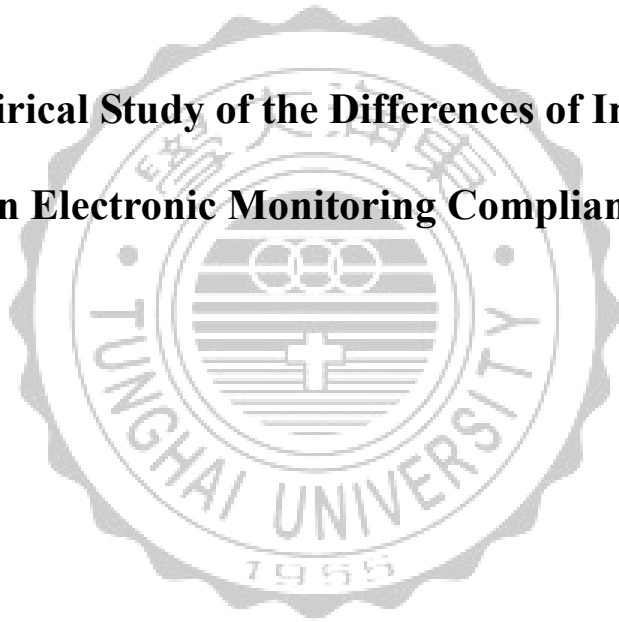東海大學企業管理學研究所

碩士學位論文

個體差異與其遵循電子監控系統之關聯性研究

An Empirical Study of the Differences of Individuals

on Electronic Monitoring Compliance

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　　　　　　　　Monitoring Compliance

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Abstract

Rapid technological advances have led to increased flexibility and efficiency of computer use and subsequent transformation of the workplace. Computers thus play a pivotal role in organizations, as evidenced by the increasing prevalence of electronic monitoring and workplace surveillance. Previous studies have highlighted the merits and limitations of electronic monitoring, especially employee receptiveness or resistance to this workplace practice.

However, many studies about electronic monitoring have indicated that the beliefs of employees affect their attitudes and, then, the attitudes of employees affect their behavioral intentions, but few studies in this area add advance notice and self-construals as situation factor and discuss from the perspectives of employees' characteristics represent the three components of trust respectively to clarify how three variables (i.e. privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support) affect intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems (EMS). Data was collected from survey questionnaires by convenient sampling, and collect data from employees who work in a company. The results shows that interdependent-self is the most important factor to intentions to comply with EMS in the situation of advance notice; as the situation of non-advance notice, independent-self is the most important factor to the dependent variable.

Keywords: Electronic Monitoring Systems; Privacy Beliefs; Perceived Usefulness; Perceived Organizational Support; Self-Construals.

摘要

　　科技的日新月異使得電腦對於組織的重要性日益強大，於工作場所使用電子監控系統也成為一種趨勢，過去也有許多學者針對組織實施電子監控的優點與限制作討論。

　　然而，過去資訊方面的相關研究都指出，員工的信念會影響他們的態度，態度進而影響到他們的行為意圖，但較少這方面的研究將員工的自我建構與事先告知與否作為調節變數納入後，針對其觀點一併討論，並且從信任的三個元素(隱私信念、知覺有用性，和知覺組織支持)去探討員工的特徵對其遵循電子監控系統的意圖。

　　本研究採問卷調查法，利用便利抽樣方式蒐集樣本資料，研究對象為公司工作之員工。研究結果發現，在不考慮調節變數的情況下，知覺有用性和知覺組織支持對遵循電子監控系統之意圖有正向影響；而在考慮調節變數的情況下，如果不事先告知員工，對屬於獨立我的員工只有知覺有用性對其遵循電子監控之意圖有正向影響，但對相依我的員工沒有任何顯著影響；而在事先告知員工的情況下，只有對相依我的員工有顯著影響，其中以員工的知覺組織支持對其遵循電子監控之意圖最具影響力。

關鍵字：電子監控系統、隱私信念、知覺有用性，知覺組織支持、自我建構

誌謝

「美哉吾校，東海之東」，總愛徘徊於文理大道，望著路思義的超然脫俗。這美麗的城市容納了大肚山，大肚山也容納了這座城市，在它身上有許多至美的角落值得細細品嚐，當人們受盡紛亂世界的折磨時，收留了這些疲累無助的心。在東海大學企管系的六年歲月，我隨著東海的改變成長，偶爾會有美景依舊、人是已非的感觸，這些日子躍出的每一步，所幸有許多貴人相助，才能讓我順利走到今天、走出校園。

這本論文得以順利完成，首先要感謝張榮庭老師不辭辛勞的教導，總是給我很大的鼓勵與機會，讓我在這兩年不斷突破自我，嘗試許多自己未曾想過的挑戰，更擁有非常充實的碩士生活，許多種種已不僅止於論文，還有各方面都因為老師而使我獲益良多，感激之情溢於言表。同時，也要感謝口試委員鄭菲菲教授、應鳴雄教授、吳金山教授、以及吳祉芸教授，因為他們的費心審閱，在論文口試時不吝指正與建議，使得我的論文更臻完備。

在學期間感謝有好朋友們，品潔、冠臻、莉嗶、百瀚，因為有你們，讓我總是能在報告海中破涕為笑；感謝昊雯，你的鼓勵時常讓我重拾信心，我會帶著你常說的話：「人的潛力是無窮的」，繼續邁向人生的另一個階段；感謝胖子，一直以來的加油打氣，才能讓我從大學走到現在，也學習到很多不一樣的事物；還要感謝每一個曾經在我人生中鼓勵我、幫助我的人，賦予我足夠的勇氣堅強面對接踵而來的挑戰。

最後，謹以此論文獻給我最親愛的父母與姊姊們，因為有你們的養育與栽培，才有現在的我；因為有你們的包容與耐心，我才有辦法完成學業。

陳欣愉

於東海大學企研所 2012/06

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Chapter 1 Introduction

As the technology developing, the convenience and efficiency of the computer has led the changes of work type in organizations. Thus, computers have become more important to organizations and the prevalence of electronic monitoring and workplace surveillance is increasing. However, the employees may have different reactions to monitoring and effects on organizational performance. This chapter first introduces types of electronic monitoring in organizations and how did they implement the electronic monitoring systems. Other issues include research background, motivation, objectives, process, and organization of the dissertation.

1.1 Research Background and Motivation

Managers and employees are faced with the reality of electronic monitoring of communications, and collection and use of information about employees (Mello, 2003). For instance, a survey by the American Management Association reported that over 66% of companies used employee monitoring or surveillance (Stanton and Weiss, 2000). In the U.S.A., an estimated 14 million employees have their Internet use under continuous monitoring. Worldwide, an estimated 27 million workers are under such monitoring (Firoz *et al.*, 2006). This means that many organizations use electronic technology to monitor employees, but in fact, there were such situations before. Organizations have monitored their employees for centuries. In 1987, the Office of Technology Assessment (OTA) estimated that 6 million US workers were electronically monitored (Alder, 2001; U.S. Congress, 1987). Recent estimates indicate that at least 40 million US workers may be subject to electronic monitoring (Botan, 1996).

For the purposes of explaining and predicting employees' compliance behavior

towards electronic monitoring practices, Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) contain similar elements that can be subsumed within the broader theory of planned behavior model. In the theory of planned behavior, attitudes are conceptualized as evaluations of objects. By evaluating an object, the individual attaches a certain positive or negative valence to the object. In a contemporary revision of the theory of reasoned action, Ajzen (1991) added the construct of perceived behavioral control to the theory of reasoned action in order to improve the model's applicability to situations in which the actors have environmental constraints that limit their behavioral options. Notably, Ajzen (1991) focused on the perception of such constraints, and thus cast behavioral control as a construct representing an individual's belief in his or her ability to act on an intention. In a similar vein, Trevino included the locus of control construct in her research to represent the perceived relationship between one's own behaviors and desired outcomes.

