γ is increasing except for Taiwan and French after the post-6 month Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. In addition, γ is increasing significantly only for United States after the post-6 month Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis. However, the Z test of γ for the pre- and post- Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear crisis show that the asymmetric volatility is indifference between pre- and post- tsunami, showing that the volatility spillover effect does not exist.

Finally, Table 7 shows summary of co-movement, volatility spillover and contagion. If co-movement and volatility spillover simultaneously appear, this study defines contagion effect. The result finds that co-movement and volatility spillover are all insignificant. Therefore, the contagion effect does not exist after the 311 Japan earthquake, tsunami, and nuclear crisis.



5. Conclusions

Powerful earthquake may cause serious damage upon international financial markets. Did the contagion effects of natural disasters exist on the REITs markets of other country (or region)? The paper used the daily data covering the period from March 11, 2010 to September 10, 2011retrieved from Datastream, this study empirically tests whether any contagion effect has occurred six months after the 311 Japan earthquake, tsunami, and subsequent nuclear crisis in international REITs markets. The method utilized in this paper is the unadjusted and adjusted correlation coefficients and JGR-GARCH model.

Evidence indicates that no international REITs markets experienced significantly stronger correlations with the Japanese REITs market six months down the road. The paper result consistent with Lee et al.(2007) findings from the stock market after natural disasters crisis and identical to Asongu(2012) findings from the foreign exchange market after the 311 Japan earthquake, tsunami, and nuclear crisis.

Seeing with Lee et al. (2007) the effects of natural disasters on financial markets are important in investment decisions, as the benefits of portfolio diversification are severely limited during periods of high volatility and increased cross-market correlations. Our results have paramount implications of demonstrate that the international REITs market transmission not occur contagion effects, even on the emerging markets or neighboring countries, during the great earthquake, tsunami, and subsequent nuclear crisis event.



Table 2 Testing co-movement with adjusted correlation coefficients with heteroscedasticity biases

		2			20				,						
		Pre-12 month	month		Post-1	Post-1 month			Post-	Post-3 month			Post-	Post-6 month	
Area	Country	* o	ט	ρ_t^*	ь	Z-test (Z-test Correlation ρ_t^*	$ ho_t^*$	ь	Z-test C	Z-test Correlation	$ ho_t^*$	ь	Z-test (Z-test Correlation
North America Canada	ca Canada	0.1673	0.1673 0.0078 0.2013 0.0053 0.1444	2013 0	.0053	0.1444	+	0.2036 0.0052 0.2671).0052	0.2671	+	0.1494 0.0098 -0.1705	- 8600:	-0.1705	
	United States	0.0578	0.0578 0.0160 0.0811 0.0081	.0811 0		0.0963	+	0.0756 0.0093		0.1277	+	0.0541 0.0183 -0.0342	.0183	-0.0342	
Europe	Germany	0.1715	0.1715 0.0182 0.1764 0.	.1764 0	0172	0.0210	+	0.2050 (0.2050 0.0126 0.2473	0.2473	+	0.1722 0.0181 0.0067	.0181	0.0067	+
	United Kingdom 0.1585 0.0127 0.1634 0.0119 0.0208	0.1585	0.0127 0	.1634 0	.0119	0.0208	+	0.1702 0.0110 0.0856	0.0110	9580.0	+	0.1479 0.0146 -0.1003	.0146	-0.1003	
	French	0.1314	0.1314 0.0112 0.1424 0.0095	.1424 0		0.0458	+	0.1544 0.0081		0.1668	+	0.1256 0.0123 -0.0552	.0123	-0.0552	
Asia	Taiwan	0.1516	0.1516 0.0042 0.1432 0.0048 -0.0350	.1432 0	.0048 -	0.0350	,	0.1350 (0.1350 0.0054 -0.1204	0.1204		0.1311 0.0057 -0.1935	. 7500.	-0.1935	
	Hong Kong	0.0840	0.0840 0.0103 0.0926 0.0084 0.0357	.0926 0	.0084	0.0357	+	0.0941 0.0082 0.0727	0.0082	0.0727	+	0.0844 0.0102 0.0038	.0102	0.0038	+
	Singapore	0.2432	0.2432 0.0082 0.1960 0.0129 -0.2032	.1960 0	.0129	0.2032	,	0.2279 (0.2279 0.0094 -0.1153	0.1153		0.2100 0.0112 -0.3232	.0112	-0.3232	
Oceania	Australia	0.1598	$0.1598 \ 0.0097 \ 0.1678 \ 0.0088 \ 0.0336$	1678 0	8800	0.0336	+	0.1717 0.0084		0.0872	+	0.1453 0.0118 -0.1373	.0118	-0.1373	1
	New Zealand	0.1794	$0.1794\ 0.0072\ 0.2426\ 0.0038\ 0.2715$	2426 0	.0038	0.2715	+	0.2257 0.0044 0.3436	0.0044	0.3436	+	0.1999 0.0057 0.1965	.0057	0.1965	+

Note: ρ^* shows unconditional correlation coefficient, and σ shows volatility of REITs. + presents increase and – indicate decrease.



Table 3 Maximum likelihood estimates of T-GARCH model for pre-12 and post-1 month Tsunami

		Pre-12 month	nth				Post-1 month	nth		
		0/0	a_1	y	eta_1	$\alpha_1 + \beta_1$	00	a_1	γ β_1	$\alpha_1 + \beta_1$
North America Canada	Canada	0.00001**	-0.07998	0.31031^{**}	0.31031** 0.84952** 0.76954 0.00001	0.76954		0.17712	-0.11389 0.70364	0.88076
	United States	0.0000.0	0.11903^{*}	-0.01268	-0.01268 0.87267**	0.99170 0.00001	0.00001	-0.02070	0.08531 0.72183	0.70113
Europe	Germany	0.00001	0.08632	-0.01042	0.90095	0.98728	0.00015	-0.01924	-0.09180 0.56667	0.54743
	United Kingdom 0.00001*	0.00001^*	0.00341	0.28088**	0.28088^{**} 0.81318^{**} 0.81658 0.00003	0.81658	0.00003	-0.23926	0.73006 0.62883	0.38957
	French	0.00001**	-0.02645	0.40731**	0.40731** 0.76511** 0.73866 0.00001	0.73866	0.00001	-0.37503	0.63529 0.98064	0.60561
Asia	Taiwan	0.00001	0.03439	-0.05454	-0.05454 0.56066 0.59505 0.00000	0.59505	0.0000.0	-0.04334	-0.09688 0.92222** 0.87888	0.87888
	Hong Kong	0.00001	0.15737*	-0.17278*	-0.17278* 0.83647**	0.99384	0.99384 0.00001** -0.35241	-0.35241	0.43414 0.97357**	0.62116
	Singapore	0.00003	-0.11134**	0.13975*	0.60296^*	0.49162	0.49162 0.000001* -0.46787	-0.46787	0.78471 0.95554*	0.48767
Oceania	Australia	0.00000	0.07060	-0.00599	0.90252** 0.97312 0.00000	0.97312	0.00000	-0.25361	0.28841 0.90632	0.65271
	New Zealand	0.00002	0.01467	0.30971*	$0.30971^* 0.42089^* 0.43556 0.00001 -0.22914$	0.43556	0.00001	-0.22914	0.04942 0.64496 0.41583	0.41583

Note: * and ** denote significance at the 5% and 1% levels, respectively.



Table 4 Maximum likelihood estimates of T-GARCH model for pre-12 and post-3 month Tsunami

	Pre-	Pre-12 month				[Post-3 month	ıth			
	000		a_1 ,	y	β_1	$\alpha_1 + \beta_1 \omega_0$		a_1	γ	β_1	$\alpha_1 + \beta_1$
North America Canada	Canada	0.00001**	-0.07998	0.31031^{**}	0.84952**	0.76954 0.00002*	0.00002*	0.33378	-0.42666	0.17149	0.50527
	United States	0.00000	0.11903^*	-0.01268	0.87267**	0.99170	0.00004	0.13114	-0.23961	0.47248	0.60362
Europe	Germany	0.00001	0.08632	-0.01042	0.90095	0.98728	9000000	0.04093	-0.09406	0.64973	99069.0
	United Kingdom 0.00001*	0.00001^*	0.00341	0.28088**	$0.81318^{**} 0.81658$	0.81658	0.00004	-0.09337	0.14756	0.60890	0.51553
	French	0.00001**	-0.02645	0.40731**	0.76511** 0.73866 0.00001	0.73866	0.00001	-0.16653	0.36334	0.73857**	0.57205
Asia	Taiwan	0.00001	0.03439	-0.05454	0.56066	0.59505	0.00000	0.24763	-0.13505	0.63927**	0.88689
	Hong Kong	0.00001	0.15737*	-0.17278*	0.83647** 0.99384	0.99384	0.00001	0.30059	0.11442	0.43679	0.73738
	Singapore	0.00003	-0.11134**	0.13975^*	$0.60296^* 0.49162$	0.49162	0.0000.0	-0.13197	-0.13197 0.26359**	0.99439**	0.86241
Oceania	Australia	0.00000	0.07060	-0.00599	0.90252** 0.97312	0.97312	0.00002	-0.18118	-0.18118 0.15874	0.84406** 0.66288	0.66288
	New Zealand	0.00002 0.01467	0.01467	0.30971*	0.42089* 0.43556 0.00000	0.43556	0.00000	-0.03655	$ -0.03655 -0.11124 0.90669^{**} 0.87014 $	0.90669**	0.87014

Note: * and ** denote significance at the 5% and 1% levels, respectively.



Table 5 Maximum likelihood estimates of T-GARCH model for pre-12 and post-6 month Tsunami

		Pre-12 month	ıth				Post-6 month	nth			
		0φ	a_1	y	eta_1	$\alpha_1 + \beta_1$	000	α_1	γ	eta_1	$lpha_1+eta_1$
North America Canada	Canada	0.00001**	-0.07998	0.31031**	$0.31031^{**} \ 0.84952^{**} \ 0.76954 \ 0.00001^{*} \ 0.16570$	0.76954	0.00001*	0.16570	0.35433	0.35433 0.61188** 0.77758	0.77758
	United States	0.0000.0	0.11903^*	-0.01268	0.87267**	0.99170	0.87267** 0.99170 0.00001* -0.12993**	-0.12993**	0.31454^{**}	0.31454** 0.93628** 0.80635	0.80635
Europe	Germany	0.00001	0.08632	-0.01042	0.90095	0.98728	0.98728 0.00004	0.03182	0.36680	0.75652** 0.78835	0.78835
	United Kingdom 0.00001*	1 0.00001*	0.00341	0.28088**	$0.28088^{**} \ 0.81318^{**} \ 0.81658 \ 0.00002^{*} \ -0.06402$	0.81658	0.00002*	-0.06402	0.38217^*	0.38217* 0.75804** 0.69402	0.69402
	French	0.00001**	-0.02645	0.40731**	0.76511**	0.73866	0.00001**	0.40731** 0.76511** 0.73866 0.00001** -0.148231** 0.40686** 0.86240** 0.71417	0.40686^{**}	0.86240**	0.71417
Asia	Taiwan	0.00001	0.03439	-0.05454	-0.05454 0.56066 0.59505 0.00001	0.59505	0.00001	0.43753	-0.23476	-0.23476 0.43997** 0.87751	0.87751
	Hong Kong	0.00001	0.15737*	-0.17278*	-0.17278* 0.83647** 0.99384 0.00003*	0.99384		0.36731	0.41850	0.21594 0.58325	0.58325
	Singapore	0.00003	-0.11134**	0.13975*	0.13975^* 0.60296^* 0.49162 0.00001	0.49162	0.00001	-0.01365	0.23582*	0.23582* 0.83318** 0.81953	0.81953
Oceania	Australia	0.0000.0	0.07060	-0.00599	-0.00599 0.90252** 0.97312 0.00000	0.97312	0.00000	-0.03232	0.31507	0.31507 0.85931** 0.82699	0.82699
	New Zealand	0.00002	0.01467	0.30971*	$0.30971^* 0.42089^* 0.43556 0.00002 \text{-}0.03875$	0.43556	0.00002	-0.03875	0.34546	0.34546 0.14932 0.11058	0.11058

Note: * and ** denote significance at the 5% and 1% levels, respectively.



Table 6 Testing REITs volatility spillover with T-GARCH model for 311 Japan Earthquake Tsunami

		Pre-12 month	nonth		Post-1 month	month			Post-3 month	month			Post-6 month	month	
		γ_t	Ω	$\gamma_{\mathcal{S}}$	Σ	Z-test A	Z-test Asymmetry	γ_s	Ω	Z-test	Z-test Asymmetry	γ_{s}	Q	Z-test /	Asymmetry
North America Canada	ı Canada	0.310** 0.092	0.092	-0.114	0.784	-0.484		-0.427	0.385	-1.546		0.354	0.221	0.142	+
	United States	-0.013 0.075	0.075	0.085	1.195	0.077	+	-0.24	0.22	-0.771		0.315^{**}	0.078	2.147**	+
Europe	Germany	-0.01 0.091	0.091	-0.092	1.396	-0.055	•	-0.094	0.393	-0.173		0.367	0.342	0.872	+
	United Kingdom 0.281** 0.104	0.281**	0.104	0.73	968.0	0.449	+	0.148	0.186	-0.459		0.382^*	0.18	0.355	+
	French	0.407** 0.129	0.129	0.635	1.187	0.174	+	0.363	0.308	-0.1		0.407**	0.114	0	•
Asia	Taiwan	-0.055 0.05	0.05	-0.097	0.27	-0.132	ı	-0.135	0.355	-0.199		-0.235	0.315	-0.493	•
	Hong Kong	-0.173^{*} 0.073	0.073	0.434	0.404	1.272	+	0.114	0.399	0.608	+	0.419	0.42	1.199	+
	Singapore	0.140^{*} 0.062	0.062	0.785	0.482	1.187	+	0.264**	0.094	0.799	+	0.236^*	0.112	0.554	+
Oceania	Australia	-0.006 0.069	0.069	0.288	0.615	0.43	+	0.159	0.115	0.893	+	0.315	0.192	1.228	+
	New Zealand	$0.310^* 0.15$	0.15	0.049	0.618	-0.339		-0.111	0.176	-1.292	-	0.345	0.229	0.093	+

Notes:ois standard errors. *, ** and *** denote significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels, respectively. + presents increase and – indicate decrease.



Table 7 Summary of co-movement, volatility spillover and contagion

		P	Post-1 month		P	Post-3 month		P	Post-6 month	
		Co-movement Spillover	Spillover	Contagion	Co-movement	Spillover	Contagion	Co-movement	Spillover	Contagion
North America Canada	ı Canada	+	•	Z	+	•	Z	ı	+	Z
	United States	+	+	Z	+	ı	Z	ı	(Z
Europe	Germany	+	,	Z	+	·	Z	+	+	Z
	United Kingdom	+	+	Z	+		Z	ı	+	Z
	French	+	+	Z	+	•	Z	ı		Z
Asia	Taiwan	ı	,	Z	ı	ı	Z	ı		Z
	Hong Kong	+	+	Z	+	+	Z	+	+	Z
	Singapore	1	+	Z	1	+	Z	ı	+	Z
Oceania	Australia	+	+	Z	+	+	Z	ı	+	Z
	New Zealand	+	•	Z	+		Z	+	+	Z

Notes: + presents increase and - indicate decrease. N shows that contagion effect does not exist. () denote significance.



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品牌收購前後之涉入程度、球迷認同與球迷忠誠度關係之研究 - 以中信兄弟為例

An Examination of the Relationship among Involvement, Fan Identification, and Fan Loyalty Pre- and Post- Brand Acquisition – An Empirical Study of Chinatrust Brother

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摘要

棒球是台灣最早職業化的運動。其中兄弟象一直以來都是中華職棒聯盟(CPBL)中十分受歡迎的球隊。2013年,兄弟象隊因經營問題,球團易主,由中國信託銀行贊助的華翼育樂公司接手,2014年正式更名為中信兄弟。雖然球隊吉祥物及識別顏色仍然延用,但名稱及經營風格的改變也遭到不少球逃抨擊。因此,本研究欲以兄弟象為例,探討球隊品牌收購前後之球逃涉入程度、球隊認同與球逃忠誠度之關係,並比較球隊品牌收購前後,涉入程度、球隊認同、球逃忠誠度是否具有顯著差異。

本研究以全台的兄弟象(或稱中信兄弟)球迷為研究對象,採用網路問卷針對併購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度進行調查,有效問卷分別為 215(併購前)及 245(併購後)份。利用 SPSS 進行信度分析、相關分析、T 檢定等方法驗證假設。研究發現:(1) 球迷涉入程度與球隊認同呈現正相關;(2) 涉入程度與球迷忠誠度呈現正相關;(3) 球隊認同與球迷忠誠度呈現正相關;(4) 球隊品牌收購前後,涉入程度、球隊認同及球迷忠誠度具有顯著差異,收購後三者均下降。

關鍵字:品牌收購、涉入程度、球隊認同、球速忠誠度。



ABSTRACT

Baseball was the first professional sport in Taiwan. Brother Elephants has long been the most popular team in CPBL. In 2013, due to heavy financial losses, Brother Elephants was sold to Hua Yi, a subdivision of CTBC Holding. In 2014, the new team was officially renamed as "Chinatrust Brothers". Although the team mascot and the team's color are still in use, the change of the team's name and management style receives harsh criticism from fans. Therefore, using Brother Elephants as an example, this study examines the relationship among involvement, fan identification, and fan loyalty pre- and post- brand acquisition. Furthermore, this study aims to determine whether there are differences in involvement, fan identification, and fan loyalty pre- and post- brand acquisition.

Using fans of Brother Elephants (or Chinatrust Brother) as research subjects, this study adopts online survey to investigate involvement, fan identification, and fan loyalty pre- and post- brand acquisition. 215 (pre-acquisition assumed) and 245 (post-acquisition assumed) effective sample questionnaires are collected respectively. The results show that (1) involvement is positively associated with fan identification; (2) involvement is positively associated with fan loyalty; (3) fan identification is positively associated with fan loyalty; (4) There are significant differences in involvement, fan identification, and fan loyalty pre- and post-brand acquisition, implying a declining trend in all variables over the post-acquisition period.

Keywords: Brand Acquisition, Involvement, Fan Identification, and Fan Loyalty



壹、緒論

過去研究併購的文獻多從財務觀點分析併購成效,較少研究從消費者態度觀點,來檢視併購對企業之影響(邱志聖,謝佳宏,葉相億,2003)。然而,消費者是企業最終客戶,企業併購後之消費者態度對於企業績效具有關鍵影響,因此愈來愈多的學者呼籲,企業併購之研究除了組織本身的考量外,亦應考慮消費者態度(Homburg & Bucerius, 2005; Fong, Lee, and Du, 2013)。本研究回應此觀點,以球隊品牌收購為例,探討球隊品牌收購前後球迷態度與行為是否發生顯著改變。

近年來,「運動」相關產業在世界各地成為新興產業,同時亦逐漸形成一股新的經濟體。而職業運動屬於運動產業核心產業中的觀賞性運動服務業(葉公鼎,2001;李昱叡,2003)。在觀賞運動競爭的休閒活動中,以棒球、籃球的觀賞最深受國人喜愛,而其中棒球運動也是唯一在台灣有職業聯盟存在的運動競賽。

職業運動的興盛與否是國家運動產業的發展指標之一,而職業運動的成立相對也能帶動運動產業的成長,在運動發達與經濟繁榮的國家,職業運動的形成是必然的現象。職業運動在台灣的發展歷史並不久遠,近年來,國內陸續成立有中華職棒聯盟(Chinese Professional Baseball League, CPBL)、中華職業籃球聯盟(Chinese Basketball Association, CBA,已停止營運)、台灣職棒大聯盟(Taiwan Major League, TML,於 2003 年與中華職棒聯盟合併為中華職棒大聯盟)等職業運動組織,另外在撞球、保齡球、高爾夫球等運動皆有職業比賽之舉辦(蔡岱亨,2003),其中職業棒球成立的時間最長,觀眾人數也最多。

中華職棒聯盟成立於 1990 年,職棒元年共有<u>兄弟象、統一獅、三商虎與味全龍</u>等四隊,中華職棒開打後,職棒選手們的優秀表現、緊張刺激的職棒賽事,大受民眾歡迎,大批球迷湧進球場觀賞球賽,棒球熱潮蔓延全台。尤其 1992 年,象隊囊括了當年上、下半季的冠軍,三隊聯軍與象隊爭奪「金冠軍」的精采賽事,為中華職棒帶來超人氣,年度平均單場觀眾人數飆高至 6,878 人,成為至今仍無法打破的歷史紀錄。1993 年,中華職棒聯盟加入了兩隊新血(後國熊、時報鷹),吸引更多球迷進場觀賽,總觀眾人數年年上升,1995 年更創下總觀眾 1,646,361 人次的歷史紀錄。不過,到了 1996 年爆發職棒簽賭事件,使得球迷們對職棒失望,之後的觀眾人數逐年下滑,部分球團解散。我國職棒發展,經過幾次的重大危機後,最近兩年,由於世界棒球經典賽的熱潮、多名知名的旅外選手回鍋以及外籍選手加盟中職,重新提升了球迷進場支持球隊的意願,讓台灣觀眾曾經擁有的職棒熱血逐漸復甦。截至 2013 年,累積總觀眾人數已達 2,165 萬多人次。

而兄弟象的歷史,可從八零年代說起,當時,由熱愛棒球的洪騰勝先生成立了兄弟飯店棒球隊,也就是兄弟象的前身。同時,洪騰勝先生也為臺灣職棒積極奔走,籌辦中華職棒聯盟時曾寫 300 多封信給本地的企業老闆遊說;在 1990 年,兄弟象成為中華職棒聯盟的創始隊之一。洪騰勝先生所經營的兄弟飯店雖然事業規模不大,但成立球隊以來每年至少虧損 5000 萬,兄弟飯店對球隊的經營被視為是一種不考慮投資報酬的「利他性經營」(施致平,2008),直到職棒 14 年才首次轉虧為盈(吳修辰,2005)。從職棒



元(1990)年至今,有的球團換東家、有的球團不堪長期虧損而解散;兄弟象自職棒元年在兄弟飯店董事 長洪騰勝主導下成立,歷經了簽賭風波、解散危機等風風雨雨,經歷過二十餘年的歲月,總計獲得七次 總冠軍,成為聯盟史上最多總冠軍的球隊(陳信中,2006;林孟萱,2009),根據 2014 年「中華職棒觀眾 分析」網站分析,中華職棒歷年來最多觀眾人數對戰組合統計,二十多年來,每年最多門票票房的對戰 組合總是少不了兄弟象,兄弟象同樣也是吸引最多球迷到球場購票觀賽的人氣王,創下歷年來累積人次 最高(5,753,952 人次)和平均進場觀球球迷數最多(1994 年平均人數 9,504 人)等記錄。與另外三支聯盟現有 的企業球隊相比,兄弟象沒有顯赫財團背景,卻成為職棒史上首支盈餘的球隊,也是臺灣職棒史上的經 典球隊。

兄弟象在 2013 年正式宣布走入歷史。2013 年 10 月兄弟象球團董事長洪瑞河召開記者會說明,由於經營困難,經營職棒 24 年虧損逾 10 億元,兄弟飯店已無法繼續經營,將開始尋找買主。此消息一出,在當時成為各大媒體關注的新聞。11 月 9 日,聯盟為亞洲職棒大賽舉辦第二場熱身賽,該場比賽湧入滿場象迷,成為兄弟象最後一場正式比賽,賽後球迷拋出黃色彩帶向兄弟象道別。宣布易主後的期間,許多和兄弟飯店面談開會的企業,都被外界列為可能的新買主名單,由於兄弟象的歷史悠久,球迷都十分關心易主的消息。到了 12 月 13 日,確定以四億元轉賣給以贊助名義入主的中信集團,且於 2014 年 6 月正式將球團改名為「中信兄弟」、也因為成立歷史最久,原本兄弟象的球隊形象已深植台灣民眾心中,所以吉祥物和識別顏色都繼續沿用兄弟象的大象和黃色。

Sutton et al. (1997)指出,部份管理的因素會影響球迷對該球隊的認同程度,所以消費者導向也屬球團的經營管理策略之一。陳彥豪(2005)研究發現球迷涉入程度對於球隊認同、參與滿意度與球迷忠誠度有正向顯著影響。國內以往與職棒相關的研究報告,大多探討職棒觀眾(球迷)的消費者行為(嚴雅馨,2002; 吳欣怡,2006; 王志源,2008)、球團本身的經營策略分析(聶上榮,2009; 楊俊斌,2010)、比較兩個球團之間各方面的差異(許順凱,2008),或是針對整個聯盟,研究其球迷的涉入程度、球隊認同與球迷忠誠度(廖紹甫,2009)。然而少有研究是針對球隊品牌收購前後進行涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度的差異分析。本研究期望能從球迷觀點,檢視其對球隊易主前後之認知與行為差異,預期貢獻如下:

- 一、探討涉入程度與球隊認同之關係。
- 二、探討涉入程度與球迷忠誠度之關係。
- 二、探討球隊認同與球迷忠誠度之關係。
- 三、探討球隊品牌收購前後,涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度之差異。
- 四、依據研究結果提出建議,以作為球團經營管理上的參考。



貳、文獻探討

本研究探討涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度三個構面之關係,並推論球隊品牌收購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度是否具有顯著差異,據此提出研究假設。

一、涉入程度

與涉入有關的研究相當廣泛,許多學者從不同觀點予以定義。Rothschild (1984)詮釋涉入為「對於一項活動或者產品,感興趣、刺激或覺醒的一種狀態。」,且認為涉入程度會受到兩種因素影響:此狀態存在於涉入的過程中,並且受到現有外在因素(情境、產品、溝通);及過去內在因素(持續性、自我概念、中心價值)的引發,隨之產生不同類型的搜尋過程與決策行為。Zaichkowsky(1985)認為,涉入程度是「個人基於本身的需求、價值觀和興趣,而對某項事物所感覺到的攸關程度」。Woodside, Sullivan, & Trappey(1999)認為涉入程度是某一事件所引起的興趣程度。

在運動或休閒涉入之研究,Mullin(1993)定義涉入為:「運動涉入的頻率、強度與持久性,或是願意花多少金錢、時間與精力在運動涉入上」,也就是消費者對於可能消費的產品的態度。本研究中所探討的涉入程度,乃根據 Mullin(1993)對涉入程度之定義,將涉入程度延伸為球迷對於中華職棒之關心程度。

二、球隊認同

Bandura(1969)認為認同是一種社會化的過程,是一個人將其思想、感情與行動採取所認定的對象的型式展現出來。亦是一種社會化程序中的基本原理之一,在個人社會化程序中,選擇他人的行為,內化於自己的行為體系中。Tajfel (1972) 提出社會認同的概念,認為社會認同是個人的一種知識,即是對於他屬於某一社會群體、以及自己身為此一群體成員的一些情感和價值意義的認知。Hall(1996)認為「認同」的進行,是建構在個體認知他們自己與其他人或其他群體或其他理念、凝聚方式等,是否擁有一些共同的起源或共同分享的特質之上。

Mael and Ashforth(1992)認為球隊認同是組織認同的特殊例子,將球隊認同定義為觀眾對於球隊所知 覺到的關連性,以及將球隊勝負視為與自身相關的經驗,認為球隊認同是球逃知覺到自己和球隊是一體 的,並將球隊成敗視為自己切身體驗一般。Wann and Branscombe(1993)則將球隊認同定義為個人對某特 定運動球隊表現愛慕或關心的程度。認為對球隊之認同感的程度是現場觀眾情感、行為和其所支持的球 隊相關事件認知反應的重要指標,即對球隊所存在之事務會有更積極的態度,以及更堅定之承諾。

本研究綜合以上學者之定義,將球隊認同定義為球迷對球員表現、球隊形象、球迷與球隊互動、球 隊戰績等因素之喜愛與關心程度。



三、球迷忠誠度

忠誠度可被視為對個人或結果持久且穩定不變的忠負或擁戴(Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999)。 Funk and James (2001) 認為球隊忠誠是消費者與球隊在心理層面產生連結,進而衍生出對球隊長期且執著的態度與行為。Apostolopoulou and Gladden (2007)將球迷忠誠度分為行為面及態度面。行為面忠誠是指球迷親自到場觀賞球賽、購買球隊商品及長期支持特定球隊;態度面忠誠則是指球迷對所喜愛球隊的支持與聯繫,且自願性的跟隨球隊。

本研究在忠誠度之定義方面,綜合上述學者對忠誠之解釋,所定義之球迷忠誠度:球隊支持者因社會、文化、個人、心理等因素而產生之認同感且會引發再次對同一支球隊進行消費之意願,並會向他人傳播正面的口碑,鼓勵他人進行消費的行為。

四、涉入程度、球隊認同與球迷忠誠度

過去研究普遍支持當涉入程度愈高時,球迷對所支持球隊的認同度與忠誠度也會愈高(陳彥豪, 2005)。而許多研究也指出,較高的球隊認同能使得球迷會感覺滿意,提高球迷忠誠度(吳曉雯, 2002; 李允仁, 2003;陳彥豪, 2005)。Laverie & Arnett(2000)利用球迷心理變項,如涉入、球隊之認同,來對球迷參與現場觀賞比賽頻率做預測,發現球迷涉入程度與球迷對球隊之認同能有效預測球迷參與現場觀賞比賽頻率。因此本研究發展假說如下:

H1: 涉入程度與球隊認同呈現正相關。

H2:涉入程度與球迷忠誠度呈現正相關。

H3: 球隊認同與球迷忠誠度呈現正相關。

五、品牌收購

企業藉由收購(亦稱併購)擴大規模並獲取重要資源以提升競爭優勢,強化經營績效。相關文獻指出,企業併購之主要動機為追求規模經濟與範疇經濟以提高市場力(Caves, 1989)、汰換無效率之經營團隊(Jensen & Ruback, 1983)、取得關鍵資源(Bowman & Singh, 1993)等。而品牌正是影響企業經營的關鍵資源之一,許多公司透過跨國品牌收購,獲取國際市場相關知識以成功敲開國際市場大門。2004 年聯想收購 IBM 個人電腦事業部,逐漸壯大集團規模及全球影響力,並在近年擠下惠普成為個人電腦龍頭廠商,即為品牌收購之成功案例。雖然聯想已經經營 IBM 個人電腦品牌多年,然而許多消費者仍認為聯想 Lenovo與 IBM 的品牌力有段差距,認為 IBM 品牌明顯優於聯想 Lenovo 品牌(熊輝, 2013)。此案例說明品牌力的移轉具有相當的困難度,因此本研究認為球隊品牌收購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度具有顯著差異。

H4:球隊品牌收購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度有顧著差異。



多、研究方法

一、研究架構

本研究主要是探討球隊品牌收購前後之球迷涉入程度、球隊認同與球迷忠誠度之關係,並檢驗球隊 品牌收購前後各變數之差異。本研究之研究架構如圖1。

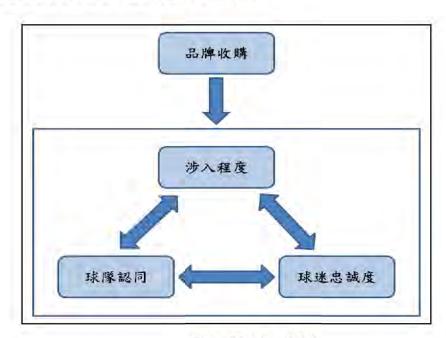


圖 1本研究之架構

二、量表設計

表 1 為本研究的各變項:涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度之量表設計依據與實際提項之說明,並採用李克特氏(Likert scale)七點量表方式計分根據受訪者填寫情況,從「非常不同意」、「不同意」、「稍微不同意」、「普通」、「稍微同意」、「同意」到「非常同意」上填選一項,各項給分方式分別依序給予 1、2、3、4、5、6、7分,分數愈高代表愈同意。

₩1 石交数へ至れ以 可						
變數	次構面	題數	參考文獻			
	情境涉入	12	吳曉雯(2002)			
涉入程度	活動涉入	2	王忠茂(2005)			
	愛好涉入	6	廖紹甫(2009)			
	球員表現	6				
	球隊形象	4	Robertson(1976)			
球隊認同	球迷與球隊互動	3	Lastovica & Gardner(1978)			
	地緣關係	1	Jacoby & Chestunt(1978)			
	戰績	2				

表 1 各變數之量表設計



	他人影響	1	
球迷忠誠度	正面口碑及 購買意願	7	吳曉雯(2002) Heilier, Geursen, Carr &
NATE IS BOATS	認同感	5	Rickard(2003) Keller(2003)

三、抽樣架構與資料蒐集

- (一) 研究對象:本研究是以全台灣的中信兄弟(1993-2013 年稱為兄弟象,2013 年後稱為中信兄弟) 球迷為研究母體對象,採用網路問卷方式,故樣本選取分布於全台各地區,並無特定地區或年齡。
- (二) 抽樣方法:本研究採用便利抽樣,因兄弟象之球迷遍布全台各地,為完整蒐集到各地區之問卷回覆,故以網路問卷方式,經由 Google 表單製作成問卷後,在網路上發放,進行樣本抽樣。
- (三) 問卷發放與收回:本研究之問卷分為兩個階段,發放時間分別為:中信金控收購「以後」(中信兄弟時期):104年9月1日;中信金控收購「以前」(兄弟象時期):104年10月4日,兩階段網路問卷開放填寫時間都各一個月。發放平台為聚集較多象隊球迷之網路社群,批踢踢實業坊(PTT)兄弟象板(Elephants)和問卷板(Q_ary),Facebook中如「兄弟象本土投手加油團」、「SHAHO!兄弟象迷共享FB」等九個與象隊有關之社團,以及象隊或象隊成員之各大粉絲專頁。第一階段共計回收251份問卷,扣除無效問卷,共為245份,作為收購後之研究樣本;第二階段則共計回收226份,扣除無效問卷,共為215份,作為收購前之研究樣本。

肆、資料分析

本研究採用信度分析以分析量表之信度。並以相關分析,來分析涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度 之相關程度,並以 T 檢定進行球隊品牌收購前後,涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度之差異分析。

一、信度分析

信度檢定方法一般是以「Cronbach's α」來檢定問卷中各因素構念的內部一致性,當α值越高即代表量表的信度越高。本研究問卷的信度分析結果,兩階段問卷(有效樣本 245、215 份)之各構面 Cronbach's α值均在 0.89 以上,因此本研究之兩階段問卷皆具有良好的信度。如表 2 所示。

構面	題項	Cronbach's α		
↓ □ □ 1	超 坝	收購後	收購前	
球迷涉入程度	1-20	0.960	0.947	
球隊認同	21-37	0.904	0.890	
球迷忠誠度	38-49	0.953	0.943	

表 2 各構面之信度分析

二、相關分析

針對球隊被收購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度三個變數之間的相關分析結果如表 3 所示。 表 3 顯示,涉入程度與球隊認同之關係為正向顯著關係(收購前 β =0.698, p < 0.01;收購後 β =0.781, p <



0.01),支持假說 H1。涉入程度與球迷忠誠度之關係為正向顯著關係(收購前 β = 0.817, p < 0.01; 收購後 β = 0.874, p < 0.01),支持假說 H2。球隊認同與球迷忠誠度之關係為正向顯著關係,支持假說 H3(收購前 β = 0.734, p < 0.01; 收購後 β = 0.791, p < 0.01)。

收購前	涉入程度	球隊認同
涉入程度		
球隊認同	0.698**	
球迷忠誠度	0.817**	0.734**
N=215; **p < 0.01		
收購後	涉入程度	球隊認同
涉入程度		
球隊認同	0.781**	
球迷忠誠度	0.874**	0.791**
N=245; **p<0.01		

表 3 各變數之相關分析表

三、T 檢定

此部分的分析中將以 T 檢定 (用以檢定兩組母群體之平均數是否有差異) 來檢定球迷是否會因為收購前後, 而對涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度有不同的感受。本研究以「收購前後」為自變數, 涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度為依變數, 透過 T 檢定進行差異性分析。分析結果如表 4。

研究發現收購前後對於涉入程度、球隊認同及球迷忠誠度,均具有顯著差異,且兩個依變數的平均數,皆為收購前較收購後高。因此假說 H4 獲得支持。進一步以性別來分析收購前後各變數之差異,結果發現男性球迷在收購後對於球隊的涉入程度、球隊認同及忠誠度顯著降低;而女性球迷之涉入程度與球隊認同在收購前後並無顯著差異,僅在忠誠度有明顯下降。分析結果如表 5。

	F 2 - 11 - 11 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 -			- 132 //	· • · · · · · · ·	P =
白磁和	لعل ۱۹۵۸ مدر	7 5 G	統計量			
自變數	依變數	項目	樣本數	平均數	T 值	顯著性
	许》 招薛	收購前	215	5.87	2.05	0.000
	涉入程度	收購後	245	5.46	3.85	0.000
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	- b. m/ .m ==	收購前	215	5.63	4.07	0.000
	球隊認同	收購後	245	5.27	4.27	0.000
	北沙中北东	收購前	215	6.16	4.70	0.000
	球迷忠誠度	收購後	245	5.67		

表 4 收購前後涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度 T 檢定差異分析表



7,00	MT N) (X (12/4) 24	7	(Ac 0/2 (.) 24.		- 100/42-71	77 11 172	
自變數	 依變數	項目	統計量				
日愛数	似变数	次ロ	樣本數	平均數	T 值	顯著性	
		收購前男性	144	5.90	4 11	0.000	
	NE s to six	收購後男性	162	5.46	4.11	0.000	
	涉入程度	收購前女性	71	5.82	0.75	0.450	
		收購後女性	83	5.72	0.75	0.452	
	球隊認同	收購前男性	144	5.67	4.61	0.000	
14. 14. 25. 26		收購後男性	162	5.18	4.61		
收購前後		收購前女性	71	5.57	Λ 00	0.381	
		收購後女性	83	5.44	0.88		
		收購前男性	144	6.16	4.45	0.000	
	球迷忠誠度	收購後男性	162	5.59	4.45	0.000	
	水亚心 越及	收購前女性	71	6.12	1.02	0.055	
		收購後女性	83	5.83	1.93	0.055	

表 5 收購前後性別對涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度 T 檢定差異分析表

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,並針對球隊經營提出建議。

一、研究結論

(一)涉入程度與球隊認同之關係 (H1 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,涉入程度與球隊認同呈現正相關,意即涉入程度愈高,其球隊認同程度也愈高;當球迷對兄弟象有較高的關心程度時,就會更加認為自己是球隊的一份子,進而形成較高的球隊認同。此部分的結果,與多位學者研究的結果相同(Laverie & Arnett, 2000;陳彥豪, 2005;洪宇慶, 2008)。

(二)涉入程度與球迷忠誠度之關係 (H2 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,涉入程度與球迷忠誠度呈現正相關。意即涉入程度愈高,球迷忠誠度也愈高;當球 迷對兄弟象有較高的關心程度時,就對球隊有較正面的態度,且在未來會持續支持同一球隊。此結果與 過去研究一致(吳繼帆,2010;陳彥豪,2005)。

(三)球隊認同與球迷忠誠度之關係 (H3 得到支持)

研究結果顯示,球隊認同對球迷忠誠度呈現正相關。意即球隊認同程度愈高,球迷忠誠度也會愈高;當球迷認為自己是兄弟象的一份子,進而形成較高的球隊認同後,就對球隊有較正面的態度,且在未來會持續支持同一球隊。此結果與過去陳彥豪(2005)、廖紹甫(2009)之研究結果相符。

(四)收購前後,涉入程度、球隊認同、球迷忠誠度具有顯著差異(H4得到支持)



研究結果顯示,收購前後之涉入程度、球隊認同和球迷忠誠度,都具有顯著差異,且皆為收購前較 收購後高。表示對球迷而言,在兄弟象時期(1990~2013),他們對球隊的關心程度還有持續支持該球隊的 程度,較中信兄弟時期(2013~)高。

經由研究結果及這段時間本研究觀察網路上球逃的實際意見,我們認為,造成上述收購前後涉入程度與球迷忠誠度有差異之可能原因為:「兄弟象」這個品牌,從中職聯盟成立之初就存在,其球迷也多數是資深球迷,與球隊有深厚情感。二十多年來的品牌突然改變經營者,隊名也馬上失去了最具代表性的「象」,雖然吉祥物和球衣顏色沒有變動,但依然使部分球迷不適應。且在過去,母企業兄弟飯店不考慮投資報酬的「利他性經營」了那麼久的日子;擁有龐大事業體的中信集團僅以掛名贊助方式,經由華翼育樂有限公司代為經營,幾次經營衝突、人員異動的新聞報導後,使得部分球迷認為此次收購,集團重視的,比起球隊的發展,更多了利益考量,讓球員及球迷對新東家產生不信任感。所以現在球迷對球隊的關心程度、喜愛程度還有持續支持該球隊的程度,就會下滑。

二、實務建議

(一)經營管理上之建議

1. 球迷結構過於偏向男性及學生族群

近年來中華職棒大聯盟現場觀眾人數下滑,各球團及聯盟與現場觀眾之間交流較為黃金時期來得少, 球團經營心態偏向於少虧為賺,以保守為主,對於新觀眾的開發較不積極。透過本研究之球迷結構發現, 目前中信兄弟的球迷仍以男性為主,顯示球團在開發女性消費者市場尚有很大的進步空間。近年來,女 性消費者已形成一股不可忽視的勢力,建議球團可以開發吸引女性消費者購買的商品與服務,如:訂定 女性看球日,該日前往現場觀看比賽的女性可獲得紀念品或享有優惠。以及建議球團多加設計專屬的吉 祥物,增加職棒比賽中「柔性」的成分,統一7-ELEVEN 的「OPEN 小將」就曾到統一獅隊的主場與現 場球迷互動,值得其他球團作為參考。

其次,中華職棒的球迷大部分以學生為主,學生族群消費能力普遍不高,且人數上大多偏向一人至 三人左右,與一家四口相較,人數較少,且消費能力也不高,家庭看球一來可培養更低年齡層的觀眾, 培養其對棒球運動的愛好,且父母也會因小孩關係,進入球場。球團也可推出家庭套票,刺激整體職棒 市場活絡。

2. 球團之經營方式

CPBL是目前國內最具規模的職業運動組織,而兄弟象隊一直是 CPBL 最具指標性的元老球隊。球團最主要收入來源之一就是門票的收入,一旦球迷進場觀看球賽意願減少,相對的球迷購買球團周邊商品的意願也會隨之降低。如此一來,會對球團的經營與發展產生負面的影響。因此,球迷對於各球隊的球隊涉入、球隊認同與忠誠度,儼然成為球迷進場觀看球賽與周邊商品的購買意願重要的衡量指標。

本研究經由問卷調查後發現,無論收購前後,球迷都認為球隊中有許多明星球員,代表球員身為公 眾人物,是球迷的偶像,一舉一動、一言一行都要更加謹慎。而球迷透過購買球員卡、或其他相關附屬



商品,來表現其支持球員或球隊的心情,在周邊商品的部分,球逃普遍覺得收購後不如收購前,所以現在的球團經營者可以此方向做為營運參考。還有啦啦隊、球員個人後援會也是球隊經營的重點之一。事實上,一個球隊的經營權移轉後,球逃們都會把過去跟現在的經營方式進行比較,所以對於與球迷間公共關係的處理,更應該視為經營重點。

三、後續研究建議

1. 探討不同角度的研究對象

本研究僅以球逃(或消費者)的角度為調查重點,建議後續研究者,無論是否針對體育領域,可嘗試透過質性訪談球團(或企業內部)人員,了解球團對於球迷導向的看法,進而比較球迷觀點與球團看法,得知兩者之間的落差,提供球團更具體的作法。

2. 探討不同球團或其他變數

本研究是以兄弟象為例,因中信兄弟之經營權移轉為 2013 年所發生,過去尚未有針對球團易主或 解散為主軸的研究文獻。建議後續研究者,可繼續深入研究台灣棒球史上曾經有經營權移轉的球隊,或 是針對不同面項 (例如:顧客滿意度、球迷人數) 研究。

3. 加深樣本深度

由於本研究是以線上問卷來獲取所需資料,期望後續研究者可以利用訪談法或實地調查來取得更深 入的研究資料,讓對於中華職棒球迷的研究更趨完整。

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以實質房價及空屋探討資訊透明化對建築產業之影響

The Impact of Information Asymmetry On Residential Construction Industry

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摘要

臺灣地區之空屋數由 1980 年之 48 萬戶,逐年增加到 2010 年之 155 萬戶,顯示空屋並沒有減少,而 逐年增加,代表供需失衡之關係。惟根據本研究所整理之全臺地區實質平均房價從 1999 年的 9.66 萬/坪 上漲到 2013 年的 16.56 萬/坪。房屋價格逐年上漲,而空屋也逐年增加,顯示市場機制未見得充分效率化。 本研究以供需模型,本研究以產業結構理論模型,結構(S)影響行為(C),行為影響績效(P)與效果(E)之模 型,以動態研究模型,分別以使用執照面積、建造執照面積、空屋數、實質房屋價格為依變數,探討供 需因素與事件對於建築產業之影響。本研究針對臺灣 20 縣市由 2000 年至 2013 年共計 280 個觀察值,採 Pooled Cross-Sectional Time-Series 之方式進行二階段最小平方法迴歸分析進行各變數間相互因果關聯之 實證分析。實證發現於動態市場模型下,(一)事件因素方面,奢侈稅對於使用執照為負向且顯著,說明 此法令確實會影響至建商績效,而實價登錄制度對實質房價呈現正向且顯著,代表在多頭市場下,資訊 透明化,反而會「助漲」;(二)實質房價對空屋呈現負向顯著之影響,這代表著供給面之力量大於需求 面之力量。(三)空屋數對於建築執照面積呈現正影響,其原因可能為投資、投機者有購屋之需求,進而 使建商增加產量。(四)、建築執照對使用執照對使用執照呈正向影響,使用執照對空屋亦呈現正向之影 響,空屋與實質房屋價格對建築執照皆為正向影響且顯著,這驗證了建築行為會影響建築績效,建築績 效會影響效果,而效果會再度影響至建築行為,驗證了產業結構理論之模型。本研究建議市場上存在著 結構性空屋,係指老舊性房屋,此類型房屋並不符合現今民眾需求,對於房屋之供給並無功用,若能將 此類房屋拆除或改建以符合社會要求,可使空屋過剩之問題改善。同時,政府政策或法規之推行,應考 慮外在環境因素同之影響,以免助漲與助跌之情形。

關鍵字:實質房屋價格、空屋、建築產業行為、資訊透明化、助漲與助跌。



ABSTRACT

The vacancies of residential construction increased from 480,000 units in 1980 to 1,550,000 units in 2010 in Taiwan, implying oversupply of residential house units. Although high vacancies, average unit price of residential unit increased from NT\$ 96,600/ping in 1999 to NT\$ 165,600/ping in 2013, indicating the malfunction of market mechanism. This research based on the Structure-Conduct-Performance (S-C-P) model examines those factors influencing residential construction industry. A sample of 280 observations in the 20 cities and counties in Taiwan during 2000-2013 was tested by Pooled Cross-Sectional Time-Series regression model. We use Two Stage Least Squares (2SLS) to analyze the impact of the transparency of vacancies and real housing price on the behavior and performance of the construction industry in Taiwan. We found that event such as Luxury Tax caused negative impact on construction industry, whereas the revelation of the housing price sold resulted in the increase of the real average housing price. The transparency of the housing market causes exaggeration of price, indicating irrational exuberance. Housing prices negatively influenced vacancies indicating irrationality of this market. Although high vacancies the approvals increased consistently, indicating there were demands of quality house unit, speculation, and investment. The residential approvals caused the increase of residential completions resulting the increase of vacancies. The vacancy and real housing price also influenced the approvals verifying the Industrial Organization model (SCP). We suggest that the demolishing and renovation of structural vacancies i.e. obsolete and unwanted house units will improve high vacancies. In addition the implementation of government policy should consider structural factors to avoid exaggerating and exacerbating effects.

Keywords: Vacancies, Real House Price, Construction Behavior, Information Transparency · Exaggerating and Exacerbating Effects.



壹、緒論

本研究探討價格及空屋構面以分析建築產業。建築產業之價格與空屋代表產業供需下對社會影響的效果層面,是反應需求與供給之狀況,根據行政院主計處普查之計算得知的空屋數(圖 1)中可發現,臺灣地區之空屋逐年增加。空屋值 1980 年之 48 萬戶,逐年增加到 2010 年之 155 萬戶,顯示空屋並沒有減少,而逐年增加,代表供需失衡之關係。一方面,有的人沒有房屋,但另一方面卻有高空閒房屋存在,顯示市場機制未見得充分效率化。

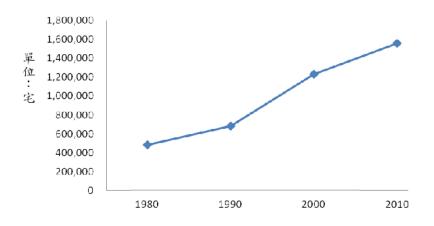


圖 1 臺灣地區空屋普查

資料來源:行政院主計處,2014,

就需求面來分析,房屋的需求受人口結構之影響(圖2),呈現下降趨勢,由2000年成長率為0.82% 下降到2012年之負0.32%的成長,顯示需求之減少。人口增加率是逐年滅少,顯示需求是不足的。

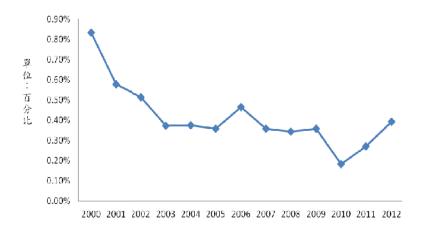


圖 2 臺灣地區人口成長率

資料來源:行政院主計處,2014,



房屋價格與空屋彼此的關係也是息息相關。空屋多,民眾的選擇也跟著多,對於買賣房屋時,新房屋就不一定是首選。在投資方面,房屋的交易價格愈高,投資需求也愈高,如此一來交易市場也會跟著熱絡起來。投資需求一旦增高,建商或許就會大量建造房屋,在滿足需求的同時也能獲取利益。根據本研究所整理之全臺地區平均房價(圖3),從1999年的9.66萬/坪到2013年的16.56萬/坪,顯示房屋價格逐年上漲。在圖中亦可看出房價在2011年的11.85萬/坪,大幅上升至2013年的16.56萬/坪,是否與實價登錄反易真實之交易價格,在資訊對稱下所致。

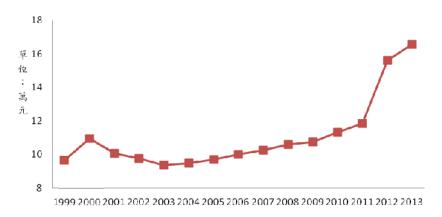


圖 3 全國每坪平均單價

資料來源:內政部地政司,2012、內政部實價登錄,2014、本研究整理

依供需之理論來看,空屋數與房屋價格應呈現反向變化,但於上述中卻是同向,皆屬於成長趨勢,因此本研究想探討臺灣空屋與房屋價之間的關係究竟為何。由於空屋及房屋價格會互相影響,且二因素亦會影響建商使之行為改變,因此本研究想探討空屋、房屋價格及建商行為三方面是如何產生交互關係。房價及空屋亦會受到事件所影響,如奢侈稅、實價登錄等,都會使建商行為改變,進而影響至房價與空屋間的關連,本研究以供需模型探討供需因素、事件對於建築產業之展望,且以價格及空屋之構面分析,是代表供需對社會影響,當供給大於需求,會產生空屋,且價格會下降,由於建築業易受到房價及空屋及事件響,進而改變行為,因此我們將以價格與空屋做為研究建築產業的變數。

貳、文獻探討

建築業之發展受供給與需求因素影響甚大,當需求大於供給時,會帶來新房屋建造以及房屋價格上漲,但是如果供給大於需求時,會帶來供過於求,而形成市場之飽和、衰退,如空屋問題產生、房屋市場泡沫化。而供需基本的理論來自於凱因斯理論,價格與數量會受到供需之決定,本節探討供需相關之研究,以明瞭供需所受影響之因素。從建築業的角度來看,供給面表現在建築執照樓地板面積及使用執照樓地板面積,彭建文等(1998)研究指出,使照面積與建照面積之間存在穩定的長期關係,但因景氣不佳時建照可能會取消,使得長期建照面積大於使照面積。且建商會依房地產景氣變動而調整興建,景氣好時則興建多,景氣不好時則興建少,由此可得知,不動產市場景氣的變化亦會影響到市場供給。

需求方面,張金鴞(2004)認為房地產的需求是在指某一個時期,特定類型的房地產次市場中,不同的價格所對應的需求量。而因房地產具有投資及消費雙重性,因此房地產的需求可分為兩類,即居住需求



與非居住需求。居住需求又可分為第一次購屋需求與換屋的需求;非居住需求也分為兩種,即短期的投機與長期的投資需求。由上述文獻可得知,不動產市場受供需因素及事件因素影響相當大,而供需因素又各自包含許多因素,在供給方面,如建商之行為、想法、理性,在需求方面包括經濟成長、金融、消費者的行為、想法、理性,在事件方面包括短期、長期因素,包括預期的但未實際發生,或由事件所引起的預期、認知、不理性行為等。是故,在建築行為方面探討應從全面性(Holistic)及系統性(Systematic)之角度與模型探討來看是最好的,且應考慮行為、績效、效果等因素之動態性(Dynamic)以符合本研究所介紹的動態均衡觀點。

一、 房屋價格相關研究

房屋價格在不動產市場上扮演著極重要的位置,房屋價格的上漲可以促使建商興建新房屋,也可使 消費者願意購買來投資,反之亦然。因此本節探討有關房屋價格之相關理論。而房屋價格可以分為基本 面、及總體環境面來分析。

(一) 基本面對房屋價格的影響

房屋價格的上漲或下跌,會受到許多因素影響。於基本面來說明,Li & Chand(2013)為了瞭解中國市場基本面對房價的影響,採用來自全中國 29 個省份,時間為 1998 年至 2009 年的成交數據為研究樣本進行迴歸分析,研究結果發現房屋價格在某種程度上受到即將到來的婚姻、可支配收入、用戶成本及建築成本這些經濟基本面因素影響最大,其次才是利率。而研究亦表明不同層級的房屋價格與當地經濟狀況較發達的省份較高的價格水準。基本面的需求因素中,李佳珍等(2012)以臺北市為研究對象,並為了解其房屋價格波動劇大之原因,研究結果發現人口數與家庭所得無顯著之關係,表示人口多的區域並代表高所得,這顯示為何臺北市各區域人口變化量不多,但房屋價格卻波動明顯。而家庭所得與房屋價格具有顯著之困果關係,這說明了臺北市近年來因經濟的成長,帶動家庭所得的提升,連帶影響了房屋價格上漲,結果代表家庭所得的增加對於房屋價格有明顯之影響。實際社會中,臺北市的家庭所得普遍高於其他都市,由此亦印證高的房屋價格需要較高的家庭所得水準支撐。

基本面供給因素中,Algieri(2013)探討房屋價格上漲幅度劇烈之原因,其研究引入一個隱藏因素,並建構一個未觀察到組成部份的方法來模擬房價,將利率、收入、通貨膨脹、人口成長、住宅投資和股票價格,這些可能會影響實際房價的因素控制住。實證結果證實真實的房價表現出對經濟基本面和潛在因素的依賴。