A number of researchers (Alder *et al.*, 2008) argued a belief that monitoring represents an invasion of privacy, and a belief that it represents a useful management tool, provides the foundation for our hypotheses. They believe that these two beliefs will be linked with different ethical orientations in establishing how they relate to outcomes. And some researchers considered the implementation of Internet monitoring may be a salient event that affects employee trust. Monitoring is mooted as creating an atmosphere of mistrust (Manning, 1997). A classic research (Sonnenberg, 1994) indicated that extensive surveillance and monitoring of employees may erode trust. Luhmann (1979) adopted a control perspective to explain the relationship between monitoring and trust. He argued that monitoring and trust serve as alternative mechanisms of control. Mayer et al. (Mayer *et al.*, 1995) further suggested that a strong organizational control system may inhibit the development of trust.

Some research suggests that a key to ensuring positive employee responses is to implement and utilize electronic monitoring systems fairly (Alge, 2001; Ambrose and Alder, 2000; Kidwell and Bennett, 1994; Stanton and Weiss, 2000). Kidwell and Bennett (1994) demonstrated that perceived fairness was significantly related to satisfaction with monitoring, which in turn was associated with job satisfaction. Results of their study also indicate that supervisory consideration and expertise positively influenced fairness judgments. Ambrose and Alder (2000) applied organizational justice theory and research to argue that fairness perceptions may largely determine employee reactions to monitoring. They further propose a comprehensive model of 12 monitoring system dimensions that influence employee perceptions of fairness in monitoring.

Thus, a growing stream of research suggests that perceived fairness is a critical determinant of employee's behavioral and attitudinal reactions to monitoring. This research also identifies several factors that influence the perceived fairness of monitoring. However, this research has looked almost exclusively at the organization's approach to monitoring. Although the organization's approach is clearly important, other factors may affect fairness perceptions. Indeed, Stanton's (2000) conceptual review suggests that, in addition to characteristics of the monitoring system, organizational contextual variables may exert an important impact on monitored individuals' attitudinal and behavioral reactions to monitoring including their perceptions of fairness.

But Alder *et al.* (2006) find the results failed to support this relationship, there was no significant main or interaction effect for monitoring fairness on trust. However, contrary to their expectations, there was no effect for monitoring fairness on trust. Therefore, we did not add this factor of fairness in our study.

Previous research found that low trust in terms of expected performance led to

increase monitoring (Alge *et al.*, 2004). Piccoli and Ives (Piccoli and Ives, 2003) found that organizational monitoring negatively affected trust in virtual teams and that team members more closely monitored teammates that had proven unreliable. Employees may be naturally suspicious of organizations whose actions indicate that management does not trust them. As a result, the implementation of Internet monitoring may have a detrimental effect. However, electronic monitoring research indicates that employees' behavioral and attitudinal reactions to monitoring depend on a number of factors including the manner in which the organization implements and utilizes the monitoring technology (Ambrose and Alder, 2000).

To sum up studies of the above, many studies about electronic monitoring have indicated that the beliefs of employees affect their attitudes or the attitudes of employees affect their behavioral intentions, but few researchers in this area add situation factor to explore the behavior of employees in organizations. In addition, the aspect of employees, few studies discuss factors of trust that influence the behavioral intentions of employees, and then we can know employees' intentions to comply with or resist electronic monitoring system. Looking again at the theory of planned behavior, social norms within the organization are proposed to moderate the relationship between attitudes and intentions. In Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) work, perceived social norms provided the individual with information about which behaviors are socially rewarded and which are socially prescribed in a given situation. In an organizational setting, norms reflect what employees believe to be shared standards for acceptable and unacceptable behavior in their workplace. For instance, employees' perceptions of their work environment as highly profit-oriented might lead to the expectation that instrumental behaviors of employees to generate revenue would be socially acceptable.

1.2 Research objectives

The objectives of this research are as follows:

✓ To examine how privacy beliefs of employees can influence the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems;

✓ To investigate the influence of employee's perception of usefulness on the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems;

✓ To investigate the influence of employee's perception of organizational support on the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems;

✓ To evaluate the effects of advance notice and self-construals on the relationships among privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, perceived organizational support, and intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems;

1.3 Research process

At first, relevant literature was reviewed to understand the relationship among privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, perceived organizational supports, and intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Then, relevant literature was reviewed to understand the situation factors. Finally, the conceptual framework, scope of study and hypotheses were expounded. The questionnaire was designed and distributed among employees in Taichung area of Midland Taiwan. The data were analyzed using statistical techniques and further discuss with the results. The flow chart of the research procedure is shown in Figure 1-1 below:

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│   Research background and motivation │
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┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│         Literature review           │
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┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│       Hypotheses development         │
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│  Construction of conceptual framework│
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│   Questionnaire and sampling design  │
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│       Collection of survey data      │
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│            Data analysis             │
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│        Results of data analysis      │
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│       Discussion and conclusions     │
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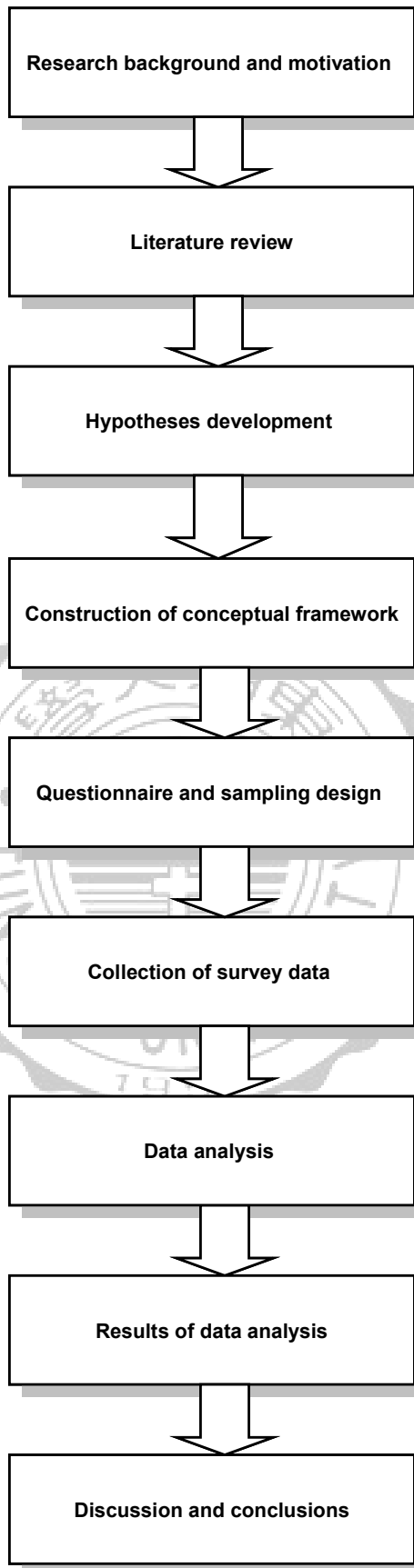
Figure 1-1 Research procedure

Chapter 2 Theoretical Foundation

This chapter discusses issues about electronic monitoring, differences of individuals to electronic monitoring, trust formation in organizations, and theories of intentions of compliance and resistance. The collection of and summarized of relevant literature and books as the foundation for this study.

2.1 Electronic Monitoring

The rapid development of information technology made managers can more effectively monitor employees in the workplace. According to the survey, more than three-quarters of major U.S. companies record and review employee communications and activities, including: telephone, e-mail, Internet connection, and computer files (AMA, 2003). It is a very clear fact that the electronic monitoring system in the organization has a high usage rate.

2.1.1 Definition of Electronic Monitoring

The results of general availability of access to the Internet and e-mail in the workplace, there is no doubt that this access could be abused. Managers may use electronic monitoring systems to monitor the work activities of their employees and deter such abuse. Electronic monitoring has brought many disputes and attention among the public, empirical or theoretical research has been done on the impact of Electronic monitoring (Aiello, 1993). The diverse results have been showed in the research. Several case studies and investigations indicate that electronic monitoring may prove hurtful to both employees and organizations. For instance, Electronic monitoring may obstruct organizational performance (Grant, 1988). It showed the same result that monitored employees may hurt customer services (Lewis, 1999). In

one survey to 700 employees, who were being monitored by electronic devices, complained that the implementation of electronic monitoring in their workplace caused fear of job loss, lack of involvement and control over tasks (Ottensmeyer and Heroux, 1991). Electronic monitoring also brings another issue about stress and health problems of employees. Some researchers have found that electronic monitoring affect the employee's blood pressure (Henderson *et al.*, 1998). Other researchers also found that electronic monitoring caused employees to work dissatisfaction, tension, and irritation (Schleifer *et al.*, 1996), or made them depressed and anxiety (Smith *et al.*, 1992).