(二) 總體環境面對房屋價格的影響

房屋價格除了受基本面的影響外,亦受不動產市場景氣的變化所改變,如彭建文等(2000)以預期景氣及政策宣告效果對房地產研究中,研究結果發現當政策提前被建商所得知時,建築將無視市場的不景氣而大量地搶建,且建照面積的增長則會使房屋價格及租金下跌,這說明政府在未真正實行政策前,如提早宣布則會帶來不理性行為,因此政策的宣布時機必須謹慎選擇,避免選在市場不景氣下實施。但李春長等(2012)針對公共建設、環境品質及不動產景氣探討對房屋價格之影響研究中,則認為景氣具



有調節效果。結果顯示房屋價格於景氣擴張時期較景氣低迷時期高,在市區與郊外差異性中,當景氣佳, 則郊區房屋價格比其他地區低,這些都證明景氣確實具有調節效果作用,景氣除了對於價格漲跌有影響 外,其對於房屋特徵及市郊差異性亦有影響。

且禁怡純等(2014)建構一模型來研究房屋價格不對稱均衡調整與誤差修正,分析結果發現房屋價格與變數的長期關係及短期修正可能為非線性,且房屋價格的上下整合為不對稱模式,房屋價格往上修正是顯著且快速,但往下修正並無如此,這支持了房屋價格有追漲不追跌之情況。研究認為房屋價格均衡調整為非線性調整原因可能來自不動產投資的兩個特點:其一為市場上的買賣者為非理性,另一則為市場流動性在不動產景氣及不景氣的變所致。

由上述文獻中可得知房屋價格並不會受單一因素決定,而是受許多方面之影響。在基本面、總體面,還有供給與需求方面的觀念、行為之影響,除了理性探討外也有些不理性的因素存在,故房屋價格是很難決定或有任何理論可以預測。可能必須綜合基本面、供需因素、總體環境,還必須考慮供需方之行為之動態影響下來看價格受那些因素的影響,絕非從單一因果關係。如果再考慮總體環境之氛圍,是多頭市場,更會助漲投機、投資之需求,使房價上漲,而形成供給增加,但價格也增加,而又促進建商增加同類產品之建築量,形成非從供需理論單一的因果關係,是本研究想從動態多元方向探討的原因。

二、空屋相關研究

空屋對於不動產市場而言,是需求面的代表,空屋數量的高低會影響著市場的供需平衡,如果數量多,消費者選擇也多,建商就不會再興建新房屋,反之,數量減少,消費者的選擇減少,進而轉向新房屋,如此一來,建商便會興建新房屋。本節探討空屋相關之理論,而理論大致分為二種,其一為空屋形成,其二為影響空屋因素。林佳蓉等(2003)年中為研究臺灣市場空屋過多之問題中,提出二大空屋逃思:一是空屋持有人為何不將以出租或賣;另一則是探討都市發展與地價對空屋率影響,實證結果發現,空屋率受地價影響相當顯著,且兩者關係為正向,即地價越高之地區,因投資需求及建商看好市場增加供給,且地價高之房屋不易脫手,因此空屋率會較高。而都市發展之程度對空屋數亦成顯著影響,這說明當都市發展程度較低時,經濟發展亦低,故空屋率較高,且於總體空屋來看,當人口密度、經濟服務支出與稅課收入等較差時,會有較高之空屋率。

相同的觀點發生在 Hoekstar&Vakili-zad(2009)以西班牙為對象之研究,其研究為何西班牙之高空屋率及高房價同時存在之現象。研究結果發現有四個主要因素使得空屋率增加,(1)家庭文化,擁有房地產投資,(2)眾多農村人口向城市遷移,(3)家庭獲得住房補貼之作用,(4)嚴格的房租管制和保護租戶。但以上四個因素只能解釋一部份高空屋率的存在。高空屋率並沒有使房屋價格持平甚至下降,其問題在於空開房屋並沒有實際存在於住宅市場上,那些持有空屋者通常不是為了提供市場買賣而存在,只要房屋價格不斷上漲,就沒有賣出的必要。

空屋與房屋價格是影響不動產市場最主要之因素,空屋與房屋價格間更是有著密不可分的關係,如彭建文(2004)發現臺灣各縣市空屋率偏高,但房屋價格卻仍然持續上漲,研究結果發現,房屋價格對於空屋率的影響為負,這代表當價格增長時,因持有者成本增加而帶來負面效果,使得供給變多需求減少,因此空屋率會降低,且房屋價格為影響空屋率最重要的因素,房屋價格的上漲會抑制空屋率的上



升,此外,研究中除房屋價格外,家戶所得對空屋率的影響力亦是甚大,因此研究中推估國內空屋率上 升現象的原因,並非由於自然空屋率所造成,而是因為家戶所得的增加,使得人民更有能力負擔房屋成 本或購置第二屋。

由上述文獻可得知,空屋受許多因素影響,且空屋受定義之影響甚大,一般人認為供過於求的存貨是空屋,而事實上空屋是有需求之房屋,投資需求、投機需求,皆會形成購買。但是閒置之情形,並非供過於求之存貨。所以高的閒置房屋,代表那方面的需求仍存在,只是沒住而己,並非供過於求之房屋,是房屋所有M型化現象。就以臺灣長期存在的現象而言,空閒房屋多,但仍有需求,並非一定是供過於求,反而有些符合市場需求的房屋,仍被搶購,而形成閒置房屋,尤其最近之利率偏低,持有成本低會造成更多的空閒房屋,同時伴隨著高的房價及高的供給與需求,是一個不理性的現象,值得本研究探討其原因。

參、研究方法

一、研究架構

本研究以供需模型探討實質房價及空屋對建築產業行為的影響,研究架構如圖 4。依供需理論供給面、需求面與事件變數對建築績效的影響外,特別強調價格及空屋因素影響之建築產業之情形,而效果則又對供需關係造成變動,其中價格與空屋是內生變數(Endogenous Variables),因此進而使用二階最小平方法(2SLS)來探討對效果層面的空屋數及房屋價格的影響。主要強調市場之動態性,從市場動態來看,空屋、價格受哪些因素影響,而且本研究強調實質價值(Real term),來消除長期所造成的名目價值(nominal term)提升問題。

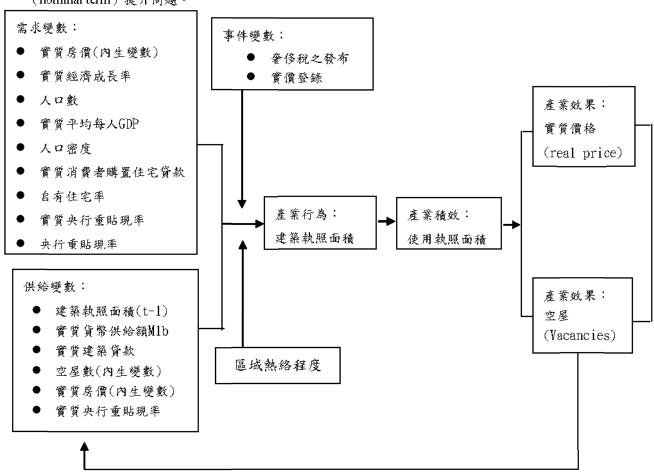


圖 1 研究架構



二、量表設計

本研究將建築業受供給面與需求面可能會影響產業環境變數,資料收集是以臺灣建築房屋歷年來供需資料,主要是以內政部公布的統計資料為主,並參考主計處、中央銀行等公家機關所發布具有可信度的次級資料進行分析。本研究為使研究變數能更增加反映真實市場,因此考慮通貨膨脹問題,變數皆除以消費者物價指數(CPI),其中包含貨幣供給額(M1b)、房屋價格、建築貸款、央行重貼現率、經濟成長率、平均每人GDP、購置住宅貸款,研究範圍包括2000年至2013年。本研究將變數區分為供給面變數、需求面變數、事件變數、區域變數等部份進行分析。

由於各變數差異甚大,本研究先以單位做標準化,使其差距縮少,自變數與依變數間之關係,迴歸模型非完全線性,故本研究對依變數及自變數採取自然對數(Ln)之方法加以標準化,使預測函數變成非線性之假設,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:

Ln(使用執照樓地板面積)=

b0 + b1Ln(實質貨幣供給額 M1b) + b2Ln(實質建築貸款) + b3Ln (空屋數) + b4Ln(實質房價) + b5Ln(實質經濟成長率) + b6Ln(人口數) + b7Ln (實質平均每人 GDP) + b8Ln(人口密度) + b9Ln(實質購置住宅貸款) + b10Ln(自有住宅率) + b11Ln(實質央行重貼現率) + b12(奢侈稅) + b13(實價登錄) + b14(區域熱絡程度) + b15(建築執照樓地板面積(t-1)) + e (公式 1)

本研究針對變數預期結果如下:

b0≠0

 $b1 \cdot b2 \cdot b5 \cdot b6 \cdot b7 \cdot b8 \cdot b9 \cdot b10 \cdot b11 \cdot b15 > 0$

b4<0

b12 · b13 · b14=?

本研究依上述迴歸模型內之變數說明,如表1。



表	1 迴	歸模	型	變數
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系數編號	依變數:使用執照樓地板面積	單位數
小 · 英人 ※明 》元		平10-数
	供給面變數:	
b ₁	實質貨幣供給額 M1b	新臺幣仟億元
b ₂	實質建築貸款餘額	新臺幣仟億元
bз	空屋數	Á
b ₁₅	建築執照樓地板面積(1-1)	仟平方公尺
	需求面變數:	
b5	實質經濟成長率	%
b6	人口數	仟人
b ₇	實質平均每人 GDP	新臺幣仟元
bв	人口密度	人/平方公里
b9	實質購置住宅貸款	新臺幣十億元
b10	自有住宅率	%
	同屬供給面與需求面變數:	
b4	實質房屋價格	萬元/坪
b11	實質央行重貼現率	%
	 事件變數:	
b ₁₂	奢侈稅	虚擬變數(推行年度為1,其他
		年度為 0)
b ₁₃	實價登錄制度	虛擬變數(推行年度為1,其他
		年度為 0)
	區域變數:	
b14	區域熱絡程度	指數

肆、實證分析

本研究以動態市場模型探討供需因素、事件變數及區域變數對建築產業績效及行為的影響,建築產業容易受市場環境影響,且市場環境是屬於動態,所以變數間會互相影響,故本研究以二階段最小平方法模型(Two-stage least square method, 2SLS)進行建築產業績效與行為之動態市場模型分析。

本研究對動態市場進行分析,分別以使用執照面積、建造執照面積、空屋數、實質房屋價格為依變數,進行二階段最小平方法分析,模型如表 2。二階段最小平方法,主要是分析各變數間相互因果關聯之關係為何,故不針對其解釋力大小作衡量。



表 2 動態市場模型變數

模型	模型一	模型二	模型三	模型四
依變數	使用執照面積	建築執照面積	空屋數	實質房屋價格
	**建築執照面積	**空屋數	**使用執照面積	**空屋數
	(t-1)	**實質房屋價格	**實質房屋價格	**使用執照面積
	人口密度	人口密度	人口密度	人口密度
	實質經濟成長率	實質經濟成長率	實質購置住宅貸	實質購置住宅貸
ÅT TI	實質央行重貼現	實質央行重貼現	款	款
解 釋 變 數	率	率	實質經濟成長率	實質經濟成長率
變數	自有住宅率	自有住宅率	實質央行重貼現	實質央行重貼現
₩	區域熱絡程度	區域熱絡程度	率	率
	奢侈稅	奢侈稅	自有住宅率	自有住宅率
	實價登錄制度	實價登錄制度	區域熱絡程度	區域熱絡程度
			奢侈稅	奢侈稅
			實價登錄制度	實價登錄制度
	##空屋數(t-1)	##使用執照面積	##建築執照面積	##建築執照面積
	##實質房屋價格	人口密度	(t-1)	(t-1)
	(t-1)	實質經濟成長率	人口密度	人口密度
	人口密度	實質央行重貼現	實質購置住宅貸	實質購置住宅貸
	實質經濟成長率	率	款	款
	實質央行重貼現	自有住宅率	實質經濟成長率	實質經濟成長率
	率	區域熱絡程度	實質央行重貼現	實質央行重貼現
外	自有住宅率	奢侈稅	率	率
外生變數	區域熱絡程度	實價登錄制度	自有住宅率	自有住宅率
數	奢侈稅	實質M1b	區域熱絡程度	區域熱絡程度
	實價登錄制度	人口數	奢侈稅	奢侈稅
	實質M1b	實質購置住宅貸	實價登錄制度	實價登錄制度
	人口數	款	實質M1b	實質M1b
	實質購置住宅貸	實質平均每人	人口數	人口數
	款	GDP	實質建築貸款	實質建築貸款
	實質平均每人		實質平均每人	實質平均每人
	GDP		GDP	GDP

註一:**代表內生變數,##為預測內生變數用(工具變數)



(一) 建築績效分析(P):以使用執照面積為依變數

本研究依照二階段最小平方法模型,對於使用執照面積、前一期建築執照面積等之間的互動關係 及影響作分析與說明,藉由二階最小平方法分析其結果,如表 3。

表 3 使用執照面積為依變數之二階最小平方法分析

依變數:LN(使用執照面積)

14. Tr	未標準化係數		標準化係數		ያና ጎሪ ነ ህ
模式	B之估計值	標準誤差	Beta	t	顯著性
(常數)	246	2.436		101	.920
LN(建築執照面積(t-1))	1.024	.026	1.025	40.007***	.000
奢侈稅	226	.097	076	-2.329*	.010
實價登錄	.158	.114	.045	1.386	.083
LN(實質經濟成長率)	2.394	.899	.061	2.661**	.004
LN(實質央行重貼現率)	065	.047	031	-1.386	.083
LN(區域熱絡程度)	010	.014	015	691	.245
LN(自有住宅率)	010	.533	.000	018	.493
LN(人口密度)	.018	.021	.020	.837	.202

*** : P<0.001 ; ** : P<0.01 ; * : P<0.05

F=265.849*** N=280

註:SPSS 統計軟體內建為雙尾檢定,本研究將其調整為單尾

1、建築執照面積(t-1)

建築執照面積(t-1)對使用執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=40.007***, p=.000),顯示建築行為增加,建築績效亦會跟著提高。這符合現行之法規規定,須先申請建築執照而後等房屋興建完成,才能再申請使用執照,因此本研究認為建築行為確實會影響至建築績效。

2、奢侈稅

奢侈稅對使用執照面積呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=-2.329**, p=.010)顯示法令的實施確定會影響建築績效。此法令對於想利用購屋短期投資及投機者無非是一種成本增加,進而影響購買意願,使建商銷售量減少,故對建築績效帶來負向影響,因此本研究認為事件因素是會影響建築績效。

3、實質經濟成長率

實質經濟成長率對使用執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=2.661**, p=.004), 顯示國家經濟成長高



低對於建商績效有明顯之影響。國家的經濟好壞,必然會衝擊至建築產業,若經濟持續成長,代表國家 企業及人民之消費、投資非常熱絡,進而帶動房地產市場之運作,因此經濟景氣對於建商績效是有影響。

(二)建商行為分析(P):以建築執照面積為依變數

本研究依照二階段最小平方法模型,對於建照面積、空屋數及房屋交易價格之間的互動關係及相互 影響作分析與說明,藉由二階最小平方法分析其結果,如下表 4:

表 4 建築執照面積為依變數之二階最小平方法分析

依變數:LN(建築執照面積)

模型	未標準化係數		標準化係數	+	顯著性
(天空	B 之估計值	標準誤差	Beta	ι	網看生
(常數)	-33.751	9.182		-3.676	.000
LN(空屋數)	.640	.149	.496	4.307***	.000
LN(實質房價)	5.295	1.349	1.616	3.925***	.000
奢侈稅	.401	.323	.133	1.240	.108
實價登錄	-1.394	.555	396	-2.511**	.006
LN(實質經濟成長率)	8.221	2.943	.208	2.794**	.003
LN(實質央行重貼現率)	409	.175	189	-2.339**	.010
LN(區域熱絡程度)	011	.051	016	211	.417
LN(自有住宅率)	5.680	1.948	.236	2.916**	.002
LN(人口密度)	717	.208	801	-3.444***	.000

*** : P<0.001 ; ** : P<0.01 ; * : P<0.05

Adi R²=0.418 · F=23.231*** · N=280

註:SPSS統計軟體內建為雙尾檢定,本研究將其調整為單尾

1. 空屋數

空屋數對建築執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=4.307***, p=.000),顯示空屋數量越多,建築執照面積亦跟著提高,此結果與本研究預期不待。其原因可能為空屋數量的增加,是因為市場上有投資或投機的需求,而形成的空閑房屋,並不影響市場的供給,且建商亦會因應此需求而繼續新建新房屋,因此才會使得空屋數量的成長帶動建築執照之增加。

2. 實質房價

實質房價對建築執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=3.925***,p=.000),顯示房屋價格越高,建商便會增加其建築行為。房屋價格的高低會影響至建商的獲利情形,因此房價若是上漲,建商銷售房屋利益增加,便會申請較多之建築執照,即是增加其建築行為,藉此希望能獲得較多收益,故房屋價格確實會影響至建築行為。



3. 實價登錄制度

實價登錄制度對建築執照面積呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=-2.511**, p=.006),代表資訊透明 化下,建商抱持觀望態度,減少申請建築執照,這也說明政府實施實價登錄制度,使得房屋價格 公開,會令建商減少建築行為。

4. 實質經濟成長率

實經濟成長率對建築執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=2.794**,p=.003),顯示經濟成長越高,建築行為便會增加,這與本研究預期相符。國家的經濟成長會影響建築產業,在經濟良好情況下,無論是消費者、投資及投機者都較有意願購買房屋,因此建商會增加申請建築執照。

5. 實質央行重貼現率

實質央行重貼現率對建築執照面積呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=-2.339**, p=.010),顯示利率越低,建商之行為卻增加,這與本研究預期相符。利率若低,建商於貸款資金時,成本及負擔相對減少,便有意願借款興建新房屋,因此利率對建築行為是負向影響。

6. 自有住宅率

自有住宅率對建築執照面積呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=2.916**,p=.002),顯示自有住宅率越高,建商便會增加其建築行為,這與本研究預期不符。自有住宅率高代表住者有其屋,因此對於需求較少,建商便會減少申請建築執照,但分析結果卻是相反,其原因可能為自有住宅率高,消費者都已擁有自住房屋後,便會往購置第二屋做為投資或投機,因此建商才會增加其建築行為以因應需求,故自有住宅率會影響至建築行為。

7. 人口密度

人口密度對建築執照面積呈現負向影響且具顯著性(E=-3.444***, p=.000),顯示人口密度高的地區,建商會減少其建築行為,這與本研究預期不符。其原因可能為人口密度高之地區,代表都市化較高之區域,房地產市場發展較為成熟,能夠興建之土地亦較少,因此建商會降低申請建築執照,使得建築行為減少。

(三) 產業效果分析(E): 以空屋數為依變數

本研究依照二階段最小平方法模型,對於使用執照、空屋數及房屋交易價格之間的互動關係及相互 影響作分析與說明,藉由二階最小平方法分析其結果,如表 5。



表 5 空屋數為依變數之二階最小平方法分析

依變數:LN 空屋數

模型	未標準化係數		標準化係數		
() () () () () () () () () ()	B之估計值	標準誤差	Beta	t	顯著性
(常數)	31.936	14.661		2.178	.030
LN(使用執照面積)	1.061	.199	1.352	5.340***	.000
LN(實質房價)	-3.916	2.310	-1.540	-1.695*	.046
奢侈稅	.149	.254	.064	.588	.279
實價登錄	1.032	.751	.378	1.374	.085
LN(實質購置住宅貸款)	444	.527	103	842	.200
LN(實質經濟成長率)	-1.497	2.263	049	661	.254
LN(實質重貼現率)	.167	.155	.100	1.082	.140
LN(區域熱絡程度)	001	.040	001	015	.494
LN(自有住宅率)	-4.132	2.197	221	-1.881 [*]	.031
LN(人口密度)	.543	.328	.781	1.655*	.050

*** : P<0.001; ** : P<0.01; * : P<0.05 Adi R²=0.434 , F=22.391*** , N=280

註:SPSS 統計軟體內建為雙尾檢定,本研究將其調整為單尾

1、使用執照面積

使用執照面積對空屋數呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=5.340***, p=.000),顯示使用執照面積越高,空屋數會跟著增加。其原因可能為使用執照面積代表著建商之產出,若建商興建之新房屋並未全數售出,便會形成存貸,也就是成為空屋,因此使用執照面積高,會使得空屋數提高,故使用執照面積對於空屋是有影響。

2、實質房屋價格

實質房屋價格對空屋數呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=1.695*, p=.046),顯示房屋價格越高,空屋數則會減少,這與常理不符。於消費面來說,價格提高,消費者負擔加重,購買意願會減少,空屋數會增加,本研究認為其原因可能為市場上供給方力量較大之因素,現今社會對於房屋的要求及需求都較高,建商於興建新成屋時亦會使用較先進之建材及工法,所完成之房屋品質相較以前佳,因此也會使得消費者有較高意願購買,而使房屋價格高,空屋數減少之情況。

3、自有住宅率

自有住宅率對空屋數呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=1.881*, p=.031),顯示自有住宅率越高,空屋數會減少,這與本研究預期相符。自有住宅率係指住者有其所,若自有住宅率高,代表消費者購買房屋行為增加,這使市場上的空屋數因而降低。



4、人口密度

人口密度對空屋數呈現正向相關且具顯著性(t=1.655*, p=.050),顯示人口密度高,空屋數亦多,這與常理不符。人口密度高代表人口數多且土地相對狹隘,對於房屋需求應較高,但實證結果卻是相反,本研究認為其原因有可能是因人口密度高之區域,通常為都市化地區,市場交易熱絡,投資或投機者需求較高,進而行成空閑房屋,造成人口密度越高,空屋數也越高。

(四) 產業效果分析(E):以房屋價格為依變數

本研究依照二階段最小平方法模型,對於房屋交易價格、空屋數及使用執照之間的互動關係及相互 影響作分析與說明,藉由二階最小平方法分析其結果,如表 6:

表 6 實質房屋價格為依變數之二階最小平方法分析

依變數:LN 實質房屋價格

模型	未標準化係數		標準化係數	+	顯著性
	B之估計值	標準誤差	Beta	t	網 者 13E
(常數)	5.893	1.639		3.595	.000
LN(使用執照面積)	.097	.033	.313	2.940**	.002
LN(空屋數)	019	.040	049	478	.317
奢侈稅	.006	.063	.007	.095	.462
實價登錄	.300	.068	.279	4.433***	.000
LN(實質經濟成長率)	217	.552	018	394	.347
LN(實質重貼現率)	.039	.031	.059	1.235	.109
LN(實質購置住宅貸款)	158	.093	093	-1 .700*	.045
LN(自有住宅率)	798	.318	108	-2.505**	.006
LN(區域熱絡程度)	.008	.009	.039	.920	.179
LN(人口密度)	.140	.013	.513	11.162***	.000

*** : P<0.001 ; ** : P<0.01 ; * : P<0.05

Adj R2=0.586 , F=40.465*** , N=280

註:SPSS統計軟體內建為雙尾檢定,本研究將其調整為單尾

1、使用執照面積

使用執照面積對實質房屋價格呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=2.940**,p=.002),顯示建築產出越多,房屋價格便會上漲。使用執照代表建商之產出,而產出增加,會使價格降低,但於分析結果卻顯示正向成長,其原因可能是隨著社會的進步及經濟發展,人民對於房屋越來越注重,且對於建造房屋之法規亦更加嚴格,因此建商為符合需求,於新建房屋時會使用較貴之建材、設計,如綠建築,使新成屋品質較佳,這不止讓建商興建成本增加,亦帶動房屋價格的成長,因此建築產量越多,價格隨之提高。



2、空屋數

空屋數對實質房屋價格呈現負向影響且不具顯著性 (t=.478, p=.317),顯示空屋數的多寡並不會明顯地影響房屋價格。於供需法則之下,若空屋數上升,房屋價格便會下跌,但於分析結果來看,卻是不顯著,本研究認為原因可能有二點,第一點,市場上所存在之空屋,並不符合市場需求,是謂老舊空屋;第二點,為一人同時持有多戶,為投資及投機者所形成之空閉房屋,因此造成空屋數量對於房屋價格無明顯之影響。

3、實價登錄制度

實價登錄制度對實質房屋價格呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=4.433***,p=.000),顯示實施實價登錄制度後,房屋價格上漲。政府實施實價登錄制度,原意是為使房屋價格透明化,進而讓價格修正,不被投資、投機者及建商隨意哄抬價格,但分析結果卻是成正向影響,本研究認為原因可能為在多頭行情下,若成交價格高於一般市場行情,建商及賣方便能藉此為正常理由,開出更高的價格,而消費者亦會追高,便有「助漲」之功用,因此實價登錄制度對於房屋價格是有正向之影響。

4、實質購置住宅貸款

實質購置住宅貸款對實質房屋價格呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=-1.700*,p=.045),顯示購置住宅貸款降低,會使得房屋價格上漲。本研究認為其原因可能為現今消費者之購買力越來越強,所需貸款金額較少,且政府對於購屋貸款有較嚴謹之法令規定,而形成購屋貸款少會使房屋價格提高。

5、自有住宅率

自有住宅率對實質房屋價格呈現負向影響且具顯著性(t=-2.505**,p=.006),顯示自有住宅率越高,房屋價格越低。自有住宅率代表市場上之自住需求,若消費者自住比率高,即是對於買房需求下降,需求下降,建商所新推出之建案及中古屋便乏人問津,導致房屋價格下跌。

6、人口密度

人口密度對實質房屋價格呈現正向影響且具顯著性(t=11.162***,p=.000),顯示人口密度高, 房屋價格越高。人口密度代表一地區之人口數量密集度,若人口密度高,即是人口數多(需求高), 但土地少(供給數有限),這種情況下,需求大於供給,便有助房屋價格上升,且人口密度高之地 區,通常為較都市化,因此無論是自住需求或是投資、投機需求都比起其他縣市更高,進而帶動 房屋價格的上漲。

綜合上述,藉由二階段最小平方法的分析模型中,如圖 5 可探討出使用執照面積、建築執照面積、空屋數、實質房屋價格、奢侈稅、實價登錄制度等相關變數之間的關聯性。實質房屋價格對於建築執照面積呈現正影響,代表房屋價格,即效果確實會影響建築行為,房屋價格高,代表新建房屋利益提高,因此建商會增加建築活動。實質房屋價格與空屋數之間皆呈現負影響,而實證結果,實質房屋價格對空屋顯著,而空屋數對實質房屋價格卻不顯著,這顯示市場上供給方大量較大,空屋數的增加並不會明顯地影房屋價格,而空屋數增加之原因可能是投資及投機需求而形成之空閑房屋,以及存在著結構性房屋,即是老舊房屋。空屋數對於建築執照面積呈現正影響,其原因可能為投資、投機者有購屋之需求,進而使建商增加產量。建築執照面積對於使用執照面積呈現正影響,即是建築行為會影響建築績效,亦符合



建築法規。使用執照面積,即是建築績效,對於空屋數、實質房屋價格皆呈正影響,代表著績效確實會影響效果。事件方面,奢侈稅對於使用執照面績呈現負向影響,代表此法令對於建商之績效是有一定程度之負面效用,因而減少建築績效。而實價登錄制度,對實質房屋價格,呈現正相關,代表在多頭行情下,因資訊透明化,反而有助於價格之上漲。