In contrast, some research indicated that electronic monitoring has brought organizations and employees benefit. Researchers found that employees who were being monitored by electronic devices increased their job satisfaction and decreased intent to leave (Chalykoff and Kochan, 1989). Other researchers conducted a lab experiment with 52 women hired to perform a simple data entry task. They found that those monitored with the presence of a supervisor performed better than in the conditions for electronic monitoring (Griffith, 1993).

From the above point of view, the opinions concerning electronic monitoring were divergence; employees may not react the same way to electronic monitoring systems. However, whether the impact of electronic monitoring for employees in organizations are good or not, some factors may influence employees' reactions to electronic monitoring.

2.1.2 Electronic Monitoring Extent

In 2003, The Center for Business Ethics reports that 92% of employers used some form of electronic monitoring in the workplace, included reviewing and recording phone calls, email communications, computer files, Internet connections, and video

surveillance (Center for Business Ethics., 2003; National Workrights Institute Report, 2004). According to the Electronic Monitoring and Surveillance Survey from American Management Association Institute (AMA, 2007). Table 2-1 to Table 2-3 shows the reasons of managers who have fired employees for office phones, e-mail, and Internet misuse.

Table 2-1 The Reasons of Managers Fired Employees for Office Phones Misuse

6% of managers who have fired workers for misuse office phones	Reasons	Percentages
	Time spent and numbers called	45%
	Phone conversations	16%
	Voicemail messages	9%

Table 2-2 The Reasons of Managers Fired Employees for E-mail Misuse

28% of managers who have fired employees for e-mail misuse	Reasons	Percentages
	Violation of any company policy	64%
	Inappropriate or offensive language	62%
	Excessive personal use	26%
	Breach of confidentiality rules	22%
	Other	12%

Table 2-3 The Reasons of Managers Fired Employees for Internet Misuse

30% of managers who have fired employees for Internet misuse	Reasons	Percentages
	Viewing, downloading, or uploading inappropriate/offensive content	84%
	Violation of any company policy	48%
	Excessive personal use	34%
	Other	9%

Electronic monitoring includes three different concepts. First, it includes manager use of electronic devices to assess and measure the work performance of employees (Hebert, 2002). Managers may use computers to check the e-mail from employees and

evaluate their performances from their customer service. Second, managers use electronic devices to examine employees' actions for the purposes of measuring their work performances (Hebert, 2002). Managers may use many electronic devices to check the e-mail from employees as part of evidence of crimes and assisting government to search electronic evidences, such as the monitoring to comply with a search warrant seeking the mail of employee or electronic communications on the computer systems in organization. Third, computer forensics was also involved in electronic monitoring. The electronic technologies assist in resumption and reconstruction of electronic data which was deleted, or attempted destruction of the data (Leahy, 2002). Managers may use particular software to recover information related to an investigation of alleged theft of its trade secrets by reconstructing the contents of e-mail which sent by employees to someone outside organization. This indicates that the electronic monitoring is very useful to organizations.

Primarily, managers are concerned about inappropriate Web surfing, with 66% monitoring Internet connections. Fully 65% of companies use software to block connections to inappropriate Websites (AMA, 2007), as shown in Table 2-4.

Table 2-4 Managers block access to the Web are concerned about employees

Types	Percentages
Visiting adult sites with sexual, romantic, or pornographic content	96%
Game sites	61%
Social networking sites	50%
Entertainment sites	40%
Shopping/auction sites	27%
Sports sites	21%
Visiting external blogs	18%

2.1.3 Electronic Monitoring Technology

There are many ways that managers may use computer technology to monitor the workplace. Managers may monitor employees' use of computer keyboards by recording the number of keystrokes per minute, the amount of time it takes to process each form or complete each task (Hebert, 2002). Managers may monitor employees' use of telephones. It is possible to program computers to monitor the number and type of calls and call-backs, the number of times a caller is put on hold, the precise duration of each call, and the time period between calls (Hebert, 2002). Computers also can be programmed to monitor the computer documents (Hebert, 2002).

According to the survey from American Management Association Institute (AMA, 2007), computer monitoring takes many forms, as shown in Table 2-5.

Table 2-5 Percentages of Computer Monitoring Forms

Forms	Percentages
Tracking content, keystrokes, and time spent at the keyboard	45%
Storing and review computer files	43%
Monitoring e-mail	43%
Monitoring the blogosphere to see what is being written about the company	12%
Monitoring social networking sites	10%

With the advance of technology, software developments have greatly increased the amount of managers to monitor employees' computer network and Internet use (U.S. General Accounting Office Report, 2002). These software provide managers to monitor employees' use of networked computers secretly and in real-time, including individual monitoring of each connected computer (Frayer, 2001). Software may reveal the online activities that employees used, including the websites and the time of

visiting (Hebert, 2002). Managers may also use these software to capture the images from an employee's computer screen and then obtain documentation of all computer work (Towns, 2002). Software also allowed managers to monitor employees' use of chat rooms, programs run, games played, bytes transferred or downloaded, time spent downloading, and e-mail sent or received (Anderson, 2002). Importantly, software may monitor hard-drives of employees' computer, and identify pornography, music, or movies that have been downloaded fit in with copyright laws or workplace policies (Borland, 2002). Now the development of technology for the electronic monitoring is really great help, it makes monitoring easier and accurate for managers in the workplace.

Recently, managers also use some emerging surveillance technologies to monitor their employees. Table 2-6 shows the survey from AMA (2007).

Table 2-6 The Percentages of Managers Using Emerging Surveillance Technology

Forms of electronic monitoring	Percentages
Smartcard technology	52%
Global Positioning Systems	8%
Fingerprint scans	2%
Facial recognition	0.4%
Iris scans	0.4%

2.1.4 Right to Monitor

Managers can assume the right to monitor, because they own the equipment and resources (Sipior and Ward, 1995). Issues about electronic monitoring were divergence, because the right to employees had been discussed. Whether it was e-mail or other electronic information was a part of electronic monitoring. Email monitoring in organizations may be viewed by employers as a necessity and right (Sipior and

Ward, 1995). Employees have the right to protect their own privacy, and managers have the prerogative to preserve workplace efficiency and minimize risks of criminal activity, but it lead managers can justifiably infringe an employee's right to privacy (Miller and Weckert, 2000). Managers should develop a policy that makes it clear to the employees how the organization monitors and audits them and that it will retain the right to monitor. Simultaneously, while managers need access information of employees and Internet use occurring from and files held on computers, as long as this can be shown the reason for legitimate action.

2.2 Differences of Individuals to Electronic Monitoring

Researchers observed that there was very little research on electronic monitoring examined the degree to which employee characteristics moderate the influence of monitoring (Kolb and Aiello, 1996). They began to examine the effect of individual differences on reactions to electronic monitoring.

The researches on the relationship between individual differences and reactions to electronic monitoring increased, and how characteristics of the individual, as opposed to characteristics of the program and its operation, influence perceptions of and reactions to electronic monitoring should be examined. In addition, the effect of individual differences on reactions to electronic monitoring was also the important factor for employees to comply with electronic monitoring systems in the workplace. There is a significant limitation in the existing literature because employee reactions to policies of organization are likely to vary based on attributes of both the situation and the individual (Hattrup and Jackson, 1996). Thus, we propose three factors of individual difference as follows: privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational supports.

2.2.1 Privacy Beliefs

There is a definition to privacy that personal knowledge, therefore, privacy is relative to what people in a particular society, at a particular time, are prepared to disclose about themselves. Thus, everyone is prepared to disclose everything about themselves to everyone else, then they are still in a condition of privacy (Miller and Weckert, 2000). But the definition of privacy varies widely across contexts and environments in different countries. In general terms, privacy protection is frequently seen as "a way of drawing the line at how far society can intrude into a person's affairs" (Banisar, 2000). Many countries explain privacy in terms of the management of personal information and data protection. The power of new technology and the Internet in particular allow data and information to be collected, matched, combined, manipulated, and transmitted quickly (Greco, 2001).