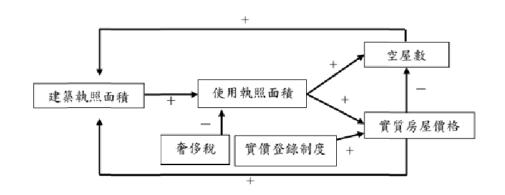


圖 5 市場模型相關變數之影響

伍、結論與建議

本研究透過靜態及動態研究模型的實證分析,證實結構(S)-行為(C)-績效(P)-效果(E)模型的確能運用於建築產業中。於動態市場模型下,本研究發現實質房屋價格與空屋之間皆為負向影響,但惟實質房價對空屋呈現單向顯著(t=-1.695*,p=.046),這代表著房屋價格,並不受空屋數的成長所影響,此現象可說明為何現今臺灣房地產市場空屋數量增加,房屋價格卻日漸高漲。

建築執照對使用執照(t=40.007***, p=.000)、使用執照對於空屋(t=5.340***, p=.000)與對房屋價格(t=2.940**, p=.002)、空屋(t=4.307***, p=.000)與實質房屋價格(t=3.925***, p=.000)對建築執照皆為正向影響且顯著,這驗證了(圖 1),建築行為(建築執照)會影響建築績效(使用執照),建築績效(建築執照)會影響效果(空屋與價格),而效果(空屋與價格)會再回到開頭影響建築行為(建築執照),形成一循環,此循環代表建築業之流程,亦證明本研究使用S-C-P-E之研究架構是正確的。

事件因素方面,奢侈稅對於使用執照為負向且顯著(t=-2.329*,p=.010),說明此法令確實會影響至建商績效,亦代表建商會受到事件因素而改變產出。而實價登錄制度對實質房價呈現正向且顯著(t=4.433***,p=.000),即實施此制度,不但不會抑制價格,反而使之上漲,其原因是現今市場為多頭市場,若資訊透明化,建商能開高價,且消費者亦會追高,進而形成「助漲」。

本研究根據實證分析,針對研究結論,提出以下建議。

一、市場上空屋逐年增加,但房屋價格經由實證分析並不受空屋影響,價格持續上漲,而從自有住 宅率來看,幾乎已達到 90%,本研究認為是房屋 M 型化所致,且此現象會日漸嚴重,因社會貧富差距所 形成之 M 型化,購買力較強之消費群一人能持有多戶,導致市場上空屋增加,但對於社會底層,消費力 較低之消費群卻是購買不起房屋,此社會現象是值得詳細研究解決辦法。而本研究認為市場上之空屋存



在著結構性空屋,係指老舊性房屋,此類型房屋並不符合現今民眾需求,對於市場無供給之功用,若能 將此些房屋拆除或改建以符合社會要求,可使空屋過剩之問題改善。

二、政府推行奢侈稅及實價登錄之原意,是想使高漲的房屋價格能夠回穩或下跌至合理範圍,但於實證分析下,奢侈稅對於價格並不具影響力,而實價登錄制度卻成為價格助漲之利器。在多頭行情之下,交易價格的公開透明化,反而會使得投資人信心增加,購入更多房屋以利投資及投機,且消費者亦會追高,進而買入高價房屋,因而形成房屋價格不斷飆漲之情況,因此政策或法規之推行,應考慮環境因素不同之影響。

二、實務意涵

從前面之結論與建議分析,本研究針對此實證結果,提出以下幾個實務意涵;

(一)變數為實質方式計算

本研究之研究樣本皆以實質方式計算,即是將通貨膨脹加以考慮進去,使得變數更能符合現今社會之發展,亦能更貼切及真實反映房地產市場之波動,如房屋價格方面,實質方式計算能消除因通膨而導致之價格上漲,扣除通膨之數值更能代表出實際真正之變化,因此對於建商及政府,實質數據更值得參考。

(二)空屋的重新定義

消費者對於空屋之定義,普遍認為是未賣出之新屋、空置無人居住之房屋,因為如此,對於房地產市場房屋價格持續上漲而感到困惑,空屋數若是逐年增加,為何房屋價格還是居高不下。本研究重新定市場上之空屋,分為三類,第一類,為投資及投機需求而形成之空開房屋,是一人持有多戶之現象;第二類,房屋為老舊空屋,係指結構性空屋,這類型之空屋並不被現今市場需求所接受,且隨著時間流逝,此類型房屋亦會持續增加;第三類,為建商集體不理性之下,所興建之新房屋。此三類房屋,會導致市場上空屋數逐年成長,卻無法使房屋價格下跌之原因。因此要解決臺灣房地產空屋過多之現象,可以實施都市更新計畫,將老舊之空屋拆除,重新興建為符合現今消費者需求之房屋,或是採取相關之稅法規定,使得因投資及投機需求的房屋能減少,亦可避免因這類型需求而使得價格被炒作上漲。

(三) 房地產市場供需力量的不平衡

本研究於實證分析結果發現,房屋價格(t=3.159**, p=.001)與空屋數(t=9.585***, p=.000)對於使用 執照面積皆為正向影響且顯著,代表市場上價格上升與空屋數增加皆會使建築績效增加,但空屋數對於 房屋價格並無明顯之影響(t=-.478, p=.317),這顯示供給方力量大於需求方之現象,代表於房地產市場 中,縱然需求不足,建商仍受到供給力量的推動而繼續興建。

(四)資訊透明化形成之「助漲」

實價登錄制度原是政府打壓房價之政策,但本研究經由實證分析發現,實價登錄制度對於房屋價格 呈現正向影響(t=4.435***,p=.000),本研究認為,在資訊透明化下,若市場為多頭行情,若成交價格 提高,建商與賣方能藉此增加售價,且消費者也會因此而追高,使房屋價格持續上漲,因此會「助漲」;



但若市場為空頭行情,建商與賣方無法隨意哄抬價格,消費者也能藉此使賣方與建商降低價格,因此會「助跌」。由此發現可得知,政府於實施打房政策時,須考量市場行情,若只是一昧的想打壓房屋價格, 反而會適得其反,得到反向效果。

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基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的相關性研究:以廣西壯族自治區縣級基層公務員為例

A Study on the Correlation between Career Anchor and Job Satisfaction of the Grass-roots Civil Servants: Taking the Grass-roots Civil Servants of Town of Guangxi province

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摘要

本文旨在探究基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的相關關係。有效瞭解和認識基層公務員的職業生涯定位及其對工作的滿意程度,能夠為提升行政工作的穩定性,對於發展高素質、高效率的基層公務員隊伍提供建設性的幫助。本研究以問卷調查的方式對廣西壯族自治區 X縣 182 名基層公務員進行了調查分析,結果發現不同個體背景的基層公務員其職業生涯定位和工作滿意度存在顯著差異,同時基層公務員所重視的職業生涯定位不同時,其工作滿意度也不同。最後結合調查結果針對基層公務員的培養和管理提出一定的建議。

關鍵字:基層公務員;職業生涯定位;工作滿意度

ABSTRACT

The present thesis aims to explore the correlation between career anchor and job satisfaction of the grass-roots civil servants. Understanding the grass-roots civil servants' career anchor and job satisfaction is a Constructive help to enhance the stability of administrative work and development of high quality, high efficiency of the grass-roots civil servant team. The present study use questionnaire methode to investigate and analysis 182 grass-roots civil servants of X town of Guangxi province. The result is that different individul background of the grass-roots civil servants have significant differences with career anchor and job satisfaction. Meanwhile, when the grass-roots civil servants pay attention to different career anchor, their job satisfaction is also different. At last, according to the result of the investigation puts forward certain suggestions for training and management of grass-roots civil servants.

Keywords: The Grass-Roots Civil Servant, Career Anchor, Job Satisfaction.



壹、緒論

隨著國家經濟水準的不斷提升和社會生活的不斷發展,伴隨而來的經濟、文化、社會治理等問題也越來越複雜,承擔在政府肩上的社會公共治理責任也日益重大。公務員是政府組織的行政主體,是政府一切行政活動的實施者和貫徹者,是政府的人才資源。能否將社會轉型期的重大任務肩負好、完成好,取決於公務員工作素質,更取決於公務員們穩定、正確的職業價值觀和積極、努力的工作態度。這些重點便體現于公務員的職業生涯定位和工作滿意度上。在現代人力資源管理理論的實踐拓展的背景下,政府對於公務員的管理也逐漸從傳統的以"事"中心的人事行政向"以人為本"的理念轉變。基層公務員是最貼近廣大人民群眾的公務員群體,他們更為直接的為廣大人民服務、更貼切的感受和反應民生。因此,有必要對基層公務員的職業生涯管理開展研究,通過對基層公務員的職業生涯定位、工作滿意度及其相互關係的研究將有利於引導基層公務員開展正確的職業規劃,穩定公務員隊伍,提升基層公務員隊伍的行政效率和戰鬥力,從而提升政府的行政能力,更好的為廣大人民服務。

貳、文獻探討

一、職業生涯定位

職業生涯定位理論(career anchor)又稱職業鉛理論,是由美國麻省理工學院斯隆管理研究院愛德格·H·施恩(Edgar.H.Schein)教授在對該學院畢業生的職業生涯研究中演繹生成的。這一理論的形成經歷了12年時間,在這12年時間裏斯隆管理學院44名MBA專業畢業生自顧形成一個小組接受施恩教授的跟蹤研究。

(一) 職業生涯定位的內涵

任何在工作崗位上的人都應該對自己的職業生涯負責,許多研究發現個人職業生涯定位於其在職業上的發展以及個人工作滿意度之間存在著相關的聯繫,並影響著個人工作的選擇與去留。Schein(1978)認為職業生涯定位(career anchor)是指個人在工作環境中不斷發展,並積累經驗,形成對自己的能力、態度、價值觀等自我概念的知覺,進而依照這樣的職業期望,從社會現有的職業、工作或角色中挑選其一的過程,職業生涯定位的目的在於使自身能力素養和職業需求特徵相符。Schein 認為職業貓的形成與三個因素緊密相關:第一、自我感覺到的才能與能力(基於在經歷了多種工作後所體驗到的成就);第二、自我感覺到的動機和需求(基於在多種工作作業中的實際經驗);第三、自我感覺到的態度和價值觀(基於在不同的工作群體和組織中所遇到的多種行為標準和價值)。人們在做出自己的職業定位時,是在考慮上述的三個因素後得出的[1]。Delong(1982)認為職業生涯定位會引導並限制一個人未來工作生涯的抉擇,不論其自我意識的觀點正確與否[2]。DanielFeklman 和 Mark C. Bolino (1996)對 Schein 職業結理論模型進行了三個方面的補充與修訂:首先,他們提出了個體可能存在的職業錨的特點和數量的新的設想,並



且發掘出其他受職業鐑影響的職業相關的結果變數;其次,他們認為八種職業鐑是分別基於三個不同維度,即基於能力的、基於需求、和基於價值取向的維度;再次,在職業鐑的穩定性上,他們認為並不是所有的職業鐑都有一樣的穩定性和持久性。他們指出:在當今的經濟環境下,許多年輕人並沒有機會在多種組織中嘗試多種工作因此在工作不久的年輕人身上體現到的職業鐑與工作不匹配的現象廣泛存在[3]。

(二) 職業生涯定位的維度劃分

職業生涯定位因個人的生活、工作;個人的期望、情感、價值觀不同而不同,由此必定會存在多種類型的職業定位。因此學者們對職業生涯定位的類型、維度做了下列總結:

Delong(1982)認為主要有五種職業生涯定位模型:

- (1)安全性職務:安全性職務定位的人比較關心長期的安定和利益,他會視安全或安定為主要職業抉擇的因素,因此會穩在其所意願的組織保持穩定,並且與其他定位類型的員工相比, 他們更容易接受組織所給予的工作。
- (2)技術/專業性職務:技術/專業性職務定位人員會因為他們工作專業上的挑戰而受到刺激, 他們的自我實現常和他們在專業領域中的能力相結合,因而特別希望別人認同他們的專業 才能。
- (3)管理性職務:管理性職務定位人員會感知他們的職務是基於分析問題及維持情緒安定的能力。因此他們認為自己具有升至一般管理層所在的技能與價值,他們充滿升至的欲望,並通過行動獲取他人支持。
- (4) 創造性職務:創造力是企業家的基本要求之一。創造性定位的人會去尋找新的事物,嘗試 一些新計畫,創造出一些屬於自己的東西。通常,他們是專項工作中的核心人物。
- (5) 自主性職務:自主性職務定位的人,通常會覺得組織的限制太多,他們較多的關心本身的 自由與自主的感覺。因此會傾向於限制較少的工作。

Schein(1987)研究確認了八種生涯定位類型:

- (1)安全/穩定的定位:希望職位穩定有安全感。
- (2) 自主性/獨立的定位:自由和自主的感覺,比較不受組織的限制去追尋專業的職位。
- (3)管理職務的定位:從管理的工作和相關的人群關係得到滿足。
- (4)技術職務的定位:從技術領域或其他部門中的工作、挑戰得到滿足。
- (5) 企業家創造的定位:有創造、發明、發展新想法、新產品、服務的強烈欲望。
- (6) 服務/奉獻精神的定位:服務人群,造福世界的理想。
- (7)挑戰的定位:克服障礙,解決問題,與對手競爭。
- (8) 與生活結合的定位:整合對家庭的關心,對生涯的關切及自我發展的定位。



(三)國內外對職業生涯定位理論的應用性研究

Jane Yamall(1998)年對英國一家大型服務性組織中的374人進行了職業生涯定位的調查,研究顯示: 職業生涯定位在年齡和性別上不存在顯著的差異,但是處於不同等級結構中的員工其職業生涯定位有著顯著不同,管理型定位多數為職位高的人,安全和穩定性定位多數為低職位的人[4]。Magid Igbaria 等人針對研發和工程專業人員進行了職業錯類型的調查,研究結論得出,在這類人群中,服務型、安全穩定型和生活型職業錯的平均得分是最高的[5]。國內方面,潘梅英(2014)基於職業錯理論研究,試圖改善民辦高校輔導員發展平臺受限、社會認可度低、工資待遇差等職業發展困境。她認為可通過對民辦高校輔導員進行職業錯認定,以此為據對民辦高校輔導員進行有效的引導和激勵[6]。李麗,張力(2010)提出利用 schein 的職業錯理論引導國有企業員工職業發展,開發多重職業生涯規劃,並以此緩解國有企業員工"官本位"思想和天花板效應[7]。肖紅梅(2014)基於職業錯理論針對珠三角城市新生代農民工進行就業穩定性研究,研究結果表明:新生代農民工的性別、年齡、工作經驗、住宿條件、是否簽訂勞動合同及單位性質等會對其就業穩定性產生顯著影響[8]。

綜上所述,職業生涯定位受到員工工作經歷、年齡、性別、職位等級的影響,而良好的職業生涯定 位能夠對員工工作滿意度、工作穩定性起到作用,上述研究有效說明了職業生涯定位與工作滿意度存在 著聯繁,但較多涉及企業的研究和應用,對於公共部門而言是是否發生聯繁或者如何發生聯繫則有待探 究。

(三)工作滿意度

Hoppock(1933)首先提出了工作滿意度這一概念,他認為工作滿意是指工作這心裏與生理兩方面對環境因素的滿足感受,亦即工作者對工作情景的主觀[9]。

1、工作滿意度的內涵

(1) 綜合性的定義

它將工作滿意概念作一般性的解釋,即工作滿意只是一個單一的概念,主要闡釋工作者對其工作有關情境所保持的一種態度。

(2) 期望差距的定義

此定義重點在於:工作者期望所得與實際所得二者間的差距,若差距越大滿意度越小;若差 距越小,則滿意度越高。這表明工作者在實際工作中所獲得的回報與自身期望值相同,甚至 高出期望值,則會有較高的工作滿意度。

(3) 參考架構的定義

此定義認為工作滿意度是個人根據參考架構對於工作特性加以解釋後所得到的結果。也就是 說工作者對於工作的構面或特殊構面的情感反應。如 Alderfer(1972)依據生存需求,關係需求,



成長需求等層次,概括出影響工作滿意的七個構面:薪水、福利、上司、同事、安全、顧客 及成長[10]。

由上述研究得知工作滿意度綜合性定義僅僅是對工作滿意這一概念的廣義表述,期望差距定義可用 於個體期望對整體工作的比較研究,但研究範圍仍較單一,重點只在於個體的期望差距。參考構架的定 義從個體對客觀工作影響因素的情感反應做研究,更能反應多個客觀構面對工作者滿意度的影響。因此, 本研究將基於參考架構定義瞭解工作者在工作滿意上的變化。

(四)國內外對於工作滿意度的相關研究

國外學者在工作滿意度的內容性研究上具有舉足輕重的作用,如 Adams (1963)提出公平理論,他認為影響工作者工作滿意度的因素在於其所感知的投入與產出之間的公平性。如果工作者感知到公平則對工作滿意,相反則工作滿意度不高[11]。Herzber(1966)提出雙因素理論,他認為員工的工作滿意度主要受兩個方面因素決定,即激勵因素和保健因素。激勵因素包括成就感、認同感、工作的挑戰、晉升的機會和專業成長的機會等,保健因素包括領導技巧、人際關係、工作地位、工作穩定性和工作環境等等。激勵因素一旦具備對員工工作具有激勵作用,但這些因素沒有實現並不會對員工的工作滿意造成影響,而保健因素一旦沒有實現則會影響員工的工作滿意度和工作積極性,因此保健因素是必不可少的[12]。國內方面李豔紅,吳輝,餘善法 (2015)在探討民警工作滿意度的影響因素時通過對某市公安局 287 名民警進行抽樣研究時發現、民警的工作滿意度受年齡的影響較顯著,年齡較小的民警其工作滿意度不高;年齡較大的民警其工作滿意度較高[13]。鄭丹 (2015)在對社區護士工作滿意度研究中發現社區護士的工作滿意度受到護士個體差異、社區護士的工作機制及社區工作的外部環境影響[14]。

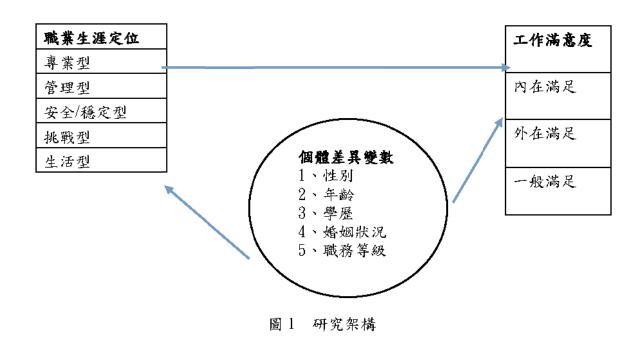
綜上所述,職業生涯定位以及工作滿意度理論經過幾十載的研究、發展,在國外正處於日臻完善的階段,而國內對於這兩方面的理論的研究仍處於起步階段,尚未建立起較為完善的理論構架,職業生涯定位理論較多應用與企業,對於公共部門的研究卻較少涉足。工作滿意度的研究對於公共部門有所涉足,但是,此類研究大多以工作滿意度為基點拓展到職業生涯理論的研究或者從年齡、工作經驗、等方面剖析工作滿意度,較少將員工的自我價值、期望與員工的工作滿意聯繁起來。因此希望通過本次研究為國內職業生涯定位和工作滿意度理論增添一筆文墨,並針對公共部門的相關理論做進一步探究。

參、研究方法

一、研究構架

通過上述文獻綜述的分析,本次研究將以廣西壯族自治區 X 縣基層公務員為物件,對基層公務員的 職業生涯定位以及工作滿意度做相關性研究,同時分析基層公務員的職業生涯定位類型和工作滿意度是 否受到個體差異的影響。根據本次研究目的建立起研究框架如下圖 1:





二、研究工具

本次研究借鑒中外關於職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的研究成果,結合當下我國公務員的工作實際編制兩個測量量表展開研究:職業生涯定位量表和工作滿意度測量量表。

為了保證測量量表的信度和效度,通過查閱相關文獻資料,仔細考量量表維度分析和問卷語言表達, 並邀請多名公務員對問卷設計考察問卷品質,是否存在語言表達不暢、表達不清晰或者產生歧義,在收 集好建議後進行妥善的修改、完善。

1、職業生涯定位量表

本次研究採取 schein 的職業生涯定位量表,該量表根據其 1987 年確定的八種職業生涯定位類型而制定,即八個測量維度,為更符合本次研究的實際,將八個測量維度進行修改,縮減為五個維度,每個維度五道問題,一個二十五道問題。問卷採用 likert 五點量表記分法, "完全不符合"記"1"分、"不太符合"記"2"分、"一般"記"3"分、"比較符合"記"4"分、"非常符合"記"5"分。

通過 spss 軟體測得該量表的 Cronbach's Alpha 估計值為 0.893,基於標準化評估專案調整的 Cronbach's Alpha 信度係數為 0.916。說明該量表具有較強的內在一致性。

對該量表做因數分析和主成分分析,共提取 5 個共性因數, 6 個二級名義變數對職業生涯定位解釋的方差累積達到 61%以上,說明該量表具有較高的結構效度。

綜上可知,本次研究使用的職業生涯定位量表信度和效度均符合問卷統計分析要求。

2、工作滿意度測量量表

本次研究採用張紹勳(2000)修改的明尼蘇達工作滿意度量表短式本,該量表分內在滿足、外在滿足、一般滿足三個維度,一共20道問題【12】。同樣採用likert 五點量表記分法。記分方式為"非常不滿意"記"1"分、"不太滿意"記"2"分,"一般"記"3"分,"比較滿意"記"4"分、"非常滿意"



記"5"分。通過 spss 軟體測得該量表的 Cronbach's Alpha 信度係數為 0.89。

三、研究假設

根據本文的研究目的及研究框架提出以下研究假設;

假設一:不同個人背景的基層公務員其生涯定位沒有顯著差別

假設二:不同個人背景的基層公務員其工作滿意度沒有顯著差別

假設三:基層公務員的職業生涯定位與其工作滿意度沒有相關關係

四、調查樣本取樣

本研究向廣西壯族自治區 X 縣政府發放 250 份問卷,回收問卷 198 份。問卷回收後,對其進行審核 發現不填個人資訊的有 6 份,錯填、亂填的有 10 份。因此剔除這 16 份問卷,最終回收有效問卷 182 份, 回收率為72%。整體樣本描述如表1。

表1 總體樣本描述								
	人數 百分比 有效百分比 (%) (%)							
			(%)	(%)				
	男	102	56	56				
性別	女	80	43.9	43.9				
I	, and the second							

				' '
			(%)	(%)
	男	102	56	56
性別	女	80	43.9	43.9
	總人數	182	100.0	100.0
	未婚	98	53.8	53.8
婚姻狀況	已婚	84	46.2	46.2
	總人數	182	100.0	100.0
	專科及以下	14	7.7	7.7
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	本科	126	69.2	69.2
學歷	碩士	42	23.1	23.1
	總人數	182	100.0	100.0
	科員	120	65.4	65.4
me 改築 bn	副科級	48	26.9	26.9
職務等級	正科級以上	14	7.7	7.7
	總人數	182	100.0	100.0
	20-25	46	25.2	26.9
	26-30	66	36.5	36.5
年龄	31-35	24	13.2	13.5
	36-40	28	15.3	15.4
	41 歲以上	18	9.8	9.8
	總人數	182	100.0	100.0



肆、資料分析

一、影響職業生涯定位相關分析

為了瞭解受訪基層公務員職業生涯定位的總體情況,本研究將職業生涯定位的5個分量表分別加總後進行排序,由高分到低分依次排序為1-5,然後計算5種職業生涯定位類型排序的平均數(排序平均分數越低的職業生涯定位類型選擇人數越多),得出受訪基層公務員職業生涯定位類型的總體情況,結果見表2。

秋·2 至海 4 初 负 和 录 王 连 入 正 频 至 沁 题								
職業生涯定位	類型	人數	排序平	標準差				
			均數					
安全穩型定位		182	2.08	.926				
生活型定位		182	2.10	1.071				
挑戰型定位		182	2.37	1.048				
管理型定位		182	3.04	1.204				
專業型定位		182	3.52	1.213				
Valid N (listwi	se)	182						

表 2 基層公務員職業生涯定位類型總體狀況

結果顯示受訪基層公務員職業生涯定位的排序狀況為:安全/穩定型定位、生活型定位、挑戰型定位、 管理型定位、專業型定位。其中安全/穩定型定位選擇人數最多,這一結果說明公務員這一職業由於有著 較高的職業穩定性和福利保障,對基層公務員的職業定位起著主導性的影響。即人們所說的"鐵飯碗" 意識仍然在基層公務員中存在。另外,專業型定位排在最後說明基層公務員關於職業的價值觀和內在信 念中,專業或技術能力在公務員這職業中並不是很看重。上述五種類型的職業生涯定位排序平均數在 2-4 之間,且前兩種定位資料較為接近,說明該鎮政府公務員不僅僅為單一類型定位。一名公務員可能存在 兩種或三種定位。

1、不同性別對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響。

本研究對不同性別對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響做獨立樣本 T 檢驗,以性別類型為引數,受訪 基層公務員職業生涯定位排序平均數作為因變數,結果見表 3。從中我們可以看到不同性別在管理型和 生活型職業生涯定位上存在顯著差異,男性在管理型職業生涯定位人數上多於女性,而女性在生活型職 業生涯定位人數上多於男性,這與實際情況相符合。男性更多的希望從事與管理相關的工作,並從中得 到滿足,而女性則更多的期望工作與家庭、生活有效的協調。



	性別	Mean	F	P
專業型定位	男	3.69	2.893	.259
开来空尺位	女	3.30		
管理型定位	男	2.52	6.338	*000
官理型尺征	女	3.70		
安全穩型定	男	2.10	.979	.819
位	女	2.04		
挑戰型定位	男	2.31	1.138	.675
10000000000000000000000000000000000000	女	2.43		
生活型定位	男	2.38	8.105	.031*
	女	1.74		

表 3 不同性別對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

P*<.05

2、不同年齡對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

不同年齡對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響見表 4,從表中可以看出不同年齡段的基層公務員在"挑 戰型"和"生活型"職業生涯定位上存在顯著差異。隨著年齡的增長"挑戰型"定位的排序平均數大體上呈上 升趨勢,說明年輕人對於工作和事業更有沖勁,年輕人希望經歷挑戰、處理困難來提升自身素質。在"生 活型"職業生涯定位上則呈現出與"挑戰型"定位排序相反的趨勢。這說明基層公務員隨著年齡的增長其對 家庭的關注隨之增長,越來越注重工作與生活的平衡。資料顯示在"專業型"職業生涯定位上 41 歲以上的 基層公務員排序平均數最低,說明這一年齡層次的基層公務員較注重在本職工作上實現突破。

	專業型	管理型	穩定/安全	挑戰型	生活型
			型		
20-25 歲	3.64	2.79	2.21	2.00	2.29
26-30 歲	3.16	3.42	2.26	2.16	2.47
31-35 歲	3.86	3.29	1.71	2.71	1.71
36-40 歲	4.25	2.38	2.00	2.63	1.25
41 歲以上	2.75	3.00	1.50	3.50	1.22
F	1.836	1.353	.936	2.315	2.421
P	.138	.265	.452	.041*	.033*
Seheffe 比				5>1	
較					

表 4 不同年齡對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

P*<.05



3、不同學歷對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

從表 5 中可以看出不同學歷的基層公務員在"管理型"職業生涯定位上存在顯著差異。"專科及專科以下"和"碩士研究生"學歷的基層公務員較"本科"學歷的基層公務員更希望自己具有一般管理基層所具備的價值和能力。

專業型 管理型 穩定/安全型 挑戰型 生活型 專科及專科以 2.00 3.00 2.25 3.00 下 3.50 本科 3.39 2.06 2.28 1.94 3.44 碩士研究生 2.25 1.83 2.75 2.25 3.75 F .278 5.911 2.562 1.185 1.982 Р .758 .005* .087 .314 .149 (1,3) > 2Seheffe 比較

表 5 不同學歷對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

P*<.05

4、婚姻狀況對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

從表 6 中可以看出在婚姻狀況不同的情況下"管理型"職業生涯定位存在顯著差異。已婚基層公務 員較未婚者更傾向於處理管理和人際關係等方面的事務。

	婚姻狀況	Mean	F	P
專業型定位	未婚	3.32	.224	.207
开采空尺位	已婚	3.75		
管理型定位	未婚	3.36	2.625	.038*
18年至火仙	已婚	2.67		
安全穩型定	未婚	2.25	8.956	.147
位	已婚	1.88		
挑戰型定位	未婚	2.14	.556	.099
1. 税空尺位	已婚	2.63		
生活型定位	未婚	2.36	3.747	.057
王位主人证	已婚	1.79		

表 6 婚姻狀況對基層公務員職業生涯定位的影響

P*<.05



5、不同職務等級對基層公務職業生涯定位的影響。

由於本研究的物件是基層公務員,因此,在職務等級背景資訊上設置為"科員"、"副科級"、"正 科級以上"三個層次。不同職務等級對基層公務員職業生涯定位影響結果見表 7。從表中可以看到,職 務級別越高,其對管理事務,管理方面能力的認可度和嚮往度越高。這也許就印證了"在其位,謀其職" 的俗語。領導幹部在管理崗位上更專注於對組織的統籌、協調和計畫、決策。

	專業型	管理型	穩定/安全	挑戰型	生活型
			型		
科員	3.47	3.41	2.18	2.12	2.21
副科級	3.93	2.43	1.93	2.86	1.93
正科級以上	2.50	2.00	1.75	2.75	1.75
F	2.357	5.855	.617	2.972	.549
P	.105	.005*	.544	.061	.581
Seheffe 比		1>3			
較					

表 7 不同職務等級對基層公務職業生涯定位的影響

P*<.05

二、工作滿意度的相關分析

本研究對工作基層公務員工作滿意度的三個分量表,即內在滿意度、外在滿意度、一般滿意度做初步分析,結果見表 8。從表中可見,受訪基層公務員工作滿意度達到了中等偏上水準(該問卷每道題的分數介於 1-5 分之間,故 3 分為中等水準)。從均值比較上來看,受訪基層公務員的外在滿意度略高於內在滿意度。為進一步探究 X 鎮受訪基層公務員工作滿意度情況,本研究將工作滿意度量表全部 20 個專案做描述性分析,並按滿意度高低進行昇冪排序,結果見表 9。從表 11 可以看到,受訪基層公務員對於自己的薪水方面存在不滿意,在自我處理問題、自我能力發揮、工作忙碌程度、自我判斷問題四個方面處於基本滿意狀態。這說明基層公務員在工作中的自由裁量權較低、發揮自身能力處理問題的機會較少。在工作責任、工作穩定性、工作環境、人際關係四個方面的滿意度較高,其中與同事相處方式滿意度最高。

衣 6 工作							
	N	Minimu	Maximu	Mean	Std.		
		m	m		Deviation		
內在滿意度	182	2.75	4.50	3.4696	.39192		
一般滿意度	182	2.75	4.50	3.5000	.38603		
外在滿意度	182	2.63	4.50	3.5457	.42805		
Valid N	182						
(listwise)							

表8 工作滿意度三個分量表描述分析



表 9 工作滿意度總體描述分析

	N	Minimu	Maximu	Mean	Std.	滿意與
		m	m		Deviation	否
13、相對與我的工作 量,我每個月所獲得 的薪水。	182	1	5	2.98	.852	不滿意
16、對於工作中能夠 嘗試使用自己的方 式處理事情的機會。	182	2	5	3.10	.721	满意
11、能夠充分發揮自 身能力的機會。	182	2	5	3.13	.793	滿意
1、對於當前工作的 忙碌程度。	182	2	5	3,19	.841	满意
15、對於工作中能夠 做出自由判斷的機 會。	182	2	5	3.23	.757	满意
 對於當前工作給 我單獨表現的機會。 	182	2	4	3.29	.776	滿意
14、我對當前工作給 予我的晉升機會。	182	2	5	3.29	.848	滿意
12、對於組織執行政 策的方式。	182	2	5	3.31	.701	滿意
10、指導他人完成工 作的機會。	182	2	5	3.33	.760	滿意
6、對於上司的決策 能力。	182	2	5	3.48	.700	滿意
4、我所擔任的工作 會使同仁或朋友對 我刮目相看,對於 此。	182	3	5	3.56	.574	滿意
5、對於上司對待下 屬的方式。	182	2	5	3.60	.748	滿意
7、我能避免做違背 良心的工作。	182	1	5	3.62	.718	滿意
19、做好工作後所得 到的贊許。	182	2	5	3.65	.590	滿意



20、工作中所得到的 成就感。	182	2	4	3.67	.585	滿意
3、對於當前工作能 讓我嘗試不同事情 的機會。	182	2	5	3.69	.579	满意
9、對於我在工作中 我為別人服務的機 會。	182	2	5	3.88	.615	滿意
8、對於這份工作提 供給我的工作穩定 性。	182	2	5	3.94	.725	满意
17、我的工作環境(通 風、照明等)	182	2	5	4.02	.727	滿意
18、本單位同事彼此 相處的方式。	182	3	5	4.04	.341	滿意
Valid N (listwise)	182					

1、不同性別對基層公務員工作滿意的的影響

從表 10 中我們可以得知不同性別基層公務員與其工作滿意度之間的相關關係,在外在滿意度上,不同性別的基層公務員存在顯著差異,男性公務員的外在滿意度高於女性公務員。也就是說男性基層公務員在工作環境,人際關係、領導和組織等方面的滿意度要高於女性。從均值上分析,男性的一般滿意度同樣高於女性。

表 10 不同性別對基層公務員工作滿意的的影響

	性別	Mean	F	P
一般滿意	- 男	3.5569	.035	.236
度	女	3.4283		
外在滿意	男	3.6552	1.309	.037*
度	女	3.4076		
內在滿意	男	3.4914	.771	.657
度	女	3.4420		

P*<.05



2、婚姻狀況對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響。

對婚姻狀況基層公務員工作滿意度相關分析我們從表 11 中可知,未婚基層公務員與已婚基層公務員在一般滿意度、外在滿意度和內在滿意度上均存在顯著的差異,已婚基層公務員在滿意度的三個維度上均高於未婚基層公務員。其中在外在滿意度上差異最為顯著。這說明成家立業後的基層公務員對於與工作更放得開,能夠叫積極、樂觀的對待工作。

	婚姻狀況	Mean	F	Р
一般滿意	未婚	3.3196	1.404	.000*
度	已婚	3.7104		
外在滿意	未婚	3.3438	4.902	.000*
度	已婚	3.7813		
内在滿意	未婚	3.3036	.173	.001*
度	已婚	3.6632		

表 11 婚姻狀況對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

P*<.05

3、年齡差異對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響。

從表 12 中可以看出不同年齡層次的基層公務員在工作滿意度上的差異,如同婚姻狀況一樣,不同年齡層次的基層公務員在工作滿意度的三個維度上均存在顯著差異,且隨著年齡的增長,其工作滿意度也隨之提高。通過 Seheffe 事後檢驗更印證了 41 歲以上的基層公務員的一般滿意度和內在滿意度顯著大於20-25 歲年齡層次的基層公務員。

	一般滿意度	外在滿意度	內在滿意度
1.20-25 歲	3.3357	3.3839	3.3036
2.26-30 歲	3.4342	3.4671	3.4123
3.31-35 歲	3.4786	3.5893	3.4048
4.36-40 歲	3.7125	3.7344	3.6979
5.41 歲以上	4.0000	4.0313	3.9792
F	3.712	2.660	3.850
P	.010*	.044*	.009*
Seheffe 比	5>1		5>1
較			

表 12 年龄差異對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

P*<.05

4、不同學歷對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

由於調查樣本中並無博士學歷的基層公務員存在,因此僅對"專科及以下"、"本科"、"碩士研



究生"進行比較。從表 13 可以看出不同學歷的基層公務員在一般滿意度和內在滿意度上存在顯著差異,經過 Seheffe 事後檢驗後發現在這兩個維度上的差異"碩士研究生"學歷基層公務員與"本科"學歷基層公務員的差異較為明顯。總體上基層公務員的工作滿意度隨著學歷的提升而提升。這說明"碩士研究生"學歷的基層公務內在的工作價值觀更穩定,對於工作能夠較理性和客觀的對待。

水15 小门于应约至相互物员一下两心及的办首						
	一般滿意	外在滿意	內在滿意度			
	度	度				
1.專科及以下	3.3000	3.3750	3.2500			
2.本科	3.4361	3.4861	3.4028			
3.碩士研究生	3.7583	3.7813	3.7431			
F	4.180	2.644	4.656			
P	.021*	.081	.014*			
Seheffe 比較	3>2		3>2			

表 13 不同學歷對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

P*<.05

5、不同職務等級對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

從表 14 中可以看到中、高層領導者內在、外在滿意度均高於一般基層公務員。也就是說受訪基層公務員中的領導者對工作中獲得的成就感、工作獨立性、自身能力的發揮、薪水、工作環境等各方面的滿意度均高於受訪的一般基層公務員。

AC 2 1 1/1/ 1/10(4)	1 1 1 1 1 1 1	4 1/4 /4 11 -	7.42 SE 17.35 H
	一般滿	外在滿意度	內在滿意度
	意度		
1.科員	3.3588	3.4007	3.3309
2.副科級	3.7000	3.7679	3.6548
3.正科級以上	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000
F	10.224	7.684	9.931
P	.000*	.001*	.000*
Seheffe 比較	(3,2)	(3,2)>1	(3,2)>1
	>1		
	•	•	•

表 14 不同職務等級對基層公務員工作滿意度的影響

P*<.05

三、基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的相關性分析

本研究將職業生涯定位五個構面與工作滿意度的三個維度做相關性分析,結果見表 15。從表 15 中可以看到管理型定位、安全/穩定型定位以及挑戰型定位分別與內在滿意度和一般滿意度顯著相關。管理型定位、安全/穩定型定位與內在滿意度呈正相關,挑戰型定位與內在滿意度呈負相關,管理型定位同時還與一般滿意度呈負相關關係。



表 15--基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的 Pearson 相關係數檢驗

		一般滿意	外在滿意	內在滿意
		度	度	度
	Pearson Correlation	.183	.252	.116
生活型定位	Sig. (2-tailed)	.195	.071	.412
	N	52	52	52
	Pearson Correlation	117	014	183
專業型定位	Sig. (2-tailed)	.408	.924	.195
	N	52	52	52
	Pearson Correlation	380*	.016	.330*
管理型定位	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.283	.017
	N	52	52	52
	Pearson Correlation	.048	.044	047*
挑戰型定位	Sig. (2-tailed)	.733	.757	.038
	N	52	52	52
由入松利力	Pearson Correlation	060	028	.179*
安全穩型定	Sig. (2-tailed)	.671	.846	.018
位	N	52	52	52
	N	52	52	52

P*<.05

四、基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的回歸性分析

在前面所進行的 Pearson 相關係數檢驗中我們發現,管理型定位、挑戰型定位、安全/穩定型定位均 與內在滿意度呈顯著相關關係,同時管理型定位與一般滿意度呈顯著相關。為進一步瞭解它們之間的相 關程度做回歸性分析,結果見表 16。從表中可知管理型定位和安全/穩定型定位對內在滿意度有正向預測 作用,預測值分別為 74.1%和 13.5%,挑戰型定位對內在滿意度有負向預測作用,預測值為-10.2%。另外 管理型定位對外在滿意度有負向預測作用,預測值為-14.3%。資料結果說明越偏向管理型定位和安全/穩 定型定位的受訪基層公務員其內在工作滿意度越高,也就是說他們的工作成就感、工作表現機會、自身 能力發揮越高,而越偏向挑戰型定位的受訪基層公務員則恰好與之相反。

表 16--基層公務員職業生涯定位與工作滿意度的回歸性分析

70 李海 470 天气水上,一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个一个							
內在滿意度	R	\mathbb{R}^2	В	F	P		
(常量)							
			3.729				
管理型定位		0.697	.741		.001		
	0.835			.960			
挑戰型定位		0.534			.010		
	0.731		102				
安全/穩定型定位	0.708	0.501	.135		.010		

外在滿意度	R	\mathbb{R}^2	В	F	P
(常量)			3.981		
管理型定位	0.835	0.697	143	9.694	.003



伍、結論與建議

一、研究結論

- 1、研究假設結果檢驗。研究結果顯示,伴隨基層公務員性別、年齡、學歷等個體差異變數的變化其職業生涯定位類型也出現了顯著的差異,同樣伴隨基層公務員個體差異變數的變化其工作滿意度也隨之出現顯著變化。並且通過對受訪基層公務員職業生涯定位于工作滿意度的 pearson 相關性分析發現管理型定位類型與一般工作滿意度呈負相關關係,與內在工作滿意度呈正相關關係;挑戰型定位類型與內在滿意度呈負相關關係;安全/穩定型定位類型與內在滿意度呈正相關關係。以上研究結果均否定原假設。同時也說明基層公務員的職業生涯定位類型會影響到其對待工作的滿意度,因此,若能有效的測評基層公務員的職業生涯定位類型並進行有效的引導便能提升基層公務員的工作滿意度。
- 2、男女性別差異在職業生涯定位類型和工作滿意度上的差異較其他個體差異變數更為顯著。不同性別在管理型和生活型職業生涯定位上存在顯著差異,男性基層公務員較傾向于管理型定位,女性基層公務員較傾向于生活型定位;在外在滿意度上,不同性別的基層公務員存在顯著差異,男性公務員的外在滿意度高於女性公務員。這說明男性基層公務員較願意從整合他人工作,與他人交際中獲得滿足感,同時也能較好的處理與組織、領導、同事的關係;而女性公務員較希望能夠協調工作與家庭及其他個人生活的關係,但往往與組織或領導的安排發出衝突。
- 3、縱觀研究資料的結果可以發現,年齡俞高的基層公務員俞呈現穩定的工作狀態,對待工作態度更豁達,同時潛心、專一服務於本職工作,而年輕基層公務員對待職業發展充滿願景,對待工作撥有不斷挑戰和攀登的心態,而從年輕基層公務員在內在工作滿意度的偏低的資料中可知他們在工作初期遇到職業適應期的瓶頸,他們對於職業生涯充滿願景但是實際工作當中他們並沒有得到足夠的重視,自身能力並沒有得到施展的機會。這一職業適應期的現象普遍存在,但如果能夠及時發現、做出調整和引導,對於公務員結構的穩定和工作品質的提升能起到很大的作用。

二、實務建議

上述結論顯示,基層公務員在職業生涯定位和工作滿意度上均會受到個體差異的影響,不同的職業職業生涯定位類型也會對基層公務員工作滿意度造成影響,根據此研究針對基層公務員的管理和培育提出以下建議:

- 1、基層政府機構引入職業生涯定位和工作滿意度測評體系。職業生涯定位作為工作者內在工作價值 觀和發展意識,對公務員的工作穩定和發展具有重大的影響。由於某些新入職的基層公務員在一定程度 上收到親戚、朋友的影響考入公務員隊伍,在剛剛進入到政府工作體系時並沒有清楚的認識到自己的職業生涯定位類型;某些基層公務員所考入的職位與自身職業生涯定位類型發展軌道不一致,比如碩士研究生學歷的基層公務員更期望自己在管理能力和人際關係處理上有所突破,女性公務員較男性公務員更注重工作的穩定性以及工作與家庭的平衡,這些職業生涯定位於工作的不協調就會造成職業發展模糊或滯後。因此,有必要在對基層公務員培訓時引入職業生涯定位測評體系,讓公務員和組織都能清晰認識工作者的職業生涯定位類型,進而做出有效的調整和引導,如此便能提升基層公務員的工作滿意度,同時達到人職匹配的目的。
- 2、應當給予女性基層公務員更多的支援和關懷,給予男性基層公務員更大的創造和挑戰空間。本次 研究結論顯示男性在管理型職業生涯定位人數上多於女性,而女性在生活型職業生涯定位人數上多於男



性。男性基層公務員較期望在整合、協調他人工作中獲得滿足。女性基層公務員認為只有很好地平衡個人、家庭、職業三者的關係,生活便算是成功的,因此她們總希望最小化個人工作和家庭之間的衝突。然而基層公務員的工作又呈現突發性和複雜性的特點使得女性基層公務員難以避免這樣的衝突。女性基層公務員在外在滿意度上較男性基層公務員低便是這一矛盾的體現。這就要求基層行政機構給予女性公務員更多的關懷和支援,在工作分配上儘量保證她們工作與家庭生活的協調,或者兩者之間有所緩衝。在軟、硬體條件完備的條件下允許女性基層公務在特殊情況下遠端工作。工作中多給予她們鼓勵和贊許,提升她們的工作滿意度,從而提高女性公務員的工作效率。同時注重在男性基層公務員的工作中提供鍛煉的機會及創造和挑戰的空間。

3、調動基層公務員的積極主動性和能動性。調查結果顯示基層公務員在獨立判斷、處理問題、自我能力發揮維度上的滿意度較低,同時年輕基層公務員在這一問題上較為明顯,使其在職業適應期遇到了瓶頸。對於此,有必要在工作中給予基層公務員挑戰和創造的空間,提升他們的挑戰能力和創造能力;在特定的工作任務中或者條件允許的情況下敢於放權、大膽授權,充分發揮他們的自身能力,提高基層公務員獨立判斷問題、獨立處理問題的能力;與此同時,可以引入競爭機制,充分調動基層公務員的積極主動性,這樣一來便能充分發揮其能動性,同時又能充分發揮年輕基層公務員的活力,幫助他們自我價值的實現,順利度過職業適應期。從而提高工作水準和工作品質,更好的為公民服務。



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以五行生剋模型驗證股票選股策略-以新加坡股票市場為例

An Empirical Research of Five-Phases Allelopathy Model on Stock Selection Strategy – An Example of Singapore Stock Market

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摘要

本研究是以中國命理五行學說為主要架構,以五行之「金、木、水、火、土」五種相生相剋的關係,搭配從古至今由天干地支規則所建立之五行流年作為五行生剋模型之主要依據而進行報酬走向之驗證。本研究對象以新加坡股票市場作為次級資料之蒐集與研究對象,研究期間為 2000 至 2013 年,共計 14 年間。本研究從兩種角度判斷,分別為從五行本命對所處不同流年的情況下適合在哪些年進行投資股票與從不同的流年五行適合投資何種本命五行股票,其運用五行生剋模型進行驗證。研究結果顯示,以個別公司五行類別與整體報酬走向的準確率來看,先以個別公司報酬走向的準確率達五行本命 50%(含)以上,來分析所代表之比例;由以上的比例界定,公司本命為「土」的報酬走向準確度最高,高達 59.91%;而從不同的流年五行適合投資何種本命五行之產業以高低報酬群組作排序分析,有 8 年呈現高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度達 57%。由於在國際間多數學者研究實證股價屬領先指標可預測未來經濟表現,股價指數報酬率領先景氣同時指標變化一個月到一季最能說明兩者變化趨勢,照此規律加入提早三個月之報酬率與原先報酬率相互比較驗證。提前一季個別公司五行類別報酬走向由本命屬「木」的公司報酬走向準確度最高,可達 63.83%;有 11 年呈現高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度達 78%。

關鍵字:中國命理、選股、新加坡股票市場、五行生剋模型



ABSTRACT

This research is based on Five-Phases Allelopathy Theory of Chinese numerology, which we use to establish a stock selecting model. There are five elements in the theory of the Five- Phases Allelopathy of Chinese numerology, including metals, wood, fire, water and earth. All elements are related with each other, and we make use of this relations as the main concept. Our sample data are all stocks' monthly data in Singapore stock market from 2000 to 2013, totally 14 years. This study use two aspects to verify the use of the Five- Phases Allelopathy Model(FPAM) in Singapore stock market. The results show that the group, which the element of companies are "earth", have highest accuracy of 84.44% in sampling period from a natal numerology. And from the view of appropriate of different natal industry group in sequencing years, eight of fourteen years match the Five-Phases Allelopathy Theory that the average return of the high-paid group is higher than the average return of the low-paid group, accuracy up to 57%. Owing to most international specialists believe the stock is a leading index, we add the return rate which is three month earlier to compare the original return rate. Thehighest accuracy is the companies which element are "wood", accuracy up to 63.83%, During the study period, the average return of the high-paid group is higher than the average return of the low-paid group in eleven years, accuracy up to 78%.

Keywords: SGX Market · FPAM · Chinese Numerology · Stock Selecting.



壹、緒論

新加坡於 1965 年正式脫離馬來西亞,成為一個獨立的國家,世人對新加坡的前途並不樂觀。經過多年的努力,其經濟有了大變化,經濟高度成長,從轉口貿易為主的單一經濟結構,改成以製造業為主的多元經濟結構,並成為東南亞地區最富裕、最先進、工業化程度最高的國家,經濟方面的成就一向舉世矚目。

新加坡過去的成功主要來自於採取吸引跨國公司投資設廠的策略,使新加坡成為許多國際知名大廠(如:蘋果、惠普、IBM、Seagate等)的亞太營運中心,並藉由技術移轉進一步提升新加坡的產業競爭力。新加坡也有些缺點存在,那就是國土太小,缺乏足夠的市場規模去發展大規模的產業經濟或經濟架構;有限的資源限制了經濟的發展,不只人力有限,才能、土地、海邊地、海的領域及水等都缺乏;其次便是國家很脆弱,當世界環境變化時,經濟很容易受影響。

網際網路的進步使全球整體環境的經濟指標、公司經營績效之財務資料與歷史股價等相關股票分析 資訊能輕而易舉從網路上取得,並且逐漸透明化,進而衍生出許多分析股票市場之工具與預測報酬走向 之模型,例如基本面分析理論著重在財務方面,重視營收、獲利、毛利、成本…等等,因為一家公司是 否能存活以及是否有能力與競爭對手匹敵,最基本因素就在財務上的表現;技術面分析理論,則是認為 股價的波動是具有某種規律性以及可被預測的,基本面分析中運用各種相關指標與理論,如MACD、RSI、 KD、威廉指標、乖離率、多空指標乖離等指標進行分析預測。

近來2008年的美國金融危機襲捲全球,2009年希臘鉅額公債危機,2010年的愛爾蘭與葡萄牙及2011年的義大利與西班牙等國陸續發生金融危機,因而引發歐債風暴,重創全球經濟,令許多銀行公司倒閉,2012年伊朗宣布切斷對英國、法國的供油,加速對歐美的衰退,而當投資人因這些事件,無法理性思考時,或許五行學說之研究方法,可以幫助投資人有新的指引方向,甚至明確的分析探討。總言之,不論投資人選擇用哪一種工具作為投資標的之參考依據,其最主要目的,就是想了解股票走勢及降低投資風險,並增加獲利的機會。

五行之奧妙,從古至今都存在於宇宙間的萬事萬物,時時刻刻都有著難以解釋的事情發生,運用非常廣泛,是中國古代的一種物質觀。萬物都是由金、木、水、火、土五種基本的物質及這五種基本物質的運行與變化所構成,隨著這五種要素的興衰,而使的大自然產生各種變化,使宇宙萬物生生不息,同時也影響著人類的命運。

許多人不辭辛勞的在研究股票市場,甚至是利用當代的投資學理論所教導的許多投資策略去選股, 而許多散戶進入股票市場卻慘賠退出,如果投資者們能透過其他非投資學理論,增加預測之準確度,提 高獲利,如運用中國傳統五行系統進行股票市場趨勢預測,是值得我們探討的議題。而股票市場內的各 行各業也存在或代表著中國命理五行學說的元素,透過傳統中國命理五行學說來區分公司本業五行,搭 配運用流年的角度,研究同屬華人居多的新加坡之股票市場,有非常值得探討的價值。

本研究之目的:(一)本研究將運用中國五行說為主要研究架構探討與新加坡股票市場選股準確度之 驗證。(二)運用中國五行學說了解新加坡股票市場在各年度之報酬表現是否符合五行相生相剋學說。(三)



以流年五行為主軸角度觀測新加坡股票市場所屬五行類別之報酬高低是否依據相生相剋關係進行排序。

本研究之預期貢獻以透過運用中國傳統命理「五行學說」為主要基礎原則,建立五行生剋模型進行 股票市場研究,驗證是否與新加坡股票市場有一定的關連性,其中運用五行生剋模型進行新加坡股票之 報酬走向準確度分析,最後再以統計工具分析,並期待能有更多的投資人能藉由五行生剋模型在股票市 場中降低投資風險與提升投資報酬率。

貳、文獻探討

本研究係以探討中國古代傳統命理學「五行」學說相關文獻與現代投資學術領域中「股票市場選股 策略」之相關投資績效報酬率,參考文獻內容深入探討研究並加以進行分析。

一、五行命理相關文獻

天地萬物中所有有關生命現象變化無常,都與天地的交互作用有密集的關聯。「五行」應原指「五氣」,最後對應於行星(劉原志,2010),「行」便是移動,「五星」時刻在行動,以「五行」喚稱「五星」便是順理成章(郭國泰,2008)。五行之起源由來,各領域學者專家眾說紛紜,而在文獻的探討中五行使見於《尚書·洪範》,曰:「五行,一曰水、二曰火、三曰木、四曰金、五曰土。水曰潤下,火曰炎上,木曰曲直,金曰從革,土曰稼穑。潤下作鹹,炎上作苦,曲直作酸,從革作辛,稼穑作甘。」。洪範至今,據考證,推定為戰國末年的作品。而在中國思想史上,「五行」說之最早發展或以為源於五星或順著甲骨文之五方說,進而有五材說,而後逐步為六氣五行說以及五正說等有關內容,最終發展成為包羅萬象的「五行」理論體系。

五行相生中,任何一行都具有生我、我生兩方面的聯繫,也就是母子關係,而相剋的規律,是含有制、勝的意義。在五行之中具有相互制約、相互克服的關係,如此相互制約、循環不已。在正常情況下的相剋,也是一種維持平衡的力量。

五行之究竟起源於何時何人,已經不可考。根據史記曆書:「黃帝考定星曆,建立五行,起消息。」 夏書甘誓言「有扈氏威侮五行。」周書洪範謂箕子向武王陳九疇,云:「我聞在昔,鯀陻洪水,汩陳其五 行」可見其說發生之早。由於史料不足,殷商以上我們可以不作考查,但五行說在西周初年已在中國政 治思想中佔重要地位,則是不容置疑的。從以上各領域專家的敘述中,可以了解五行的起源會因為各家 學者所追求的事物不同而有不同的方向,並非有一定的起發源地。

五行可說是中國命理學之重要梁柱而且是中國古代的一種物質觀,透過對於自然界的觀察,宇宙萬物皆有規律的循環變化。而中國的五行學說則是以「金、木、水、火、土」這五大基本物質運行與變化的規律所成,五行之目的主要是為了研究事物的內部構成因子,如何展現於外在,之間又是如何互相聯繫,隨之而來的變化又帶來什麼影響,它們是如何傳遞與互相影響彼此,有利亦有弊,值得我們更深入探討。

二、股票市場選股策略相關文獻



股票市場起源於美國,至少已有兩百年以上的歷史,至今仍十分活絡,其交易的證券種類非常繁多, 股票市場是供投資者集中進行股票交易的機構。大部分國家都有一個或多個股票交易所。隨著資產階級 革命的爆發,股票開始逐漸進入金融和工業領域。公司為了永續經營,擴大經營範圍,開始發行股票並 轉成股份有限公司,向人們募集營運資金,而人們也經由股票投資來賺取額外收入。「選股」一詞在生活 中出現並成為人們想要知道並爭取的學說,所以有學者開始進一步對此領域進行探討與分析,而選股的 學派也一個一個慢慢浮現。在股票市場中如何做一個好的選股策略是必要的,也是需要的(陳威愷,2012)。 而選股大致可分為基本面選股、技術面選股與籌碼面選股等選股策略學派。