According to the general theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), a person's attitude, combined with subjective norms, forms his/her behavioral intention. Such as monitoring are comprised of a cognitive or belief component, and an intention component. The cognitive or belief component means what one knows about or implicitly associates with electronic monitoring. The component influences how they feel about the electronic monitoring, and directly influences behavioral intention. Fishbein and Ajzens have an idea that employees' prior beliefs about monitoring serve as an anchor that influences their attitudinal responses to the implementation of a monitoring system. In the other words, these attitudes may influence employees' intended behaviors. If employees have unfavorable prior beliefs about electronic monitoring, they will have negative attitudes toward electronic monitoring system implemented in organizations.

Thus, the employee prior beliefs about electronic monitoring may cause some

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situations. The individuals beliefs concerning whether monitoring is an effective management tool and employees believe electronic monitoring represents the invasive extent of privacy. These beliefs are not necessarily mutually exclusive; an individual may have all of these beliefs at one time. Obviously, the perceptions of employees about electronic monitoring may cause different reactions, and the prior beliefs of individual about privacy and monitoring are an important factor of their reactions to electronic monitoring systems.

2.2.2 Perceived Usefulness

According to Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989), perceived usefulness is the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system will enhance his or her job performance (Davis, 1989). In other words, the word useful means that something is capable of being used advantageously. Within an organizational context, people are generally want good performances to raises, promotions, bonuses, and other rewards (Pfeffer, 1982; Schein, 1970; Vroom, 1964). If systems with high perceived usefulness represent that the user believes in the existence of a positive use-performance relationship.

Researchers criticize monitoring frequently contend that the practice composes a violation of employee privacy (Firoz *et al.*, 2006; Parenti, 2001; Tabak and Smith, 2005). They believe that individuals appraise their privacy and may therefore hate this invasion. On the other hand, others recognize that organizations have to make decisions to ensure profitability and protect employees. Therefore, employees may see monitoring as a useful tool, and may be more tolerant of some degree of intrusion in the workplace.

2.2.3 Perceived Organizational Supports

Employees have been found the development about their beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). This development caused many researchers began to pay attention to relative issues.

According to organizational support theory, employees care about POS to meet socioemotional needs and to determine the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts made on its benefit (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). This involve social exchange, it maintains that on the basis of the norm of reciprocity, employees trade effort and dedication to their organization for such tangible motivations as pay and fringe benefits and such socioemotional benefits as esteem, approval, and caring (Blau, 1992; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986).

POS is an important part of the organizational context; it describes the quality of employee and organization relationship as indicated by employee perceptions of the extent to which the organization cares about them and values their contribution (Aryee *et al.*, 2002). Settoon *et al.* (1996) argued that "positive, benefic actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships that create obligations for employees to reciprocate in positive, benefic ways." Eisenberger *et al.* (1990) found that POS effected positively to employee diligence, commitment, and innovation; they reasoned that trust may explain their discovery. They later (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986) proposed that POS would influence employees' interpretation of organizational motives underlying its treatment of employees. From the above that, employee may have different perception about organization, and may cause different outcomes.

Although social scientists have paid attention to the problem of defining trust, a concise and universally accepted definition has remained elusive. As a consequence,

the term trust is used in a variety of distinct, and not always compatible, ways within organizational research. But most trust theorists agree that, whatever else its essential features, trust is fundamentally a psychological state. In addition, the effect of individual differences on reactions to electronic monitoring was also the important factor for employees to resist or comply with electronic monitoring systems in the workplace. There is a significant limitation in the existing literature because employee reactions to policies of organization are likely to vary based on attributes of both the situation and the individual (Hattrup and Jackson, 1996). From the above that, the trust of employees may cause that they comply with electronic monitoring in their organizations. Obviously, the factors of employees that influence the degree of trust become very critical.

Trust originated from different kinds of components. There are three components of trust: Firstly, trust is disposition-based. This kind of trust means that one person's personality traits include a general propensity to trust others. In the next place, trust may be cognition-based, meaning that it is sourced a rational assessment of the authority's trustworthiness. Finally, the affect-based trust depends on feeling toward the authority that goes beyond any rational assessment.

Table 2-7 Three Components of Trust

1	Disposition-Based	One person's personality traits include a general propensity to trust others.
2	Cognition-Based	It is sourced a rational assessment of the authority's trustworthiness.
3	Affect-Based	It depends on feeling toward the authority that goes beyond any rational assessment.

Researchers also observed that there was very little research on electronic monitoring examined the degree to which employee characteristics moderate the influence of monitoring (Kolb and Aiello, 1996). They began to examine the effect of individual differences on reactions to electronic monitoring. The researches on the relationship between individual differences and reactions to electronic monitoring increased, and how characteristics of the individual, as opposed to characteristics of the program and its operation, influence perceptions of and reactions to electronic monitoring should be examined. Thus, we propose three differences of individual, which that influence intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems: privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational supports. These three differences of individual represent the three components of trust respectively, as shown in Table 2-8.

Table 2-8 Classification of Individual Differences

Three Components of Trust	Individual Differences
Disposition-Based	Privacy Beliefs
Cognition-Based	Perceived Usefulness
Affect-Based	Perceived Organizational Supports

Trust as a common word in ordinary language retains much of that meaning when employed as a concept in social science. Trust means that "one believes in, and is willing to depend on, another party" (Mayer *et al.*, 1995; McKnight *et al.*, 1998). It refers, in the main, to the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people. This willingness will in turn affect the way in which one behaves towards others. The concept of trust appears in a variety of publications dealing with behavior in organizations and in

institutional settings. In general, the consensus of opinion is that trust between individuals and groups within an organization is a highly important ingredient in the long-term stability of the organization and the well-being of its members. Trust has been explored in several different disciplines such as psychology, sociology, economics, and history (Lewick and Bunker, 1996). Different perspectives which have emerged from these disciplines and others have been grouped into those of personality theorists, sociologists, and social psychologists (Lewick and Bunker, 1996). Personality theorists focus on individual personality differences in propensity to trust, while sociologists view trust as within and between organizations (Worchel, 1979). According to the personality-based trust researchers, individuals bring a certain tendency to trust into different contexts.

The sociologists' perspective on trust is institution-based which also takes into account the trust that individuals have in their organizations and supporting structures. Social psychologists, on the other hand, conceptualize trust as a phenomenon that can be created, enhanced, or inhibited by interpersonal relationships within the confines of situational factors. Following this social psychology view of trust, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) adopt the definition proposed by Boon and Holmes (1991) which states that trust involves positive expectations about another person's motives in situations of risk. Both this definition and the definition we adopted, as stated above in quotes, view trust as an interpersonal or a relational phenomenon. Thus, we argue that trust is initiated, built, enhanced, or destroyed through interpersonal transactions. Relational trust as such develops over time based on information from within the relationship between the trustor and the trustee (Rousseau *et al.*, 1998). In addition, three other perspectives on trust have developed. Calculus-based trust predicts that individuals make rational choices based on utilitarian considerations (Coleman, 1994). The costs and benefits of maintaining a trusting or a distrusting relationship are calculated and

choices are made accordingly. This type of trust is based more on deterrence or threat of punishment (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996). The second type of trust is knowledge-based. Knowledge-based trust develops over time based on information about the other party that increases predictability of behavior (Holmes, 1991; Lewick and Bunker, 1996). People develop an expectancy that the other party will or will not act in a predictable and trustworthy manner. Finally, identification-based trust is based on the premise that each party understands and accepts one another's values and desires (Lewick and Bunker, 1996; Shapiro *et al.*, 1992). People involved in this type of a trusting relationship identify with each other's intentions and values. This study's premise is built on knowledge-based trust where managers and employees get to know each other and develop a relationship based on this knowledge in which trust may or may not exist. Viewing trust as an interpersonal and knowledge-based phenomenon demands an examination of relevant resources that individuals bring to the workplace. Each individual brings his or her unique past experiences and personality as resources into personal transactions. Past experiences and personality impact the cognitive (sense-making) processes that precede trust formation for both the managers and the employees. The level of trust developed then leads managers and employees to take different courses of action in response to a particular issue like electronic monitoring at workplace.