(一)基本面選股

以基本面遷股來說,它則主要依據公司的成立時間、EPS、本益比、營收、淨值、總市值與股本為股票投資人選股之主要資料參考依據。基本分析主要是能夠比較全面性地把握證券價格的基本走勢,應用起來也相對簡單。缺點是預測的時間跨度相對較長,對短線投資者的指導作用比較弱;同時,預測的精確度相對較低。而股票自身價值是決定股價最基本的因素,而這主要取決於發行公司的經營業績、資信水平以及連帶而來的股息紅利派發狀況、發展前景、股票預期收益水平等。每股盈餘 EPS (Earning Per Share) 為公司獲利能力之最後結果,EPS 高代表著公司每單位資本額的獲利能力高,當我們以每股盈餘作為分母,股價作為分子,其得出的即是該股的本益比,本益比的使用原則通常為低於 15 時,則可納入考慮購入之買進標的之一,當本益比低於 10,若採長期持有策略持股,便會有豐厚的獲利,反之,若本益比高於 40,則表示該股的股價算高價階段。淨值是一家公司之帳面價值,為公司資產扣掉負債後的價值,當股價低於每股淨值時,代表股價可能被低估,此情況下可能會有被併購的風險,故在選股策略上參考淨值時也需谨慎使用,避免投資到所謂之地雷股。基本面最後一項參考指標即為股本,又稱資本額,為一家公司規模大小的指標,當公司處於小股本階段時,通常代表著公司目前正處於黃金成長階段,當公司股本較大時,則代表公司在某產以佔有領導地位。

(二)技術面選股

技術分析的理論基礎是空中樓閣理論。由 John Maynard Keynes 於 1936 年所提出,他認為專業投資者已經拋開股票的內在價值,強調心理構造出來的空中樓閣,分析投資大眾將來會如何作為,技術分析主要目的是預測短期內未來股價漲跌的趨勢,通過基本分析我們可以了解應購買何種股票,而技術分析讓我們掌握購買的時機。大多數成功的股票市場投資者都是把兩種分析方法結合起來加以運用,他們用基本分析法估計較長期趨勢,且用技術分析法判斷短期走勢和確定買賣的時機(葉沛鑫,2012)。技術分析工具包括 k線、趨勢線、軌道線、移動平均線、乖離率、價量關係、逆時鐘曲線、RSI、KD、MACD、DMI、道氏理論、行情研判技巧、技術面找買賣點、進出場策略:停利與停損等等。在技術面上,只要透過證券公司所提供的股價報價資訊服務或是經由網路提供的股價報價資訊服務,散戶與專業投資機構就可位於相等的位置上,一同選擇股票與交易股票,所以在技術面上的研究,應是散戶更要投入的重點(胡崑鑫,2012)。

(三) 籌碼面選股

籌碼面選股主要是依據融資融券、外資、自營商、投信、集保庫存與董監持股比例為主要選股參考



依據。籌碼面選股較適合中短期投資。籌碼面就是找到影響股價的巨人,籌碼面分析看的是市場中大金 主的動向。籌碼派認為,在市場中大資金可以影響股價的變動。所以,分析者相信:「只要搭上主力的順 風車,就可以賺錢」,籌碼分析就像是徵信社探聽主力的一舉一動,在股票市場上,主力可能是:三大法 人…等。籌碼集中度,漲勢有多強的關鍵。股價的成交量也是有磁吸效應,即所謂「價量關係」。在投資 市場裡面有一句諺語:「量是價的先行指標,有量才有價。」所以股票上漲,必須要有成交量。除非是一 種類型:金主、主力、大戶已經吸收籌碼個股,出現無量漲停的現象,那就另當別論。股票的成交量, 價格一直漲,卻沒量能支撐,代表後繼無力;若成交量一直放大,但是價格漲不上去,有可能已經到末 升段,最後衝刺通常由散戶進場買進,當時股價處於高檔時。

参、研究方法

一、研究架構

本研究架構如圖叁所示。首先針對新加坡交易所(SGX)上市公司之個股 13 年來調整後股價作為資料來源,並運用以上資料算出年報酬率,同時定義新加坡交易所(SGX)上市公司之主要五行本命,並以五行生剋之模型作為預期驗證報酬走向的依據指標接著進行分析試驗,驗證報酬率之預測走向是否與五行生剋模型有關,並與實際報酬走向驗證其精準度。隨後進行以流年角度檢視試驗,2000 年至 2013 年期間之五行生剋循環報酬高低排序,接著驗證報酬高低走向排列是否與五行生剋模型達一致性,而後運用統計方法進行變異數分析(ANOVA F Test)驗證預期高低報酬群組和五行群組之平均報酬關係是否達顯著差異,若整體有達顯著差異,則再利用 Scheffe 檢定與 LSD 法進行事後報酬率比較檢定(Post Hoc Rate of Return comparison Test)。

二、研究對象及範圍

本研究之研究對象為新加坡交易所(SGX)上市之公司。該國位於馬來半島南端、毗鄰馬六甲海峽南口,於 1965 年建國,建國後致力於發展經濟。1980 年代,新加坡從東南亞最小國家崛起,與香港、台灣、南韓齊名為亞洲四小龍。新加坡交易所是亞太地區首家融合證券以及衍生性金融商品為一體與首家公開募股與私募上市的交易所。

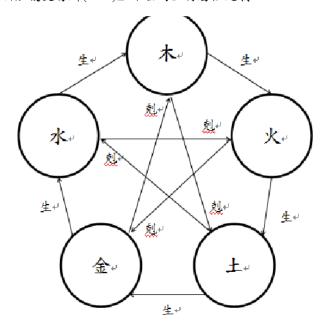
三、研究假設

假設1	新加坡交易所(SGX)所屬五行類別的報酬正負與五行生剋假說符合。
假設 2	新加坡交易所(SGX)所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度符合五行生剋假說。
假設3	新加坡交易所(SGX)所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。
假設 3-1	以目測法判斷新加坡交易所(SGX)所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度違顯著差異。
假設 3-2	以統計方法檢定新加坡交易所(SGX)所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。



四、五行生剋模型

五行生剋模型是以 5 種公司本命相搭配 5 流年主要本命年,將上述兩組做排列組合的方式呈現,從行業 五行本命 5 種乘以流年五行本命年 5 種,得知為 25 種不同的本命流年互相生剋形態。如下圖示,相生的 順序為:木→火→土→金→水→木→...,然而相剋的順序為:木→土→水→火→金→木→...,其依照新 加坡交易所(SGX)上市公司主要營收項目,並參據中國五術學院所定義之「五行行業別屬性」表,以下 表所示。據其進行新加坡交易所(SGX)上市公司五行屬性定義。

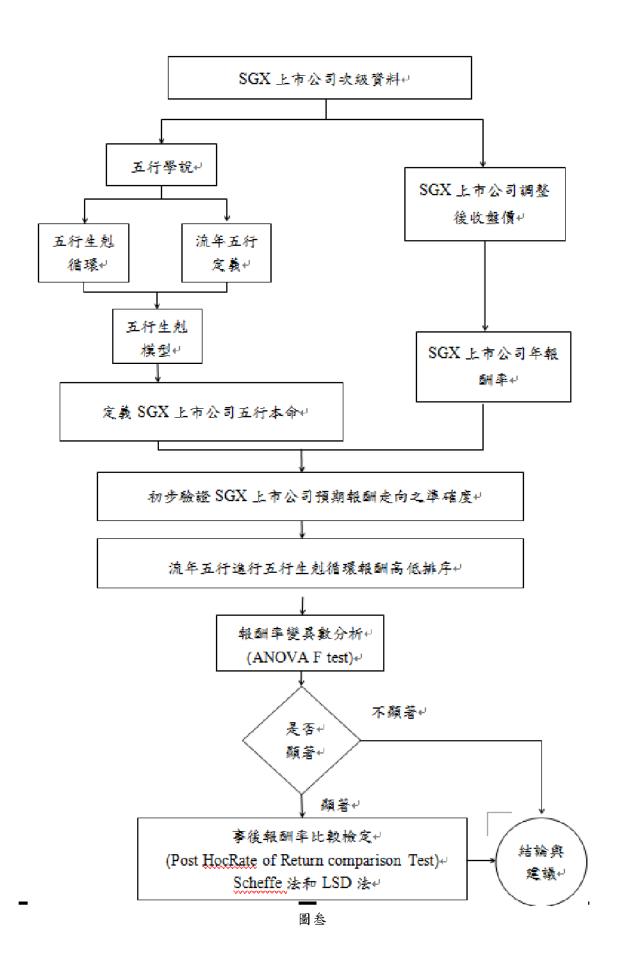


(一) 公司五行本命對應流年五行關係

每間公司都會有其本質的五行屬性,在以永續經營的前提下,其經營過程中皆會面臨到五種流年本命, 搭配五行流年之主要本命年進行關係定義,25種不同的本命流年互相生剋形態。

公司本命	本命木	本命火	本命土	本命金	本命水
木年	本命(+)	被生(+)	被剋(-)	剋(+)	生(-)
火年	生(-)	本命(+)	被生(+)	被剋(-)	剋(+)
土年	剋(+)	生(-)	本命(+)	被生(+)	被剋(-)
金年	被剋(-)	剋(+)	生(-)	本命(+)	被生(+)
水年	被生(+)	被剋(-)	剋(+)	生(-)	本命(-)







(二)流年五行對照關係進行排列

再來以流年五行角度依照其上述五種關係進行報酬高低排列,以本命年來看,其以關係「本命」助力最大為主要流年定義假設報酬應為最大故排名第一(最佳),而以輔助產業本命成長最大,以本命關係為「被生」報酬排名定為第二(次佳),而關係為「剋」以產業本命可依靠自身能量克服度過其流年,使其本命不受侵害,故報酬排名定為第三(平),而流年與本命關係為「生」有消己助彼之意味,其報酬排名則定為第四(差),其最後流年與本命關係為「被剋」,顧名思義其關係為被其流年所壓抑且不利成長,故報酬排名定為最後為第五(最差)。

關係排列流年五行	本命(最佳)	被生(次佳)	剋 (平)	生 (差)	被剋 (最差)
流年金	金	水	火	土	木
流年木	木	火	金	水	土
流年水	水	木	土	金	火
流年火	火	土	水	木	金
流年土	±	金	木	火	水

五、統計分析方法

本研究的統計分析以單因子變異數分析、薛貴法(scheffe'method)與貴雪爾氏 LSD (Fisher's Least Significant Different) 三項敍之。

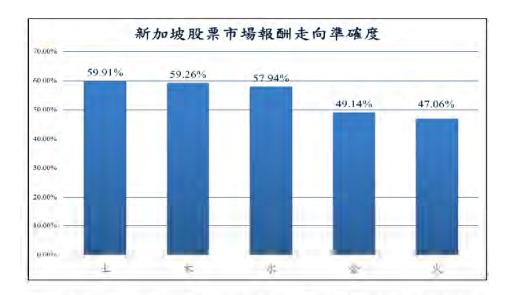
肆、資料分析

一、五行生剋模型假說驗證分析

本研究依據五行生剋模型對新加坡股票市場進行驗證分析,以流年五行和公司本命產生的五種關係,定義出「本命」、「被生」與「剋」三種正報酬走向,「生」、「被剋」二種負報酬走向,如公司本命屬「金」年,遇流年屬「金」之年份為「本命」、遇流年屬「土」為「被生」、遇流年屬「木」為「剋」、遇流年屬「水」為「生」、遇流年屬「火」為「被剋」、並以本研究之研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年共計 14 年間、進行實際報酬驗證。

本研究對象新加坡股票市場經由五行生剋模型進行分析研究其結果顯示,以公司本命為「土」的家數 160 家為報酬走向準確度最高,可達 59.91%,公司本命「木」的家數有 84 家報酬走向準確度為 59.26% 居次,公司本命為「水」的家數有 159 家報酬率 57.94%、屬「金」之家數 216 家屬最多報酬率為 49.14%、報酬走向最低 75 家數的「火」報酬率為 47.06%。並將以上由高至低的報酬排序整理如下圖:





其整體進行驗證之 694 間新加坡股票市場中共有 477 間其報酬走向準確度達 50%(含)以上,占整體比例 68.73%。

提前三個月經由五行生剋模型進行分析研究其結果顯示,對照原先以同時為基準之資料,首位由本命「木」的公司報酬走向準確度最高,可達 63.83%,其次本命為「土」的公司,其報酬走向準確度為 60.94%,公司本命為「水」報酬率為 57.82%、屬「金」之報酬率為 49.44%、報酬走向設低為本命屬「火」之公司,報酬率為 44.67%。並將以上由高至低的報酬排序整理如下圖:



其整體進行驗證之 694 間新加坡股票市場中共有 467 間其報酬走向準確度達 50%(含)以上,占整 體比例 67.29%。

二、以流年角度進行五行報酬高低排列分析

此節主要依據流年五行之角度為主要依據,對其本研究對象新加坡股票市場報酬率進行五行生剋模型報酬高低進行排列比較分析,本組將以同時與提前三個月之資料混合對比驗證,而研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年共 14 年間,以天干五行為流年基準,則 2000 年與 2001 年之流年屬「金」、2002 年與 2003 年之流年屬「木」、2004 年與 2005 年屬「水」、2006 年與 2007 年屬「土」、2008 年與 2009 年屬「火」、2010 年與 2011 年屬「木」、2012 年與 2013 年則屬「水」、整理分類以「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」與「被



剋」五種關係進行對應流年關係進行預期報酬由高至低之分類,接著運用 ANOVA 變異數分析檢定驗證整體五組是否達顯著差異水準,其結果驗證分析整理如下:

2000 年至 2013 年報酬率變異數分析(同時)

r	Ī					
		平方和	自由度	平均平方和	F	顯著性
2000 年	組間	7.105	4	1.776	.971	.424
	組內	413.316	226	1.829		
	總和	420.421	230			
2001 年	組間	10.937	4	2.734	.908	.460
	組內	740.799	246	3.011		
	總和	751.736	250	5.011		
2002 年	組間	5.842	4	1.460	.893	.469
	組内	431.800	264	1.636		
2003 年	總和	437.641 23.584	268	5.896	.668	.615
2003 4	組間	23.384	4	3.890	.008	.013
	組內	2612.376	296	8.826		
	總和	2635.960	300			
2004 年	組間	1.842	4	.461	3.203	.013**
	組內	49.316	343	.144		
	總和	51.158	347			
2005 年	組間	5.106	4	1.277	1.436	.221
	組內	332.460	374	.889		
	總和	337.567	378	.009		
2006 年	組間	93.775	4	23.444	1.313	.265
2000 -					1.515	.205
	組內	7466.078	418	17.861		
2007 6	總和	7559.853	422	105 022	1 110	2.47
2007 年	組間	420.931	4	105.233	1.119	.347
	組內	46179.568	491	94.052		
	總和	46600.499	495			
2008 年	組間	1.097	4	.274	.878	.477
	組內	166.105	532	.312		
	總和	167.202	536			
2009 年	組間	128.453	4	32.113	2.309	.057*
	組內	7732.641	556	13.908		
	總和	7861.094	560	13.900		
2010 年	組間	5.601	4	1.400	.333	.856
	組内	2633.843	627	4.201		
2011 年	總和 組間	2639.443 1.267	631	.317	1.318	.262
2011 4	%AT 181	1.207	7	.517	1.510	.202
	組內	158.042	658	.240		
	總和	159.308	662			
2012 年	組間	53.393	4	13.348	.625	.645
	組內	14622.694	685	21.347		
	總和	14676.087	689			
2013 年	組間	6.366	4	1.591	3.998	.003
	組內	274.229	689	.398		
	總和	280.594	693	.370		
	కాచ్చ"	200.234	073			



2000 年至 2013 年報酬率變異數分析(提前)

		平方和	自由度	平均平方和	F	顯著性
2000 年	組間	.958	4	.239	2.644	.035**
	組內	19.839	219	.091		
	總和	20.797	223	.051	•	•
2001 年	組間	1.198	4	.299	.676	.609
	組內	111.576	252	.443		
	總和	112.774	256	1		
2002 年	組間	3.519	4	.880	1.092	.361
	組內	217.466	270	.805	•	
	總和	220.985	274	.002		1
2003 年	組間	2.920	4	.730	1.077	.368
	組內	201.375	297	.678	•	•
	總和	204.296	301	.076		1
2004 年	組間	.718	4	.179	1.508	.200
		40.100	337			
	組内 總和	40.100	341	.119		
2005 年	組間	2.293	4	.573	2.542	.039**
	Į.					
	組內	85.236	378	.225		
2006 年	總和 組間	87.529 2.230	382	.557	1.318	.263
2000	Į.				1.510	.203
	組內	175.174	414	.423		
2007 6	總和	177.404	418	5.400	2.001	001#
2007 年	組間	21.607	4	5.402	2.091	.081*
	組內	1239.881	480	2.583		
	總和	1261.489	484			
2008年	組間	2.070	4	.518	1.200	.310
	組內	233.401	541	.431		
	總和	235.471	545			
2009 年	組間	49.892	4	12.473	1.428	.223
	組內	4996.826	572	8.736		
	總和	5046.718	576			
2010年	組間	1.647	4	.412	1.673	.155
	組內	156.095	634	.246	1	1
	總和	157.743	638			1
2011 年	組間	.453	4	.113	.403	.806
	組內	186.392	664	.281		
	總和	186.844	668			
2012 年	組間	38.173	4	9.543	.646	.630
	組內	10225.622	692	14.777		
	總和	10263.794	696			
2013 年	組間	8.503	4	2.126	3.782	.005
	組內	392.371	698	.562		
	總和	400.875	702			



由上表可清楚看出其 2000 年與 2001 年流年為「金」、依照五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數分析, 其同時分析結果 2000 年顯示 F(4,226)=0.971, p>0.05 為 0.424, 而 2000 年無法證明達顯著差異, 而提前 三個月之分析結果 2000 年顯示 F(4,219)=2.644、p<0.05 為 0.035、顯著性小於 0.05、有達到顯著水準的差 異性。2001 年同時研究分析結果顯示 F(4,246)=0.908, p>0.05 為 0.460, 與 2001 年提前三個月之研究分 析結果顯示 F(4,252)=0.676, p>0.05 為 0.609 代表 2001 年兩項結果皆無法證明達顯著差異。其 2002 年與 2003 年流年為「木」, 其分析結果 2002 年同時資料顯示 F(4,264)=0.893, p>0.05 為 0.469, 而 2003 年同 時的研究分析結果顯示 F(4,296)=0.668·p>0.05為0.615·與2002年提前三個月之資料顯示 F(4,270)=1.092· p>0.05 為 0.361,加上 2003 年提前三個月的研究分析結果顯示 F(4,297)=1.077,p>0.05 為 0.368 其顯著性 皆大於 0.05,故 2002 年輿 2003 年無論同時資料與提前三個月之資料皆無法證明達顯著差異。2004 年與 2005 年流年為「水」,依照五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數分析,其 2004 同時資料分析結果顯示 F(4,343)=3.203,p<0.05 為 0.013,其顯著性小於 0.05,有達到顯著水準的差異性。2004 年提前三個月資 科分析結果顯示 F(4,337)=1.508、p>0.05 為 0.200、其顯著性大於 0.05、無達到顯著水準的差異性、故 2004 年提前三個月之資料無法證明達顯著差異。2005 年同時分析結果顯示 F(4,374)=1.436, p>0.05 為 0.221, 其顯著性大於 0.05,無達到顯著水準的差異性。但 2005 年提前三個月之資料分析結果顯示 F(4,378)=2.542, p<0.05 為 0.039, 其顯著性小於 0.05, 有達到顯著水準的差異性。 2006 年與 2007 年流年為「土」, 依照 五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數分析,其分析結果 2006 與 2007 年同時資料分別顯示 F(4,418)=1.313, p>0.05 為 0.265 與 F(4,491)=1.119, p>0.05 為 0.347, 和 2006 與 2007 年提早三個月之資料顯示 F(4,414)=1.318, p>0.05 為 0.263 與 F(4,480)=2.091, p>0.05 為 0.081 其顯著性皆大於 0.05, 但 2007 年提 早三個月之資料具有顯著差異。2008 年與 2009 年流年為「火」,依照五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數 分析,其分析結果 2008 年同時資料顯示 F(4,532)=0.878, p>0.05 為 0.477, 而 2009 年同時的研究分析結 果顯示F(4,556)=2.309·p>0.05為0.057·與2008年提前三個月之資料顯示F(4,541)=1.200·p>0.05為0.310· 和 2009 年提前三個月的研究分析結果顯示 F(4,572)=1.428, p>0.05 為 0.223。僅有 2009 年同時之資料顯 著性小於 0.1。2010 年輿 2011 年流年為「木」,依照五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數分析,其分析結 果 2010 奥 2011 年同時資料分別顯示 F(4,627)=0.333 ·p>0.05 為 0.856 · 奥 F(4,658)=1.318 ·p>0.05 為 0.262 · 和 2010 奥 2011 年提前三個月之資料顯示 F(4,634)=1.673、p>0.05 為 0.155、奥 F(4,664)=0.403、p>0.05 為 0.806 其顯著性皆大於 0.05,無達到顯著水準的差異性,故 2010 年與 2011 年無論同時或者提前三個 月皆無法證明違顯著差異。2012 年與 2013 年流年為「水」、依照五行生剋模型進行群組報酬變異數分析, 其分析結果 2012 年同時資料顯示 F(4,685)=0.625、p>0.05 為 0.645、2012 年提前三個月之資料顯示 F(4,692)=0.646,p>0.05 為 0.630,皆大於 0.05,2012 年無論同時或者提前三個月皆無法證明達顯著差異, 2013 年同時資料其結果顯示 F(4,689)=3.998, p<0.05 為 0.003, 2013 年提前三個月之結果顯示 F(4,698)=3.782,p<0.05 為 0.005 其顯著性皆小於 0.05 有達到顯著水準的差異性。

三、 以流年角度進行精簡五行報酬高低排列

為了進一步了解新加坡股票市場,使研究結果更加明確顯示,進一步進行五行群組精簡化統計分析。 觀察研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年,共計 14 年間,將報酬分為同時與提前三個月之資料,將上述資料分類 五組之平均報酬群組分類成兩組,分別為其對應關係是「本命」、「被生」與「剋」三組歸類合併成「預 期高報酬群組」,而對應關係為「生」與「被剋」兩組歸類合併成「預期低報酬群組」,以上這兩群在進 一步做精簡統計比較分析,並觀察期結果是否為「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬會明顯高於「預期低報 酬群組」之平均報酬,報酬排序有依照模型預測進行高低排列。



表 4-29 2000 年至 2013 年平均報酬整理表(同時)

年份	流年五行	預期高報酬群組	預期低報酬群組	大盤指數報酬率	是否依照高低排序	顯著性
2000年	金	-25.49%	-53.11%	-13.61%	是	0.130
2001 年	金	-14.08%	21.49%	-15.95%	否	0.118
2002 年	木	-9.86%	-28.06%	-22.15%	是	0.245
2003 年	木	69.64%	101.07%	29.94%	否	0.361
2004 年	水	-3.5%	-14.9%	11.78%	足	<u>0.006</u>
2005 年	水	13.71%	-6.65%	11.97%	是	0.038
2006年	土	72.13%	22.34%	10.8%	足	0.258
2007 年	土	100.61%	28.9%	11.41%	是	0.436
2008年	火	-54.25%	-49.96%	-29.8%	否	0.382
2009 年	火	123.57%	87.27%	35.02%	足	0.258
2010年	木	22.27%	32.59%	16.2%	否	0.528
2011 年	木	-23.69%	-16.88%	-16.66%	否	(0.075)
2012 年	水	77.96%	31.79%	17.86%	足	0.194
2013 年	水	12.02%	21.55%	22.84%	否	(0.052)
		共計8年				

資料來源: 本組研究整理

從上表可以看出以流年五行角度之 14 年間有 8 年符合高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組,其對應準確度達 57%。6 年為低報酬群組之平均報酬高於高報酬群組,佔整體 43%。其中四年中 2004、及 2005,年符合預期顯著,剩下 2011 及 2013 年不符合預期顯著。

表 4-30 2000 年至 2013 年平均報酬整理表(提前三個月)

年份	流年五行	預期高報酬群組	預期低報酬群組	大盤指數報酬率	是否依照高低排序	顯著性
2000年	金	-21.63%	-27.56%	-13.61%	是	0.159
2001 年	金	-33.77%	-24.30%	-15.95%	否	0.271
2002 年	木	11.88%	0.18%	-22.15%	是	0.282
2003 年	木	72.22%	56.04%	29.94%	是	<u>0.089</u>
2004 年	水	-3.26%	-10.43%	11.78%	是	<u>0.059</u>
2005 年	水	2.00%	-6.65%	11.97%	是	<u>0.082</u>
2006 年	土	19.39%	10.77%	10.8%	是	0.203
2007 年	土	73.88%	69.81%	11.41%	是	0.794
2008 年	火	-50.91%	-53.14%	-29.8%	是	0.698
2009 年	火	71.57%	47.56%	35.02%	是	0.339
2010年	木	13.78%	9.60%	16.2%	是	0.291
2011 年	木	-21.07%	-16.71%	-16.66%	否	0.288
2012 年	水	52.71%	18.73%	17.86%	是	0.251
2013 年	水	18.81%	30.08%	22.84%	否	(0.052)
		符合報酬高低排	非序年數		共計 11 年	

資料來源:本組研究整理



從上表可以看出以流年五行角度之 14 年間有 11 年符合高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組,其 對應準確度達 78%。而 3 年為低報酬群組之平均報酬高於高報酬群組,佔整體 22%,其中與同時比較過 後在原有之年度再新增 3 年符合年度,分別為 2003 年、2008 年與 2010 年。顯著性方面有 2003、2004、 2005 年符合預期顯著,2013 年則不符合預期顯著。

伍、 結論與建議

一、研究假設與實證結論

本研究重點在於運用中國命理五行生剋模型之概念來進行理論推演,並建立模型假設,再匯入新加坡上市股票公司 2000 年至 2013 年共 14 年之年報酬率來進行驗證,其中主要以五行生剋模型從公司五行與流年五行兩種面向進行探討。首先以公司五行類別為主,以相對應所處之不同流年下的報酬表現,來驗證是否符合五行生剋模型所預測的報酬走向。另一方面則是以流年五行本命為主,在不同流年下適合投資哪些公司五行的發展報酬會有較佳的表現,驗證其是否符合五行生剋模型所定義的「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」與「被剋」報酬關係由高至低的順序排列,由於在國際間多數學者研究實證股價屬領先指標可預測未來經濟表現,股價指數報酬率領先景氣同時指標變化一個月到一季最能說明兩者變化趨勢,本章按照此規律加入提早三個月之報酬率與原先報酬率相互比較驗證。以下就將研究假設與實證結果整理如下所示:

(一) 研究假設一之結論:提前一季與同時的新加坡上市股票公司五行類別報酬走向均部分符合五行生剋模型所定義的假設。

本研究運用五行生剋模型以新加坡上市股票公司 2000 年至 2013 年之年報酬率資料進行報酬走向之驗證。以個別公司五行類別與整體報酬走向的準確率二部分來看,先以個別公司五行類別報酬走向的準確率達到各公司五行本命 50% (含)以上,來分析所代表之比例;由以上的比例界定,首先公司本命為「土」的報酬走向準確度最高,高達 59.91%;再以公司本命「木」的報酬走向準確度為 59.26%居次;第三則是以公司本命為「水」的報酬率 57.94%;而第四是最多家數屬「金」的公司,其報酬率為 49.14%;最後則是報酬走向最低本命屬「火」的公司,報酬率為 47.06%,故可知屬「土」、「木」、「水」的公司報酬走向符合五行生剋模型所定義的假設。

再以整體報酬走向的準確率以達 50%(含)以上及 50%以下二項來看,則占整體比例的 68.73%(694間新加坡上市公司中有 477間公司準確率達 50%以上)及 31.27%之準確率。故部分符合假設一「新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別的報酬正負與五行生剋假說符合。」

假設 假設內容 實證結果 新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別的報酬正負與五行生剋假 部分符合

研究假設之實證結果

提前一季個別公司五行類別報酬走向由本命屬「木」的公司報酬走向準確度最高,可達 63.83%, 其次本命為「土」的公司,其報酬走向準確度為 60.94%,第三為公司本命屬「水」之公司,準確率為 57.82%,



再以屬「金」之準確率為 49.44%,而報酬走向最低為本命屬「火」之公司,報酬準確率為 44.67%。在提前一季重新計算報酬情況下,木、土、水三屬性公司之準確度皆有明顯上升,但金、火屬性公司之準確度依然低於 50%。

再以整體報酬走向的準確率 50%為分界來看,其整體進行驗證之 694 間新加坡上市公司中,共有467 間其報酬走向準確度達 50%(含)以上,占整體比例 67.29%,而報酬率低於 50%(不含)則只有 32.71%。故部分符合假設一「提前一季之新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別的報酬正負與五行生剋假說符合。」

研究假設之員證結末(校則一字)			
假設	假設內容	實證結果	
假設1	新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別的報酬正負與五行生剋假 說符合。	部分符合	

研究假設之實證結果(提前一季)

(二) 研究假設二之結論:新加坡上市股票公司五行報酬群組之平均報酬部分符合五行生剋假設說,而提前一季之平均報酬完全符合五行生剋假說。

本研究運用五行生剋模型從流年五行之角度來選擇進行何種產業五行之投資會有較好的表現,並且驗證其是否符合五行生剋模型所定義的「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」與「被剋」報酬關係由高至低的順序排列,以精簡化之方式將「本命」、「被生」、「剋」分類為「預期高報酬群組」與「剋」、「生」分類為「預期低報酬群組」之兩類群組分類,其結果發現14年期間以流年五行角度來驗證分析公司五行屬性有2000、2002、2004、2005、2006、2007、2009、2012年共計8年符合高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組之平均報酬,其對應準確度達57%。而2001、2003、2008、2010、2011、2013年共計6年並未符合五行生剋模型之報酬排序,準確度佔整體43%。

故上述之分析結果部分符合假設二「新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。」 研究假設之實證結果

假設	假設內容	實證結果
假設2	新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度符合 五行生剋假說。	部分符合

以提前一季之「預期高報酬群組」與「預期低報酬群組」來進行驗證分析,其結果發現 14 年間有 2000、2002、2003、2004、2005、2006、2007、2008、2009、2010、2012 年共計 11 年符合高報酬群組 之平均報酬高於低報酬群組,其對應準確度高達 78%,相較同時的準確度上升 21%。而只有 2001、2011、2013 這三年不符合五行生剋模型之報酬排序,準確度佔整體 22%。故上述之分析結果符合假設二「提前 三個月之新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別的平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。」

研究假設之實證結果(提前一季)

假設	假設內容	實證結果
假設2	新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報酬在各年度符合 五行生剋假說。	符合



(三) 研究假設三之結論:運用五行生剋模型分類新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均 報酬率以目測判斷其提前一季與同時資料符合五行生剋模型高低排列,但以統計方法分析僅 部分達顯著差異。

在本研究中分別運用目測法與變異數分析 ANOVA 檢定進行對五行生剋模型所分類之預期高報酬群組與預期低報酬群組之平均報酬做高低排序分析,其運用目測法對整體群組進行檢測,可清楚看出研究期間中有 2000、2002、2004、2005、2006、2007、2009、2012 年共計 8 年以期望吉凶由高至低方式呈現預期高報酬群組整體平均報酬高於預期低報酬群組,故部分符合研究 3-1 之假說,而進一步運用ANOVA 分析進行檢測 2000 年至 2013 年間,其分析結果在 2004、2009、2013 年達顯著水準。其 p 值分別為 0.013、0.057、0.003,其餘皆為無顯著差異,故無法運用統計變異數分析 ANOVA 檢定出其報酬群組間之報酬差異。

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假設	假設內容	實證結果
假設 3-1	以目測法判斷新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報酬 在各年度達顯著差異。	部分符合
假設 3-2	以統計方法檢定新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報 酬在各年度達顯著差異。	不符合

研究假設之實證結果

以目測法對提前一季之整體群組進行檢測,可看出在 2000、2002、2003、2004、2005、2006、2007、2008、2009、2010、2012 年共計 11 年以期望吉凶由高至低的方式呈現預期高報酬群組整體平均報酬高於預期低報酬群組,故符合研究 3-1 之假說,進而運用 ANOVA 分析進行檢測 2000 年至 2013 年間,2000、2005、2007、2013 年共四年達顯著水準,其 p 值分別為 0.035、0.039、0.081、0.005,其餘年度皆無顯著差異,故無法運用統計變異數分析 ANOVA 檢定出其報酬群組間之報酬差異。

假設	假設內容	實證結果
假設 3-1	以目測法判斷新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報酬 在各年度達顯著差異。	符合
假設 3-2	以統計方法檢定新加坡上市股票公司所屬五行類別之平均報 酬在各年度達顯著差異。	不符合

研究假設之實證結果(提前一季)

以上述實證結果所示:

- ◆ 在假設一之同時資料報酬準確率走向由高至低以本命屬「土」、「木」、「水」之公司較高,提前一季 則依序為屬「木」、「土」與「水」公司報酬較高,其報酬準確率均高於55%。
- ◆ 在假設二中同時資料之 14 年研究期間有 8 年符合預期高報酬群組高於預期低報酬群組,而提前一季在相同研究期間有 11 年符合假設,增加了 21%報酬準確度。
- ◆ 在 ANOVA 分析中,同時資料在簡化前有三年具有顯著性,而在簡化後有四年達顯著水準,但其中 兩年不符合預期顯著。然而,提前一季在簡化前有四年達顯著性,簡化後依然有四年達顯著水準, 但其中一年不符合預期顯著。



二、研究限制與建議

(一)研究限制

- 1. 本研究利用中國命理五行的概念建立五行生剋模型,並且以年為單位運用在新加坡上市股票公司,針對 2000年至2013年共計14年期間進行驗證分析,因流年五行關係之限制,故無法驗證與觀測短時間內其造成股市波動之關係,僅能以年為單位驗證其對於股市報酬率之關係。
- 2. 公司五行的本命是以公司主要事業與營收作區分,但公司可能會隨著環境因素與競爭而改變其主要營業的內容,因此本研究以目前公司其主要活動訂定本命,並以公司過去主要活動之變化做為五行訂定之考量。
- 3. 由於本研究搭配天干地支規則所訂定之五行流年,以五行生剋關係作為報酬走向之預測,故無法考慮 現今許多影響報酬走向之政治天然災害、外在環境與突發等影響股市之外在因素,例如 2001 年美國 的 911 事件,引發全球恐慌,造成了股市波動。

(二)研究建議

- 本研究使用五行模型對新加坡上市股票公司進行實證分析,其五行生剋模型的流年是以天干五行為主, 故建議爾後研究者能運用更多五行學術之系統性思維理論,使其模型更具完整多元化。或者以五行生 剋模型來研究並對比分析澳美國家與亞洲國家兩者之間是否有所差異。
- 2. 本研究僅以 2000 年至 2013 年間的新加坡上市股票公司做精準度分析與驗證,並未進行未來選股預測分析,故建議後續研究者將五行生剋模型搭配其他選股模型進行模擬選股實證績效分析,期盼能更精準的預測報酬走向,並作為現代投資人選股的主要依據,以獲取超額報酬。



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以五行生剋模型驗證股票選股策略-S&P500 指數成分股為例

An Empirical Research of Five-Phases Allelopathy Model on Stock Selection Strategy: An Example of the S&P 500 Index's Component Stocks

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摘要

本研究以中國命理五行學說為主要概念,以五行「木、火、土、金、水」五種相生相剋的關係,搭配從古至今由天干地支規則所建立之流年五行建立五行生剋模型(Five-Phases Allelopathy Model, FPAM) 判斷報酬走向之驗證。本研究對象以 S&P 500 Index 成分股作為次級資料之蒐集與研究對象,研究期間為2000至 2013年,共計 14年間。本研究從兩種角度視野進行五行生剋模型在 S&P 500 Index 成分股的運用,分別為從產業五行本命對所處不同流年的情況下適合在哪些年進行投資與從不同的流年五行適合投資哪種何種本命五行之產業,其運用五行生剋模型進行驗證。根據 Chang, et al.,(2013)以灰色矩陣自我迴歸模式在經濟指標與股價指數互動結構之研究—以美國為例之實證結果,指出 S&P 500 Index 對經濟指標有領先關係,而在國際間多數學者實證研究支持領先指標假說,本研究按照此推論加入領先三個月與領先六個月之報酬率比較驗證。研究結果顯示,以產業本命五行對不同流年之實證,整體預期報酬走向準確度達 50%(含,以上的公司,以本命屬『木』之公司報酬走向準確率最高,可達 90%以上,而從不同的流年五行來驗證分析公司五行屬性報酬高低順序,2000年至 2013間各年度未有完全符合五行生剋模型所假設之報酬高低順序排列,但共計有 8 年部分符合五行相生相剋假說之報酬高低順序排列。

關鍵字: 五行生剋模型、中國命理、S&P500 指數成分股



ABSTRACT

Based on the Five-Phases Allelopathy Theory of Chinese numerology, this paper establishes a stock selecting model. In this study, we use the theory of the Five-Phases of Chinese numerology as the main concept of the modeling establishment, of which the five elements wood, fire, earth, gold, water's allelopathy relations as the main concept. We use all stocks' monthly data in the S&P 500 Index's Component Stocks as sampling data from 2000 to 2013, totally as 14 years. This study uses two steps to verify the use of the Five-Phases Allelopathy Model (FPAM) in the S&P 500 Index's Component Stocks. According to Chang, et al.,(2013) A Study of Grey VAR on Dynamic Structure between Economic Indicators and Stock Market Indices in the United States, pointed out that S & P 500 Index of leading economic indicators relationship, most international specialists believe the stock is a leading index, we add the return rate which is three and six month earlier to compare the original return rate. The results show that the company type is "wood" this group have highest accuracy of 90% in sampling period from a natal numerology. And from the view of appropriate of different natal industry group in sequencing years, eight of fourteen years match partly the Five-Phases Allelopathy Theory that the average return of the high-paid group is higher than the average return of the low-paid group.

Keywords: Five-PhasesAllelopathy Model, Chinese Numerology, S&P500 Index's Constituent Stocks



壹、緒論

美國股票市場是最大規模的投資市場,也是全球投資人矚目的焦點,在21世紀初,網際網路泡沫破滅,導致美國經濟陷入低迷,又於2007年爆發次級房貸風暴,令美國及整個世界經濟受到嚴重打擊,隨後於2008年,美國次級房貸風暴演變成金融危機,導致金融海嘯波及全球各國經濟,在美國發生次級房貸風暴後,股市受到劇烈震盪,創下單日最大跌點,當市場使投資人失去信心,技術分析與基本分析都無法為投資人獲取超額報酬的時候,能夠提高報酬降低風險的選股方式,就成為投資人選股之參考依據。

由當代投資學理論所教導的投資策略,如班傑明·葛拉漢(Benjamin Graham)、華倫·愛德華·巴菲特(Warren Edward Buffett),與尤金·法馬(Eugene Fama)等知名投資大師,卻鮮少人可以實踐在股票市場獲取超額報酬,當投資人對於許多選股指標失去信心,而非正式理論的方式將是投資人另一種選股之參考依據,但結果仍不盡理想。若將上述進一步思考,在中國悠久浩瀚的歷史下,古代早已運用磁場的概念導論出宇宙間萬物,皆由木、火、土、金、水五種基本物質間的運行與變化構成,透過此運行變化形成五行相生相剋的基本原理。《國語·鄭語》:『以土與金、木、水、火雜以成萬物』與《左傳》:『天生五才,民並用之,廢一不可』,從上述兩句古語,由中國命理學的角度去探討,宇宙中萬物皆由五行所組成。股票市場是宇宙中萬物之一,股市內的各行各業更是萬物不可或缺的要素。

根據過去文獻討論五行生剋模型之研究如廖昭宇、陳君邁與張宮熊(2013)在台灣股票市場;蔡宜真、陳君邁與張宮熊(2013)在滬深 300 指數成分股;林育琪、康瀞之、黃郁雅、葉樂臨與林心柔(2013)在台灣股票櫃買市場;張宮熊與陳柏熹(2014)在日經 225 指數成分股;張宮熊與賴秋蘭(2014)在香港股票市場;王文興、林欣靜、徐碩成、蔡少華、施志成與王澤偉(2014)在新加坡股票市場,上述學者都成功將五行生剋模型運用在股票市場相關議題之研究上。

本研究延續上述學者研究之五行生剋模型,應用在 S&P 500 Index 成分股進行驗證股票選股策略之研究,透過中國命理五行學說區分公司五行本命,搭配流年的角度,盼能了解 S&P 500 Index 成分股與五行學說間之關係。

基於上述之研究背景與動機,發展出本研究目的,如以下三點所示:

- 1. 中國命理五行學說為主要研究架構探討與 S&P 500 Index 成分股有其探索性與關聯性之驗證。
- 2. 運用中國命理五行學說為主軸建立其模型對 S&P 500 Index 成分股報酬率進行準確度驗證。
- 3. 以流年五行為主要角度觀測產業五行之 S&P 500 Index 成分股報酬率高低排序驗證。



貳、文獻探討

一、中國命理「五行」

(一) 五行理論

關於五行的起源,各有不同的說法,五行就其概念可追溯黃帝時代(吳旺霖、楊國樞、許功餘,2010,,在古文獻中,最早談到五行的是《尚書》的〈甘誓〉與〈洪範〉(劉筱紅,1996,,《尚書·洪範》:『五行:一曰水,二曰火,三曰木,四曰金,五曰土。水曰潤下,火曰炎上,木曰曲真,金曰從革,土爰稼穑。潤下作咸,炎上作苦,曲直作酸,從革作辛,稼穑作甘。』由上述古語,清楚述說五種物質的內容和屬性,在先秦典籍中首見五行之處(郭國泰、陳郁夫,2008,。五行理論的發展過程,首先是系統性的整理存在的經驗,抽象的概括五行之特性;再進行原則的附加,創造出五行簡單觀念,用以表示人們的心靈精神層面。接著再發展出五行相生相剋之循環,系統性的敘述世界萬事萬物的發生、發展及運行,並探求未來與進行預測。而五行理論廣泛運用在中醫學、占卜學、命理學、心理學等方面,並間接的認定大自然萬物皆由這五大要素所構成。

(二) 五行生剋理論

五行生剋學說產生於春秋期間,成熟於戰國中後期,它肯定物質的運動變化屬性,但又把這種變化 看作是循環往復的過程(劉筱紅,1996 ,。而五行之間存在相生相剋的規律,相生,有互相滋生,促進 助長之意。五行相生關係為木頭幫助火燃燒,火燃燒後會產生灰爐沃土,土壤中蘊含許多的金屬礦物質; 金屬融化後會成為液態如水,水能幫助植物生長,故相生的循環:木生火、火生土、土生金、金生水、 水生木。相剋,有互相制約、克制,抑制之意。五行相剋關係為植物的養分是從土壤裡吸取,洪水來臨 時,最適合阻擋的就是土,火旺的時候,最快控制火勢的就是水,火可以雕塑金屬,甚至燒成液態,金 屬做的斧頭可以把樹木砍斷,故相剋的循環:木剋土、土剋水、水剋火、火剋金、金剋木。因此,五行 生剋學說用以概括與說明事物聯繫與發展變化基本的觀點(邵偉華,1994 ,。

表 1 五行生剋循環表

五行相生循環	木→火→土→金→水→木
五行相剋循環	木→土→水→火→金→木

(三)五行產業類別屬性

五行的特性與屬性分別有所不同,學者依照其股票的產業類別做進一步五行分類,陳紅元(1994)將股票市場之類股依照五行之區分,「木」:紡織類股、纖維類股、造紙類股等,「火」:化工類股、電子資訊類股、玻璃陶瓷類股等,「土」:橡膠輪胎類股、塑膠石化類股等,「金」:鋼鐵類股、電機電器類股、電線電纜類股等,「水」:航運類股、汽車類、金融類股等,上述分類是依照當時的情況與環境,現今科技發展迅速,電腦週邊與其消費性電子都已大量生產,故在類股的分類上,眾多產業轉型的情況仍需要在類別上調整修正。下表 2 根據中國五術學院所整理,依照五行所屬行業根據其特性、相關行業別與代表股票類別進行整理:



表 2 五行所屬行業與股票類別表

		The state of the s	
五行所 屬行業	特性	相關行業別	代表股票類別
	與木材、植	文學、文藝、作家、寫作、撰文、文化事業的文人;教育界、教員、	紡織類
	物相關之	校長,文具店、教育品、書店、出版社;官途之界、政治界、公務員、	橡膠類
	行業,直向	司法界、治安警界,参政界;發明、新創設界;特殊動植物生長界之	纸類
 本	伸展性之	學者、植物栽種試驗界。木材、木器、木製品、傢俱、裝璜、紙業、	
75	行業	竹業、種植界、花界、樹苗界、青果商、草界、藥物界、醫療界,工	
		藝、花苗園藝、農業蔬果、糧食。培育人才界、布匹買賣界、宗教應	
		用物界、宗教家之事業、或售賣植物性之素食品。	
	與火能、熱	光線性質、加工修理性質、做工性質、再製性質、易燃燒性質、手工	塑膠類
	能相關之	藝性質、熱度性質、火爆性質、一切人身裝飾物性質者。電燈、電器、	照明類
	行業,向上	放光、照光、照明、照相、瓦斯、爆竹、光學類、眼鏡、高熱類、易	電器類
火	延展性之	燃燒物、光線類。油類業、煙酒類業、熱飲食小吃業、飯店、餐廳、	電機類
	行業	食品工廠業、手工藝品、機械加工品。	電腦軟體類
			電線電纜類
	與土地、石	土產或地產性質、農作性質、畜牧性質、大自然原物性質、中間人之	水泥類
	礦相關之	性質,人才事業,屬中央,故高級官員、領導性質、政黨界均屬之。	營建類
	行業,固定	農人或土壤研究者、售現成菜類、售現成農作物、土産、畜牧獸類、	泥窯類
土	基礎性之	售飼料界、所有農畜界百業。水泥建材、陶瓷磚瓦、土地、大自然原	食品類
	行業	物買賣界。建築界、營造、房地產、建築物買賣業、不動產買賣等業。	玻璃類
		當舖、古董家及鑑定師、介紹業、代書、律師、說客、法官、代理、	化學類
		管理、建築師。顧問、秘書、附屬人均是。	生物科技類
	與金屬、機	粗鐵材或金屬工具、材料等方面之事業,鋼鐵工廠、五金行、機械、	汽車類
	械相關之	鑄造、金屬加工、堅硬事業,決斷事業,主動別人性質的事業。武術	鋼鐵類
金	行業,堅硬	家、鑄刀劍、鑑定師、大法官、總主宰、民意代表、汽車界、交通界、	電子硬體類
	延展性之	工程業、科學界、開礦界、珠寶銀樓界、伐木事業、售機械界、五金	金融業
	行業	買賣、電料界、電氣店、保險業、金融界、信託、股票。	證券類
	與水、寒性	漂游性質、奔波性質、流動性質、連續運動性質、易變化性質、水屬	運輸類
	質相關之	性質、音響性質、清潔性質、冷溫具不燃性之化學界、靠入海求生活	流通類
	行業,四散	者,均屬之。航運、航海界、船員、碼頭工、魚類界、釣魚、釣魚器	觀光類
	向下流動	具、水產養殖業、海物類、水物界、港內界、港商、打水界、水利界、	百貨類
水	之行業	冷溫不燃液體類,冰水界、冷藏界、冷凍界、潔洗業、清潔隊、掃除	
		業、流水界、泳池、浴池、湖、池塘、冷飲、菜市場內售賣冷食物均	
		屬之。運動家、醫師、護士、導遊業、旅社、旅行業、遷旅業、貿易	
		商、聲樂、音響業、樂器、流動攤販。	

資料來源:修改中國五術學院整理



二、股票市場選股相關文獻

對眾多投資人而言,決定投資策略時,是利用各項的工具來接收及解讀各種的訊息,而投資策略主要是用來描述機構或個別投資人管理其投資組合的所有作法,作為決策時所參考依據。投資人所使用的分析工具,除常用的技術面分析、基本面分析外,近來也有許多投資人對運用命理分析股市具有極大的興趣,使其漸漸成為分析股市的另一種方式。故回顧過去命理五行在股票市場上之選股相關文獻。

下表 3 為 1995 年至 2014 年間,學者透過命理五行運用在股票市場上進行實證之研究期間及對象、研究方法與相關實證結果:

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研究者 (發表時間)	研究期間 (研究對象)	研究方法	相關實證結果
陳鈺元 (1995)	1994 年 (台灣股票市場)	五行學說輪漲模型	建立模型為「在各季五行氣初開始買進五行氣最旺的 類股,持有60天後,在進入土月之前賣出可獲得最高 之報酬」,其將八大類股中五行氣較明顯者予以區分, 並將1年依24節氣劃分出五行時段作為買進賣出之判 斷。研究結果發現,市場是可欲測的,違反半強效式 市場策略。 研究發現五行學說用於預測中國股市年度的行情可達 65%,之後再進一步經過相關數據檢驗,亦發現五行
廖旗平 (2011)	1991 年-2010 年 (上海證券指數)	五行相生相剋原理	預測結果和上海證券指數實際漲跌之間的相關係數為 0.3144,則較具有明顯的效果。在推驗至中、短期效 果,以月度行情來說其可靠度僅有42.5%,發現其預 測結果與上海證券指數實際漲跌間的相關係數為 0.1176,研究結果推論以中國股市長期趨勢則有比較 明顯的效果。
廖昭宇 、陳君邁 、張宮熊 (2013)	2000年-2012年(台灣股票市場)	五行生剋 模型	五行生剋模型對台灣上市公司進行驗證分析,研究結果發現2000年至2012年期間,以產業五行本命對不同流年之實證以公司本命「土」準確為最高,準確度達84.44%,而從不同的流年五行適合投資哪種何種本命五行之產業以高低報酬群組作排序分析,分析結果13年間有8年呈現高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度達68%。
 蔡宜真、陳君邁、張宮熊(2013)	2000年-2012年 (滬深 300指數 成分股)	五行生剋 模型	五行生剋模型對滬深 300 指數成分股進行驗證分析, 研究結果發現 2000 年至 2012 年期間,以整體報酬走 向準確度達 50% (含,以上來看,占整體比例 76.41%。而從流年五行驗證其報酬高低排序,13 年間 共計 8 年符合五行生剋模型所假設之預期報酬高低排 序。



林育琪 ·康瀞之 ·黄郁雅 ·葉樂臨 ·林心柔 (2013)	2000年-2012年(台灣股票櫃買市場)	五行生剋模型	五行生剋模型對台灣上櫃公司進行驗證分析,研究結果發現2000年至2012年期間,以整體報酬走向的準確率達50%(含,以上及50%(不含,以下兩項來看,則占整體比例的50.28%及49.72%之準確率。13年間共計7年部分符合預期高報酬群組之平均報酬高於預期低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度佔整體54%。 五行生剋模型對日經225指數成分股進行驗證分析,
·陳柏熹 (2014)	(日經 225 指數 成分股)	五行生剋 模型	研究結果發現 2000 年至 2013 年期間,以公司五行本 命屬性對不同流年之實證以本命屬『火』之公司報酬 走向準確率最高,可達至 98.18%。
張宮熊 · 賴秋蘭 (2014)	2000年-2013年 (香港股票市場)	五行生剋 模型	五行生剋模型對香港股票市場進行驗證分析,研究結果發現 2000 年至 2013 年期間,以公司五行本命對應不同流年之實證以本命屬『木』之公司報酬走向準確率最高,可達至 81.18%,而從不同的流年五行來驗證分析公司五行屬性報酬高低順序,研究期間未有完全符合五行生剋模型所假設之報酬高低排列,部份符合五行相生相剋假說之報酬高低順序排列者共計 8 年,以流年五行角度觀察研究樣本在研究期間,有 11 年符合「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬率高於「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬率。
王文興 、林颀静 、徐碩成 、蔡少華 、施志深 (2014)	2000年-2013年 (新加坡股票 市場)	五行生剋 模型	五行生剋模型對新加坡股票市場進行驗證分析,研究結果發現 2000 年至 2013 期間,以個別公司報酬走向的準確率達五行本命 50%(含 ,以上,來分析所代表之比例;由以上的比例界定,公司本命為「土」的報酬走向準確度最高,高達 59.91%;而從不同的流年五行適合投資何種本命五行之產業以高低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度達 57%。由於在國際間多數學者研究實證股價屬領先指標可預測未來經濟表現,股價指數報酬率領先景氣同時指標變化一個月到一季最能說明兩者變化趨勢,照此規律加入提早三個月之報酬率與原先報酬率相互比較驗證。提前一季個別公司五行類別報酬走向由本命屬「木」的公司報酬上向準確度最高,可達 63.83%;有 11 年呈現高報酬群組之平均報酬高於低報酬群組之平均報酬,準確度達 78%。



參、研究方法

一、研究架構

本研究架構如圖 1 所示。首先針對 S&P 500 Index 成分股之歷史股價作為本研究原始資料(Raw Data),並運用調整後股價作為年報酬率之依據。而在五行學說的方面在建立其五行生剋循環與流年五行定義作為五行生剋模型,並將此模型作為預期驗證報酬走向的依據指標。接著進行初步驗證 S&P 500 Index 成分股調整後股價報酬率之預測走向是否與五行生剋模型相符,定義 S&P 500 Index 成分股其主要五行本命,在與實際報酬走向驗證其精準度。隨後進行以反推驗證運用流年五行為主要參考依據,分別進行 2000 年至 2013 年期間之五行生剋循環預期報酬高低排序,先運用目測法(Visual method)之方式驗證其報酬高低走向排列是否如同五行生剋模型之報酬走向達一致性,再運用統計分析方法變異數分析(ANOVA F Test)驗證五行群組之平均報酬關係是否達顯著差異,若整體達顯著差異則進一步利用 Scheffe 與 LSD 法進行事後報酬率比較分析(Post Hoc Rate of Return comparison Test)。

二、研究對象與範圍

S&P 500 Index 是由美國史坦普公司在 1957 年所推廣,成分股包含道瓊 30 家和其他最大的 470 家公司所組成,它不僅是測量美國前 500 大公司股票市場表現的一個標準,也是被分析師用來預測股市脈動的一個基準,這 500 家公司通常為美國上市公司中市場價值最高的 500 家公司,相當具有權威性。

本研究之研究期間為 2000 年至 2013 年,共計十四年間。資料蒐集主要使用調整後股價之歷史資料,為避免因除權、除息或股權分割所產生的研究誤差,故以 S&P 500 Index 成分股調整後股價之年報酬率作為本研究之原始資料。研究對象 S&P 500 Index 成分股取自 S&P Dow Jones Indices 日期為 102 年 12 月 31 日,剔除被合併和資料不足一年的公司,不予以分析,共計 489 家。研究資料的獲取則從 Yahoo Finance 中蒐集並進行整理分析。

三、研究假設

假設	假設之內容
假設1	S&P 500 Index 成分股預期報酬走向符合五行生剋模型。
/na →n. O	S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度符合五行生剋模型之報酬高低排
假設 2	序。
假設3	S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。
假設	以目測法於 S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。
3-1	以日测法於 SOCF 300 Hidex 成分股別屬立行時超之十均報酬任合平及逐顯者差共。
假設	以及社会社会 CCD SOO Indoor 上入町蛇属了 仁彩 /o 医亚比切迹性皮 佐 在 字原岩 等度。
3-2	以統計方法於 S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度達顯著差異。