2.3 Self-Construals

Culture shapes and guides the construction of the self-concept and determines, in part, how an individual arrives at his/her definition of self in relation to others and to the world (Shweder, 1982). Recent research in cultural psychology has identified two distinct perspectives on the self. Cultures that emphasize an independent perspective

on the self foster construals in which the self is seen as fundamentally distinct from others and defined in terms of internal features such as attributes, abilities, and attitudes (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, 2001; Oyserman and Markus, 1998). Cultures that emphasize an interdependent perspective on the self foster construals in which the self is seen as fundamentally connected to others, and identity is primarily defined in terms of relationships, group memberships, and social roles.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggest two major types of self-construals depending on how one views one's self in relation to others. The independent self-construal tends to perceive itself as separate from its roles and relationships (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 1994), basing its identity on internal characteristics, dispositions and traits. This self is fairly stable and tends to allow consistent behavior across situations, regardless of the context. Many persons in individualist cultures have been shown to endorse an independent view of themselves (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989).

In the past, this independent view of the self was thought to be universal. Now however, it seems apparent that persons in non-western societies, particularly in collectivist societies, often emphasize a self-construals closely tied to relationships and societal roles (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). This second dimension of self-construals, the interdependent view of the self emphasizes a relational-centered orientation (Markus and Kitayama, 1991) through conformity, harmony within one's group, and attention to relationships over personal goals (Ho, 1993). The interdependent nature of the self is based more on context than on internal attributes (Markus and Kitayama, 1991).

As mentioned previously, evidence on the dimensionality of self-construals points to the coexistence of both an independent and an interdependent self-image (Singelis, 1994; Singelis and Brown, 1995; Trafimow *et al.*, 1991). The existence of two selves

allows us to discuss various patterns of self-construals. Drawing on conceptualizations of the acculturation process (Berry and Kim, 1988), Table 2-9 lists Singelis (1994) suggests four patterns of self-construals.

Table 2-9 Four Patterns of self-construals

1	Bicultural	well-developed independent and a well-developed interdependent self-construal
2	Western	a strong independent self-construal and a weak interdependent self-construal
3	Traditional	a weak independent self-construal and a strong interdependent self-construal
4	Culturally-Alienated	a poorly developed independent and a poorly developed interdependent self-construal

According to Markus and Kitayama's theory, people of Western, primarily individualistic cultures have independent self-construal, where the person is a ``bounded, unique, more or less integrated motivational and cognitive universe, a dynamic center of awareness, emotion, judgment and action organized into a distinctive whole and set contrastively both against other such wholes and against a social and natural background''. People of many non-Western, primarily Asian, cultures, however, have interdependent self-construal, which feature the person not as separate from the social context, ``but as more connected and less differentiated from others. People are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant others, to fulfill and create obligation, and in general to become part of various interpersonal relationships. The significant features of the self are found in the interdependent and more public components of the self''.

Likewise, Markus and Kitayama (1998) contrasted the Western view of the independent self with the non-Western, specifically Japan, China, Korea, Southeast Asia, South America, and Africa, view of interdependent self, suggesting that the East Asian model of individuality comes with a commitment that is tied to the recognition that the person is also a social being. It means an entity that is made meaningful within a larger social context. Personalities result as people engage in particular roles with specific other people. Behavior is actively responsive to and incorporates the demands of others. Within the Asian interdependent model of the person, the integration of social role and distinctiveness is accomplished by a sort of conditioning of individual distinctiveness on a certain relationship or social position. Individual differences are defined within a semantic framework or model of human action that corresponds to a pertinent social position or role. This conditionality of person description on a social context reflects the appreciation of the relational nature of any behavior in the Asian model of person. Table 2-10 shows the contrast between independent and interdependent.

Table 2-10 Contrast between Independent and Interdependent

Dimension	**independent**	**interdependent**
Definition	tends to perceive itself as separate from its roles and relationships	tends to perceive itself not as separate from its roles and relationships
Traits	bounded, unique	flexible, adjustable
Basis	fairly stable and tends to allow consistent behavior across situations, regardless of the social context	based more on social context than on internal attributes
Orientation	internal characteristics, dispositions	relational-centered
Goals	personal	group
Represent Culture	Western	Non-Western, primarily Asian

Trafimow *et al.* (1997) found that, in multicultural environment, a person both consist of independent and interdependent, but one of them is more. It is different from person to person. There are many researchers involved in self-construction, such as Triandis (1989) used the nouns of private self and collective self; (Kashima *et al.*, 2000) used individual self, collective self, relational self, and Greenwald and Pratkanis (1984) used the nouns of personal self and social self. Although the nouns differ, it is similar with the concept of Markus and Kitayama (1991) proposed. Table 2-11 summarizes the above studies.

Table 2-11 The Similar Nouns of self-construals

Researchers	**Individual**	**Group**
Greenwald and Pratkanis(1984)	personal self	social self
Triandis (1989)	private self	collective self
Markus and Kitayama(1991)	independent	interdependent
Kashima and Hardie(2000)	individual self	collective self relational self

2.4 Advance Notice

Covert monitoring is wide-spread and may be the most polemical aspect of electronic monitoring when managers monitor employees without informing them. Although many employee advocacy groups favor a complete prohibition against electronic monitoring in the workplace, they contend that as a ''bottom line'' minimum, companies must give proper notice in advance of any monitoring (National Workrights Institute , 2004).

Organizations with electronic monitoring systems in place may or may not inform the employees of the monitoring. In response, US federal laws designed to restrict electronic monitoring do not aim to prohibit monitoring of employees but eliminate secret, covert monitoring (Simpson, 2000). While only two states, Delaware and Connecticut, require managers to notify employees of monitoring, the majority are doing a good job of alerting employees when they are being watched. Table 2-12 presents a survey of the 304 U.S. companies. Fully 83% inform employees that the company is monitoring content, keystrokes and time spent at the keyboard; 84% let employees know the company reviews computer activity; and 71% alert employees to e-mail monitoring.

Table 2-12 Survey of Advance Notice

Forms of computer monitoring	Percentages
Inform employees that the company is monitoring content, keystrokes and time spent at the keyboard	83%
Let employees know the company reviews computer activity;	84%
Alert employees to e-mail monitoring	71%

A number of factors may influence the effectiveness of social accounts (Greenberg, 1990). For example, justifications lose their efficacy and may even be counterproductive unless they are deemed sincere and believable (Bies *et al.* 1988). We believed that behavioral integrity, the perception that management's words align with its deeds, was a critical determinant of the credibility of monitoring justifications. Indeed, word-deed misalignment could seriously undermine trust in organizations (Simons, 2002). Advance notice and justifications for monitoring are consistent with each other. Providing both justifications and notice may therefore enhance perceived behavioral integrity and trust. In contrast, implementing Internet monitoring without notifying employees may be considered a breach of trust: a justification for monitoring may then be viewed with suspicion, considered manipulative, and have little credibility.

Many organizational decision makers believe that monitoring is justified by the potential benefits of capturing criminals in action. When employees learn of secret monitoring, they may perceive it as unfair (Marx and Sherizen, 1987) and view their organizational environment as non-trustworthy. There is evidence that post-notice rather than advance-notice or no notice of electronic monitoring is viewed by employees as less procedurally fair and more invasive (Alder, 2001). Ambrose and

Alder (2000), for example, argue that timely disclosure of electronic monitoring practices will enhance perceptions of procedural justice in the workplace.

Ring and Van de Ven (1994) describe trust as "confidence in the good will of others." In an employment context, and in most business transactions, trust is implied and is based on shared expectations of both parties involved in the relationship. As long as one party meets the expectations of the other, the relationship will continue and trust will prevail (Hart and Saunders, 1997). Yet, one basic question is whether trust will survive the relationship where the managers makes it known to employees that electronic monitoring is taking place. Considering recent studies, Hovorka-Mead *et al.* (2002) found that advance notice enhanced the perceived procedural fairness of video monitoring among high school and college student seasonal employees. In designing electronic monitoring systems, managers must consider the potential of negative backlash if they do not give advance notice of the practice. However, the only empirical study that we found on the effect of advance notice of Internet monitoring saw no relationship between advance notice and perceptions of fairness (Alder *et al.*, 2006). This suggests that the focal variables mediating between electronic monitoring and employee attitudes may vary as a function of the system characteristics.