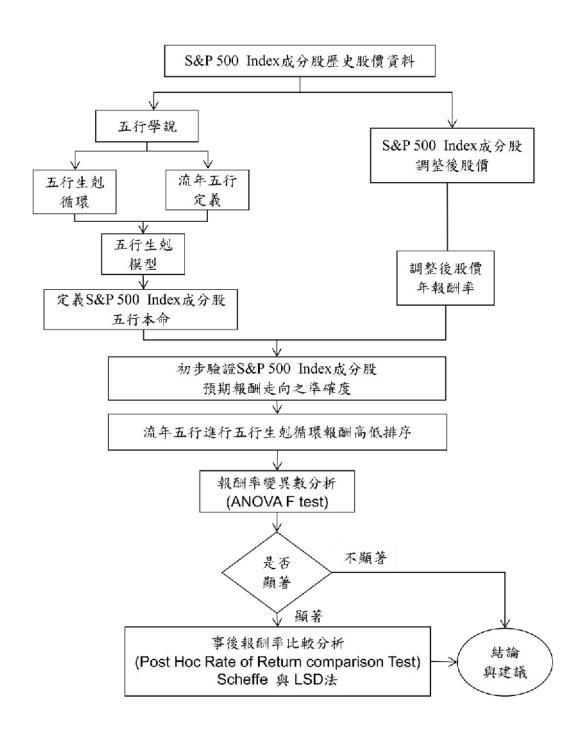


圖1 研究架構



四、五行生剋模型

本研究以命理五行學說為理論並以此學說建立五行生剋模型,運用命理五行之『木』、『火』、『土』、『金』及『水』五種元素之間生剋與互相循環的原理,如圖 2 所示。相生的順序為:木→火→土→金→水→木,相剋的順序為:木→土→水→火→金→木,依照 S&P 500 Index 成分股主要營運活動,參照修改中國五術學院定義之『五行所屬行業』、為主要定義 S&P 500 Index 成分股之五行屬性。

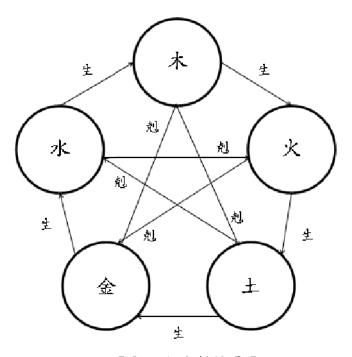


圖 2 五行生剋循環圖

(一)公司五行本命對應流年五行關係

搭配五行流年之本命年進行關係定義,以「木、火、土、金、水」五種公司本命搭配「木、火、土、金、水」五種流年之本命年,將上述關係做排列組合的方式呈現,以 5(公司五行本命)×5(流年五行本命年)=25種本命流年相生相剋狀態。由此得知,每間公司會有其所屬的五行屬性,以永續經營的前提下,在其過程中會面臨到五種流年本命,而面對到的不同本命流年也會其相生相剋關係的影響造成報酬走向的不同。

流年五行 公司五行	木年(報酬)	火年(報酬)	土年(報酬)	金年(報酬)	水年(報酬)
本命木	本命(+)	生(-)	剋(+)	被剋(-)	被生(+)
本命火	被生(+)	本命(+)	生(-)	剋(+)	被剋(-)
本命土	被剋(-)	被生(+)	本命(+)	生(-)	剋(+)
本命金	剋(+)	被剋(-)	被生(+)	本命(+)	生(-)
本命水	生(-)	剋(+)	被剋(-)	被生(+)	本命(+)



(二)流年五行對照五種關係排列

接著以流年五行角度依照上述五種關係進行報酬高低排列,以本命年來看,關係「本命」為流年定義報酬最大,報酬排名為最佳,而關係為「被生」以輔助產業本命成長最大,報酬排名為次佳,而關係為「剋」以產業本命可依靠自身能量克服度過其流年,使其本命不受侵害,報酬排名為平,流年與本命關係為「生」有消已助彼之意味,故報酬排名為差,最後,流年與本命關係為「被剋」,顧名思義其關係為被流年所壓抑且不利成長,故報酬排名為最差。

關係排列流年五行	本命(最佳)	被生(次佳)	剋(平)	生(差)	被剋(最差)
流年木	木	火	金	水	土
流年火	火	土	水	木	金
流年土	Ŧ	金	木	火	水
流年金	金	水	火	土	木
流年水	水	木	+	金	火

肆、實證分析

根據 Chang, et al.,(2013)以灰色矩陣自我迴歸模式在經濟指標與股價指數互動結構之研究—以美國為例之實證結果,指出 S&P 500 Index 對經濟指標有領先關係,而在國際間多數學者實證研究支持領先指標假說,本章按照此推論加入領先三個月與領先六個月之報酬率比較驗證。

一、五行生剋模型假說驗證分析

本研究依據五行生剋模型對 S&P 500 Index 成分股進行驗證分析,依公司五行本命對上流年五行所產生的五種報酬關係,分別假設定義不同之報酬走向,分別為「本命」、「被生」與「剋」為正向報酬,而「生」與「被剋」為負向報酬,如本命屬「水」之公司遇到為「本命」流年五行屬水、「被生」流年五行屬金與「剋」流年五行屬火,則以上三種關係流年則假設定義預期報酬為正向報酬,若為「生」流年五行屬木與「被剋」流年五行屬土,以上兩種關係流年則定義其預期報酬為負向報酬,並根據本研究定義之研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年共計 14 年間,進行與實際報酬正負走向進行驗證。

經由本研究整理分類 S&P 500 Index 成分股之五行本命,其中本命屬「木」之公司則有 78 家、本命屬「火」之公司則有 81 家、本命屬「土」之公司則有 88 家、本命屬「金」之公司則有 124 家,而本命屬「水」之公司則有 118 家,共計 489 家。

(一) 五行本命報酬走向準確度

本研究對象 S&P 500 Index 成分股經由五行生剋模型依照上述方式進行分析研究其結果顯示,整體預期報酬走向準確度達 50%(含,以上的公司五行本命分別為,公司本命「木」報酬走向準確度達 91.03%、公司本命「火」報酬走向準確度達 48.15%、公司本命「土」報酬走向準確度達 81.82%、公司本命「金」



報酬走向準確度達 56.45%,公司本命「水」報酬走向準確度達 68.64%。而將以上報酬預期準確度由高至低進行順序排列則為本命「木」>本命「土」>本命「水」>本命「金」>本命「火」,並將以上由高至低的報酬排序如下圖 3:

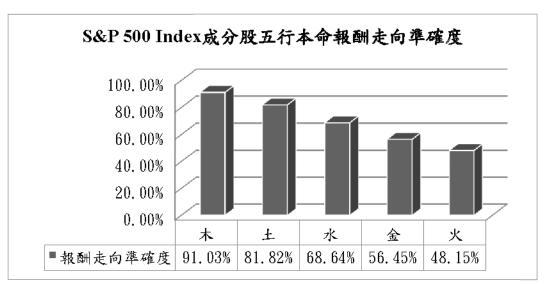


圖 3 S&P 500 Index 成分股五行本命報酬走向準確度

(二)五行本命報酬走向準確度(領先三個月)

本研究對象 S&P 500 Index 成分股經由五行生剋模型依照上述方式進行分析研究其結果顯示,整體預期報酬走向準確度達 50%(含,以上的公司五行本命分別為,公司本命「木」報酬走向準確度達 97.44%、公司本命「火」報酬走向準確度達 25.93%、公司本命「土」報酬走向準確度達 77.27%、公司本命「金」報酬走向準確度達 72.58%,公司本命「水」報酬走向準確度達 47.46%。而將以上報酬預期準確度由高至低進行順序排列則為本命「木」>本命「土」>本命「金」>本命「水」>本命「火」,並將以上由高至低的報酬排序如下圖 4:

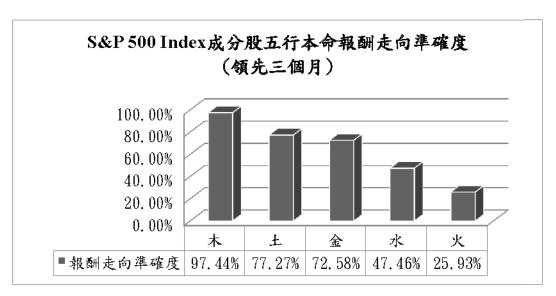


圖 4 S&P 500 Index 成分股五行本命報酬走向準確度(領先三個月)



(三)五行本命報酬走向準確度(領先六個月)

本研究對象 S&P 500 Index 成分股經由五行生剋模型依照上述方式進行分析研究其結果顯示,整體預期報酬走向準確度達 50%(含,以上的公司五行本命分別為,公司本命「木」報酬走向準確度達 96.15%、公司本命「火」報酬走向準確度達 35.80%、公司本命「土」報酬走向準確度達 70.45%、公司本命「金」報酬走向準確度達 84.68%,公司本命「水」報酬走向準確度達 48.31%。而將以上報酬預期準確度由高至低進行順序排列則為本命「木」>本命「金」>本命「土」>本命「水」>本命「火」,並將以上由高至低的報酬排序如下圖 5:

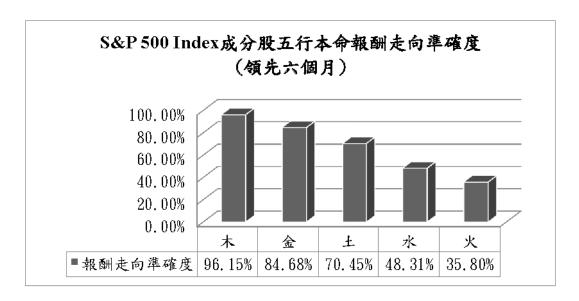


圖 5 S&P 500 Index 成分股五行本命報酬走向準確度(領先六個月)

由上述圖 3、4、5 公司五行本命報酬走向準確度,可得知整體報酬走向準確度達 50%(含,以上公司,均佔整體 60%以上,而從個別公司本命來觀察,本命「木」報酬走向準確度均達 90%以上,本命「火」報酬走向準確度均達 50%以下。從領先關係來觀察,本命「金」報酬走向,以領先六個月為最高,本命「土」、「水」、「火」報酬走向,以同時為最高。

二、以流年五行角度進行報酬高低排列分析

此節以流年五行之角度為主要依據,對本研究對象 S&P 500 Index 成分股報酬率進行五行生剋模型報酬高低進行排列分析,而研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年共 14 年間,2000 年與 2001 年屬「金」、2002 年與2003 年屬「木」、2004 年與2005 年屬「水」、2006 年與2007 年屬「土」、2008 年與2009 年屬「火」、2010 年與2011 年屬「木」、2012 年與2013 年屬「水」、整理分類以「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」與「被剋」五種關係進行對應流年關係進行預期報酬由高至低分類,接著運用ANOVA 變異數分析檢定驗證整體五組是否達顯著差異水準,若達顯著差異水準則進一步運用Scheffe 與LSD 法進行事後兩兩多重分析,最後,以平均報酬率之關係驗證其研究期間之流年五行是否依照其相對應之方式進行排序:



(一)流年五行之報酬率分析

表 42000 年至 2013 年報酬率變異數分析

		D ÷L	台本座	$v \mapsto v \leftrightarrow v$	E	原石 学 141
2000 年	組間	平方和 11.951	自由度	平均平方和 2.988	F 11.744	顯著性 .000**
2000 -9-	組內	106.344	418	.254	11./44	.000
	總和	118.295	422	.234		
2001 年	組間	.572	422	.143	.474	.755
2001 -	組內	129.384	429	.302	.474	.133
	總和	129.955	433	.502		
2002 年	組間	.863	4	.216	3.395	.009**
2002	組內	27.630	435	.064	3.373	.002
	總和	28.492	439	.001		
2003 年	組間	4.648	4	1.162	3.023	.018**
2005	組內	167.953	437	.384	5.025	.010
	總和	172.601	441	.501		
2004 年	組間	2.820	4	.705	5.713	.000**
2001-1	組內	54.669	443	.123	5.715	.000
	總和	57.489	447	.125		
2005 年	組間	4.282	4	1.071	5.165	.000**
2005 ,	組內	93.473	451	.207	5.105	.000
	總和	97.755	455	.207		
2006 年	組間	.281	4	.070	1.189	.315
2000 ,	組內	26.982	456	.059	1.103	.515
	總和	27.264	460	.023		
2007 年	組間	3.219	4	.805	4.695	.001**
2007 ,	組內	79.356	463	.171	1.052	.001
	總和	82.575	467			
2008 年	組間	3.030	4	.757	15.291	.000**
2000 ,	組內	23.182	468	.050	15.251	.000
	總和	26.212	472			
2009 年	組間	8.611	4	2.153	2.916	.021**
2009 ,	組內	347.739	471	.738	2.510	.021
	總和	356.350	475	.,		
2010 年	組間	1.025	4	.256	3.244	.012**
2010 ,	組內	37.438	474	.079	5.2	.012
	總和	38.463	478			
2011 年	組間	1.902	4	.475	8.753	.000**
,	組內	26.178	482	.054		
	總和	28.080	486			
2012 年	組間	.484	4	.121	2.370	.052*
,	組內	24.697	484	.051	2.573	
	總和	25.181	488			
2013 年	組間	2.257	4	.564	8.144	.000**
,	組內	33.528	484	.069		
	總和	35.785	488			

註: *為顯著水準達 0.01; **為顯著水準達 0.05。



經由上表 4 變異數分析整理後發現,除了 2001 年與 2006 年未達顯著差異,2012 年顯著水準達 0.01, 其餘年份的顯著性皆達顯著水準 0.05。

接著進一步將上述研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年分別的平均報酬率「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」、「被 剋」五種關係精簡分成兩組,其對應關係為「本命」、「被生」與「剋」三組歸類合併成「預期高報酬群 組」,而對應關係為「生」與「被剋」兩組歸類合併成「預期低報酬群組」,以上這兩群在做精簡分析比 較,觀察其結果是否為「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬會高於「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬,並將 S&P 500 Index 報酬率合併,其結果如表 5 所示:

te IA	流年	預期	預期	S&P 500 Index	是否符合
年份	五行	高報酬群組	低報酬群組	報酬率	高低排序
2000年	金	19.92%	51.09%	-2.04%	否
2001 年	金	7.01%	9.73%	-17.26%	否
2002 年	木	-13.61%	-11.34%	-24.29%	否
2003 年	木	48.87%	59.04%	32.19%	否
2004 年	水	22.37%	20.74%	4.43%	足
2005 年	水	29.54%	25.86%	8.36%	是
2006 年	土	15.65%	19.10%	12.36%	否
2007 年	土	6.55%	3.29%	-4.15%	足
2008 年	火	-33.57%	-41.17%	40.09%	足
2009 年	火	51.85%	67.32%	30.03%	否
2010年	木	27.44%	35.58%	19.76%	否
2011 年	木	5.33%	5.31%	2.04%	足
2012 年	水	20.89%	17.18%	14.15%	足
2013 年	水	23.11%	27.64%	18.99%	否
		符合報酬高低	排序年數		共計6年

表 5 2000 年至 2013 年平均報酬比較表

從上速表 5 可以看出以流年五行角度觀察 14 年間,有 2004 年、2005 年、2007 年、2008 年、2011 年與 2012 年,共計 6 年符合「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期低報酬群組」,其對應準確度達 43%。而 2000 年、2001 年、2002 年、2003 年、2006 年、2009 年、2010 年與 2013 年,共計 8 年為「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期高報酬群組」,佔整體 57%。



(二)流年五行之報酬率分析(領先三個月)

表 6 2000 年至 2013 年報酬率變異數分析(領先三個月)

顯著性	F F	要兵數分析(領角		平方和	10 2	
	7.411	平均平方和 4.680	<u>自由度</u> 4	18.720	組間	2000 年
.000	7.411	.631	414	261.427	組內	2000 →
		.031	418	280.147	總和	
.213	1.462	.401	4	1.605	組間	2001 年
.212	1.102	.274	427	117.147	組內	2001 -
		.27	431	118.752	總和	
.138	1.752	.193	4	.774	組間	2002 年
		.110	432	47.721	組內	,
			436	48.495	總和	
.009**	3.402	1.978	4	7.910	組間	2003 年
		.581	435	252.846	組內	·
			439	260.756	總和	
.000**	6.021	.704	4	2.817	組間	2004 年
	Ì	.117	443	51.807	組內	·
			447	54.624	總和	
.001**	4.517	.706	4	2.824	組間	2005 年
		.156	448	70.004	組內	
			452	72.828	總和	
.330	1.142	.077	4	.306	組間	2006 年
		.067	454	30.450	組內	
			458	30.756	總和	
.006**	3.651	.713	4	2.852	組間	2007 年
		.195	462	90.228	組內	
			466	93.079	總和	
.000**	8.963	.422	4	1.687	組間	2008年
		.047	468	22.019	組內	
			472	23.706	總和	
.069	2.187	.273	4	1.093	組間	2009 年
		.125	470	58.760	組內	
			474	59.853	總和	
*000 *	5.240	.524	4	2.095	組間	2010年
		.100	473	47.273	組內	
			477	49.368	總和	
.000**	7.190	.403	4	1.611	組間	2011 年
		.056	477	26.722	組內	•
			481	28.333	總和	
.092*	2.006	.135	4	.540	組間	2012 年
		.067	484	32.579	組內	r
			488	33.119	總和	
.000**	5.401	.575	4	2.302	組間	2013 年
		.107	484	51.565	組內	,
	1		488	53.866	總和	



註: *為顯著水準達 0.01; **為顯著水準達 0.05。

經由上表 6 變異數分析整理後發現,除了 2001 年、2002 年與 2006 年未達顯著差異,2009 年與 2012 年顯著水準達 0.01,其餘年份的顯著性皆達顯著水準 0.05。

接著進一步將上述研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年分別的平均報酬率「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」、「被 剋」五種關係精簡分成兩組,其對應關係為「本命」、「被生」與「剋」三組歸類合併成「預期高報酬群 組」,而對應關係為「生」與「被剋」兩組歸類合併成「預期低報酬群組」,以上這兩群在做精簡分析比 較,觀察其結果是否為「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬會高於「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬,並將 S&P 500 Index 之報酬率合併,其結果如表 7 所示:

年份	流年 五行	預期 高報酬群組	預期 低報酬群組	S&P 500 Index 報酬率	是否符合 高低排序
2000年	金	21.14%	53.93%	4.88%	否
2001 年	金	-0.89%	7.93%	-25.86%	否
2002 年	木	-0.82%	-1.82%	-16.42%	足
2003 年	木	40.59%	53.98%	18.62%	否
2004 年	水	25.49%	18.58%	7.57%	是
2005 年	水	22.63%	24.91%	6.80%	否
2006 年	土	21.74%	21.44%	14.16%	是
2007年	土	25.32%	21.53%	12.44%	足
2008 年	火	-32.68%	-35.41%	-37.47%	足
2009 年	火	21.78%	22.75%	6.96%	否
2010年	木	24.72%	30.55%	14.19%	否
2011年	木	8.81%	11.98%	5.92%	否
2012 年	水	15.60%	13.47%	12.68%	是
2013 年	水	34.45%	37.31%	24.39%	否
		符合報酬高低:	排序年數		共計6年

表 7 2000 年至 2013 年平均報酬比較表(領先三個月)

從上述表7可以看出以流年五行角度觀察 14 年間,有 2002 年、2004 年、2006 年、2007 年、2008 年與 2012 年,共計6年符合「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期低報酬群組」,其對應準確度達43%。而 2000 年、2001 年、2003 年、2005 年、2009 年、2010 年、2011 年與 2013 年,共計8年為「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期高報酬群組」,佔整體 57%。



(三)流年五行之報酬率分析(領先六個月)

表 8 2000 年至 2013 年報酬率變異數分析(領先六個月)

衣	8 2000	平至 2013	中報酬率	變異數分析	(領先方個	1月)
		平方和	自由度	平均平方和	F	顯著性
2000年	組間	13.421	4	3.355	4.718	.001**
	組內	294.442	414	.711		
	總和	307.863	418			
2001 年	組間	3.828	4	.957	4.412	.002**
	組內	92.202	425	.217		
	總和	96.030	429			
2002 年	組間	.712	4	.178	1.962	.099*
	組內	39.117	431	.091		
	總和	39.829	435			
2003 年	組間	2.614	4	.654	2.470	.044**
	組內	115.075	435	.265		
	總和	117.689	439			
2004 年	組間	2.489	4	.622	4.036	.003**
	組內	68.159	442	.154		
	總和	70.648	446			
2005 年	組間	2.834	4	.708	5.038	.001**
	組內	62.437	444	.141		
	總和	65.270	448			
2006年	組間	.999	4	.250	3.211	.013**
,	組內	35.233	453	.078		
	總和	36.232	457			
2007 年	組間	.138	4	.034	.296	.880
	組內	53.652	462	.116		
	總和	53.790	466			
2008年	組間	3.859	4	.965	8.645	.000**
,	組內	52.227	468			
	總和	56.086	472			
2009 年	組間	1.075	4	.269	5.710	.000**
	組內	22.084	469	.047		
	總和	23.159				
2010年	組間	2.404	4	.601	3.875	.004**
'	組內	73.363	473	.155		
	總和	75.767	477			
2011 年	組間	2.760	4	.690	9.316	.000**
'	組內	35.326	477	.074	3.210	
	總和	38.086	481			
2012 年	組間	.960	4	.240	3.720	.005**
'	組內	31.213	484	.064	2.72	
	總和	32.173	488			
2013 年	組間	2.323	4	.581	5.380	.000**
- ~	組內	52.251	484	.108	2.300	.000
	總和	54.574	488	.100		
<u> </u>	නලා අ	57.574	700			

註:*為顯著水準達 0.01; **為顯著水準達 0.05。



經由上表 8 變異數分析整理後發現,除了 2007 年未達顯著差異,2002 年顯著水準達 0.01,其餘年份的顯著性皆達顯著水準 0.05。

接著進一步將上述研究期間 2000 年至 2013 年分別的平均報酬率「本命」、「被生」、「剋」、「生」、「被 剋」五種關係精簡分成兩組,其對應關係為「本命」、「被生」與「剋」三組歸類合併成「預期高報酬群 組」,而對應關係為「生」與「被剋」兩組歸類合併成「預期低報酬群組」,以上這兩群在做精簡分析比 較,觀察其結果是否為「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬會高於「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬,並將 S&P 500 Index 之報酬率合併,其結果如表 9 所示:

年份	流年 五行	預期 高報酬群組	預期 低報酬群組	S&P 500 Index 報酬率	是否符合 高低排序
2000 年	金	15.19%	·	7.68%	否
2001 年	金	14.80%	26.56%	-15.35%	否
2002 年	木	-5.94%	-9.30%	-24.74%	是
2003 年	木	22.99%	30.10%	8.63%	否
2004 年	水	30.91%	23.49%	11.25%	是
2005 年	水	32.87%	30.95%	12.02%	是
2006 年	土	13.12%	7.65%	3.44%	足
2007 年	Ŧ	23.84%	22.66%	13.99%	是
2008 年	火	1.07%	-6.68%	-12.91%	是
2009 年	火	-17.78%	-17.87%	-22.08%	是
2010年	木	23.09%	29.36%	11.56%	否
2011 年	木	22.23%	28.37%	17.31%	否
2012 年	水	8.01%	4.33%	6.74%	是
2013 年	水	32.61%	37.65%	22.21%	否
符合報酬高低排序年數					共計8年

表 9 2000 年至 2013 年平均報酬比較表(領先六個月)

從上述表 9 可以看出以流年五行角度觀察 14 年間,有 2002 年、2004 年、2005 年、2006 年、2007 年、2008 年、2009 年與 2012 年,共計 8 年符合「預期高報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期低報酬群組」, 其對應準確度達 57%。而 2000 年、2001 年、2003 年、2010 年、2011 年與 2013 年,共計 6 年為「預期低報酬群組」之平均報酬高於「預期高報酬群組」,佔整體 43%。



伍、結論與建議

一、研究假設實證結論

本研究以中國命理五行生剋之概念進行理論之推導與模型之建立,並且運用在 S&P 500 Index 成分股進行報酬率走向實證,本研究從兩種角度進行五行生剋模型之運用,分別從公司五行本命對所處不同流年的情況下適合在哪些年進行投資與從不同之流年五行適合投資哪種五行本命之公司,其運用五行生剋模型進行驗證,本研究結論如下:

(一)結論一:S&P 500 Index 成分股預期報酬走向部分符合五行生剋模型。

本研究運用五行生剋模型對 S&P 500 Index 成分股在 2000 年至 2013 年共計 14 年間對年報酬率進行驗證,其結果顯示,整體進行驗證之 489 家公司中分別有 333 家、領先三個月有 311 家、領先六個月有 328 家公司其報酬走向準確度達 50%(含)以上,佔整體比例分別為 68.10%、63.60%、67.08%,均佔 60%以上,而公司五行本命準確度達 50%(含)以上,其中以本命屬「木」之公司為最高,佔 90%以上,反觀準確度相對較低之公司為本命「火」,佔 50%以下,故利用此結論回答其假設 1。

(二)結論二:S&P 500 Index 成分股五行群組之平均報酬部分符合五行生剋模型之報酬高低排序,且變異數分析部分違顯著差異。

本研究運用五行生剋模型從不同之流年五行適合進行何種公司本命之投資,其結果發現,研究期間 2000年至2013年間各年度未有完全符合五行生剋模型所假設之報酬高低順序排列,但以精簡化之方式 分成預期高報酬群組與預期低報酬群組,共計有8年符合預期高報酬群組高於預期低報酬群組之平均報 酬。故上述五行群組之分析結果部分符合假設2和假設3-1,而進一步運用統計變異數分析進行檢定,統 計結果顯示,研究期間有10年以上達到顯著差異水準,故透過統計分析檢定出其報酬群組的顯著性差異, 但其中多組排列順序並沒有依照五行生剋模型之預期報酬高低排序,故假設3-2之實證結果為部分符合。

假設	假設之內容		
假設1	S&P 500 Index 成分股預期報酬走向符合五行生剋模型。	部分符合	
假設2	&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度符合五行生剋模		
	型之報酬高低排序。	部分符合	
假設3	S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度違顯著差異。	部分符合	
假設 3-1	以目測法於 S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度達顯	部分符合	
	著差異。		
假設 3-2	以統計方法於 S&P 500 Index 成分股所屬五行群組之平均報酬在各年度達	部分符合	
	顯著差異。		

表 10 研究假設之實證結果



二、研究限制與建議

(一)研究限制

本研究運用中國命理五行之概念建立五行生剋模型,並套入 S&P 500 Index 成分股,針對 2000 年至 2013 年進行驗證分析,因為有流年五行關係之限制,故只能對年報酬率進行驗證,進而無法觀察到短時間內所造成股市波動之關係驗證。

五行生剋模型之基礎關係建立在傳統命理生剋之概念運用,搭配由天干地支規則所訂定之流年五行 之走勢作為報酬走向之預測對象,故無法考慮現今許多政治因素、天然災害與外在環境突發等事件所影 響到股市之外在因素。

(二)研究建議

本研究樣本只針對 S&P 500 Index 成分股進行研究分析,並未對其他國家之股票市場進行實證比較分析,故建議後續研究者可以運用此五行生剋模型對多個國家之股票市場進行比較分析,以提升五行生剋模型在股票市場的可用性。

本研究只針對 S&P 500 Index 成分股做驗證精準度分析,並未進行選股預測分析,故建議後續研究者 將五行生剋模型搭配其他選股模型進行模擬選股實證績效分析,期盼可作為投資者進行股票選股之參考 依據。



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