One critical monitoring system characteristic may be its focus; when monitoring focuses exclusively on employee performance, individuals may be concerned about justice and fairness. Performance monitoring will ultimately play a role in how employees are evaluated and thus they are likely to have a keen interest in the fairness of performance monitoring. In contrast, Internet monitoring focuses on aspects of employee behavior that are less directly tied to task-specific performance. As a result, constructs other than fairness may become salient. We argue that employee trust will be critical and therefore sensitive to variations in the implementation and utilization of

Internet monitoring including whether or not advance notice is given.

Research indicates that advance notice may enhance post-monitoring trust (Butler, 1991). Sonnenberg (1993) explains this relationship by arguing that employee trust will increase as management conducts HR activities with clear and open communication. Covert, secret monitoring is clearly an antithesis to the open communication critical to establishing and maintaining trust. Critics suggest that open communication with employees about monitoring forestalls litigation and improves employee relations.

This work intends to clarify the effects of three variables, including privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support, on the intention of comply with electronic monitoring systems, and also find out the impact of moderating factors which will affect intention of comply. Butler (1991) indicated that advance notice may enhance trust. Advance notice may enhance perceived behavioral integrity and trust. In contrast, implementing electronic monitoring without notifying employees may cause them to distrust their supervisors and organizations. Many managers in organization think that electronic monitoring could capture criminals potentially, it was benefic to organizations. But it may have an exactly opposite effect. When employees learn of this secret monitoring, they may think their organizational environment is non-trustworthy and invasive. From the above that, this secret monitoring may make employees perceive the greatest threat to privacy, and reduce their trust. If employees have unfavorable beliefs about electronic monitoring, they will have negative attitudes toward the electronic monitoring system implemented in organizations.

Generally, everyone wants good performances, and they can increase their bonuses or other rewards. Perceived usefulness is the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system will enhance his or her job performance (Davis, 1989). If

electronic monitoring systems with high perceived usefulness, and employees believe in the electronic monitoring systems will good to them, like bonuses and rewards.

Proponents of electronic monitoring system argue that it is an indispensable tool that benefits both organizations and their employees. They view electronic monitoring as an economic necessity for organizations. Because electronic monitoring systems can help increase productivity, improve quality and service, and reduce costs (Stanton and Weiss, 2000; Williams, 2000). Advance notice can not only avoid employees to have unfavorable beliefs about electronic monitoring, but also clarify the usefulness of electronic monitoring systems to them. And then, employees will have positive attitudes toward the electronic monitoring systems implemented in organizations. Proponents of monitoring argue that the practice may benefit employees by producing more objective performance appraisals and improved feedback (Angel, 1989; Henriques, 1986a; Henriques, 1986b). Finally, the electronic monitoring systems may be regarded as useful tools by employees.

Eisenberger *et al.* (1990) indicated that POS effected positively to employee diligence, commitment, and innovation; they thought it is because trust. Thus it can be seen that employees may have positive and benefic actions in organizations, and willing to have more contribution to their organizations when they perceive POS. Sonnenberg (1993) argued that clear and open communication will increase the trust of employees. On the other hand, secret monitoring is clearly an antithesis to the open communication critical to establishing and maintaining trust. Researchers suggest that open communication with employees about monitoring avoids litigation and improves employee relations. From the above that, advance notice just conforms to the clear and open communication with employees before electronic monitoring. It will enhance perceived behavioral integrity and trust of employees in organizations.

A person with more interdependent self-construals will emphasize harmony within

his/her organization, and attention to relationships over personal goals. Moreover, they have more deep connection with relevant others and organization. Furthermore, the person with interdependent self-construals react their affective reactions to their organization. They have more commitment and positive effect to their organizations, so they may comply with policies and try to achieve the goals and values of the organization, including the electronic monitoring systems of the organization. Research indicates that advance notice may enhance post-monitoring trust (Butler, 1991). Advance notice can enhance good beliefs of employees about electronic monitoring, and managers can also clarify and educate their employee. The employee with interdependent self-construals can more understand electronic monitoring systems of organization, and then have more will to comply with it. From the above that, when inform employee with interdependent self-construals before execute electronic monitor, they may more trust in their organizations,and then have more intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

2.5 Theories of Intentions of Compliance

2.5.1 Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

The theory of reasoned action (TRA), developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen (1975, 1980), derived from previous research that started out as the theory of attitude, which lead to the study of attitude and behavior. The theory was, "born largely out of frustration with traditional attitude-behavior research, much of which found weak correlations between attitude measures and performance of volitional behaviors" (Hale *et al.*, 2003).

The components of TRA are three general constructs: behavioral intention, attitude, and subjective norm. TRA suggests that a person's behavioral intention depends on the

person's attitude about the behavior and subjective norms. If a person intends to do a behavior then it is likely that the person will do it. Furthermore a person's intentions are themselves guided by two things: the person's attitude towards the behavior and the subjective norm. Behavioral intention measures a person's relative strength of intention to perform a behavior. Attitude consists of beliefs about the consequences of performing the behavior multiplied by his or her valuation of these consequences. Subjective norm is seen as a combination of perceived expectations from relevant individuals or groups along with intentions to comply with these expectations. In other words, "the person's perception that most people who are important to him or her think he should or should not perform the behavior in question" (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).
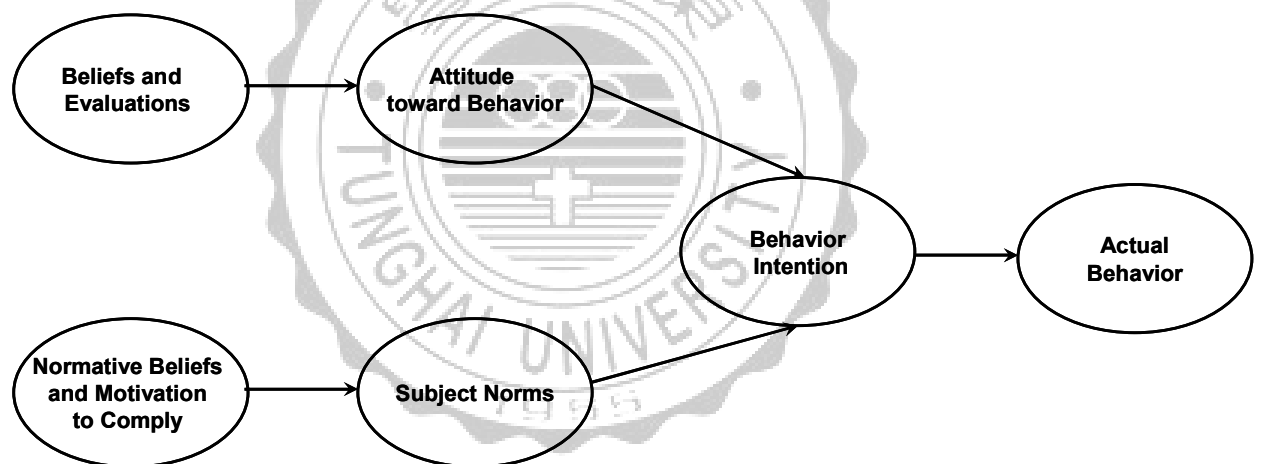
Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)

Figure 2-1 Theory of Reasoned Action

2.5.2 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

TPB was designed to explain human behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). It is theory about the link between attitudes and behavior. It was proposed by Icek Ajzen as an extension of TRA. It is one of the most predictive persuasion theories. It has been applied to

studies of the relations among beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions and behaviors. TPB was extends from the TRA by incorporating an additional construct to account for situations in which an individual lacks substantial control over the targeted behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The main difference is that TPB explains that all human behavioral decisions are not completely controlled by personal will, but are somewhere between being completely and incompletely controlled by personal will. TPB added one decision factor of uncertain time and chance, i.e. the so-called Perceived Behavioral Control. This factor would not only indirectly affect behavior through behavior intention, but also directly affect behavior.
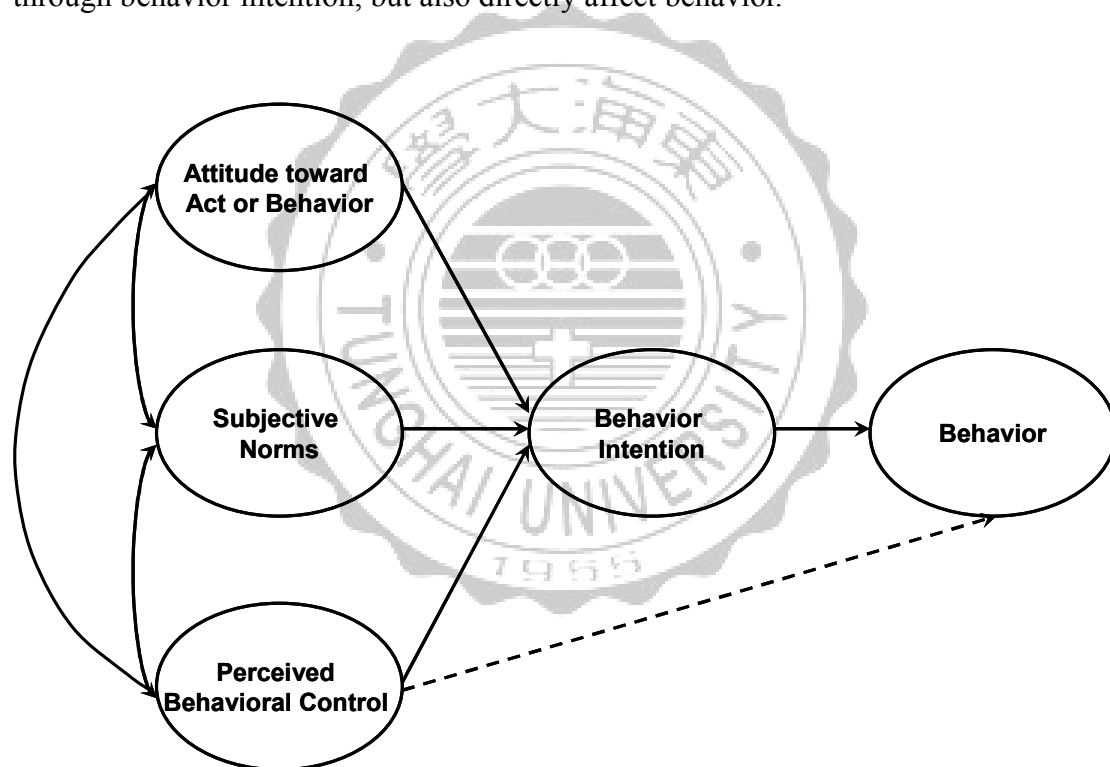
Source: Ajzen (1985, 1991)

Figure 2-2 Theory of Planned Behavior

2.5.3 Decomposed TPB (DTPB)

Taylor and Todd (1995) based on features of innovation, the original theory of planned behavior and technology acceptance model to decompose attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control in TPB. In 1995, they proposed Decomposed Theory of Planned Behavior (DTPB), the purpose of this study is that compared the R square with TPB, TAM, and DTPB to user's acceptance of IT (Taylor and Todd, 1995). Taylor and Todd decomposed the component of attitude and formed perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and compatibility; decomposed the component of subjective norms and formed peer influence and superior influence; decomposed the component of perceived behavioral control and formed self-efficacy, resource facilitating conditions and technology facilitating conditions.
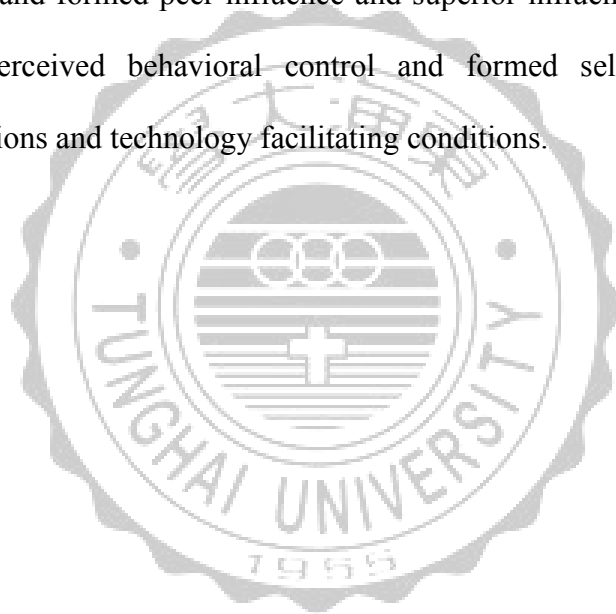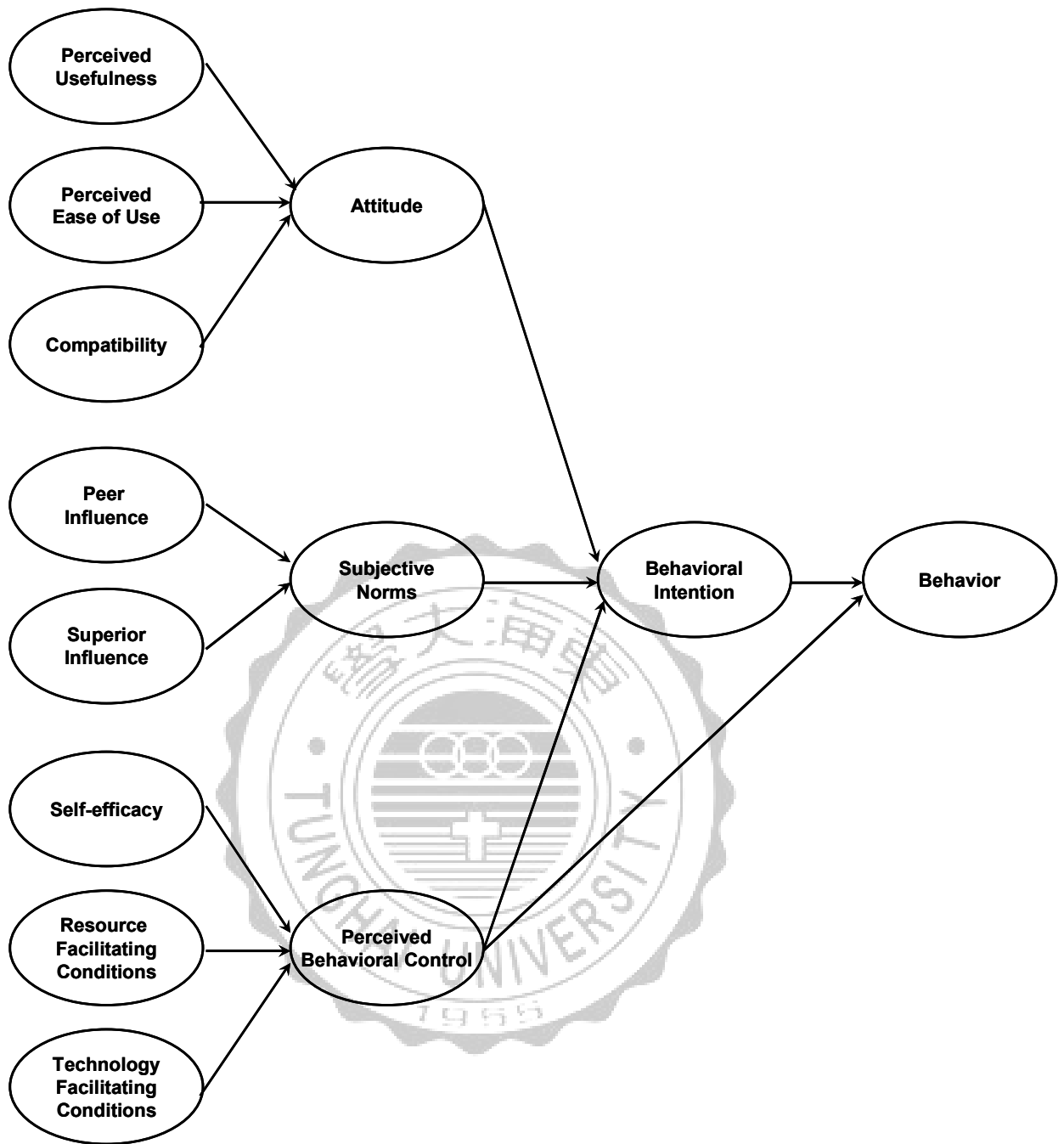
Source: Taylor & Todd (1995)

Figure 2-3 Decomposed TPB

2.5.4 Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

The technology acceptance model was the first created by (Davis, 1989), relied on

the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein and Ajzen. 1975) in psychology

research. And it was introduced and developed by Fred Davis in 1986 (Davis, 1989). Original model of TAM is from a theory that addresses the issue of how users come to accept and use a technology. The model suggests when users are presented with, example, a new software, a number of variables influence their decisions about how and when they will use it. Extensive research has been carried out to understand the user acceptance of IT (Taylor and Todd, 1995b and Venkatesh and Davis, 2000). Taylor and Todd (1995b) said that "Understanding the determinants of information technology usage should help to ensure effective deployment of information technology (IT) resources in an organization". (Venkatesh and Davis, 2000).

As can be seen, an individual's reactions to using Information technology (IT) influence their intention to use it. This, in turn, directly influences their actual usage of the technology. (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003). The TAM was developed by Davis (1989) as a way to measure, predict, and explain the acceptance of Information technology (IT) and evaluate software applications within organization (Walker and Johnson, 2008). Over the last three decades the TAM has been the most influential research models in studying the determinants of IT usage (Chau, 2001).
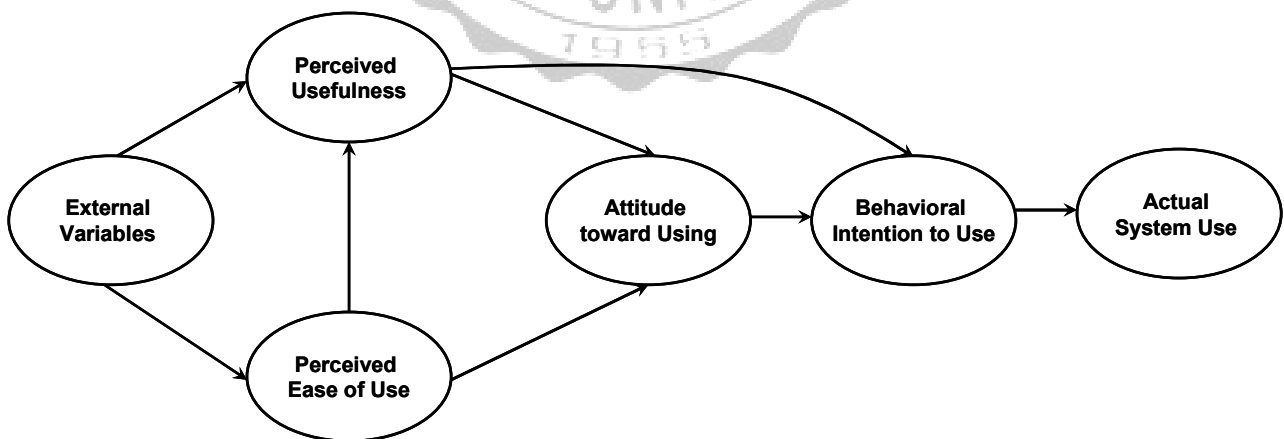
Source: Davis (1989)

Figure 2- 4 Technology Acceptance Model

Based on the above theories, all of them mention behavioral intentions to let us understand the relationship between beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral intentions, and then predict their actual behavior. After reviewing the relevant literature and books, we further develop a research model in order to study the relationship among three factors of individual differences and the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 Research Design and Methodology

This chapter first introduces the construct measurements of research construct including privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational supports. The three factors of individual differences which influence the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems, and we add two situation factors to explore the behavior of employees in organizations. Then, all hypotheses to the test and conceptual model of this research are presented. Finally, the research design, including sample plan, data collection and data analysis are described.

3.1 Hypotheses

From the above definition to privacy, everyone is prepared to disclose everything about themselves to everyone else, and then they are still in a condition of privacy (Miller and Weckert, 2000). Regarding electronic monitoring in organizations, computer-based monitoring systems are used to record statistics about employee use of company resources, their work, or where they are at any given time. The presence or absence of such monitoring systems will provide the cues for interpretation of the company environment to employees or involve unjustified invasions of privacy. Actually, between 14% and 20% of all major U.S. companies surveyed do not inform their employees of monitoring (Greenberg *et al.*, 2000). Many organizational decision makers believe that monitoring is justified by the potential benefits of capturing criminals in action. When employees learn of secret monitoring, they may perceive it as unfair (Marx and Sherizen, 1987) and view their organizational environment as non-trustworthy.

Employees who are monitored may perceive that an environment of distrust exists within the organization and this may lead to higher levels of stress and frustration.

Critics of electronic monitoring also assert that it can increase levels of stress at work and lower job satisfaction and that it is likely to be viewed as unwelcome and intrusive (Hodson *et al.*, 1999; Kallman, 1993). Critics further suggest that many employees are concerned that their basic rights such as privacy and due process are being violated (Ambrose *et al.*, 1998). All of these factors could be expected to reduce job performance and have a direct impact on overall company performance. A person's attitude score is obtained by summing across all his or her belief items (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) This factor would also directly affect behavior. And a study indicated that employees' attitude, normative beliefs and habits have significant effect on intention to comply with policy (Pahnila *et al.*, 2007). Individuals who perceive monitoring systems to be a viable and justified means for employers to control and monitor their employees would express higher intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

Thus, the employee prior beliefs about electronic monitoring may cause some situations refer to extent of privacy from electronic monitoring. Perceptions of employees about electronic monitoring may cause different reactions, and the prior beliefs of individual about privacy and monitoring are an important factor of their reactions to electronic monitoring systems. Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is developed:

> *H1: Employees have greater privacy beliefs from electronic monitoring system will have weaker intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems.*

Perceived usefulness from TAM, useful means that something is capable of being used advantageously. If systems with high perceived usefulness represent that the user believes in the existence of a positive use-performance relationship and then people will attain raises, promotions, bonuses, and other rewards (Pfeffer, 1982; Schein, 1970;

Vroom, 1964).

Several organizational researchers have argued the usefulness of conceptualizing trust in terms of individuals' choice behavior in various kinds of trust dilemma situations (Arrow, 1974; Kreps, 1990; Miller, 1993). One advantage of conceptualizing trust in terms of choice is that decisions are observable behaviors. Another is that organizational theorists possess a well-developed concept for pursuing the theoretical and empirical implications of trust-as-choice (March and Olsen, 1995). Within this literature, one contrasting images of choice have gained particular prominence, that construes choice in relatively rational, calculative terms.

Individuals who believe that monitoring represents a potentially useful management tool will be more positively disposed toward the implementation of a monitoring system. However, a prior belief that monitoring represents a useful tool reflects individual consideration about the utility of such programs and their ability to create positive outcomes. From a theory of reasoned action perspective, attitudes belonging to the appropriateness of monitoring, this should be particularly likely to predict intentions and actual behavior. Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is developed:

H2: Employees perceiving greater usefulness from electronic monitoring system will have stronger intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

Trust has been defined as a "psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intention or behavior of another" (Rousseau *et al.*, 1998). Employees have been noted to distinguish between two trust referents (a) specific individuals or groups (e.g., supervisor and co-workers) and (b) generalized representatives (e.g., employer). Research that has focused on the latter

has used trust in management and trust in employer or organization interchangeably (Whitener, 1997). POS and trust in organization (TIO) represent distinct but related constructs. Consequently, the favorable treatment employees receive at the hands of representatives of the organization are ascribed to the organization and interpreted as evidence of the organization's care and concern about their well-being. As reciprocal acts of benefit which are not negotiated, social exchange entails risk and uncertainty because the exchange partner might never or only minimally reciprocate benefits received. This makes trust an essential condition for the establishment of social exchange. Blau (1992) noted that "since there is no way to assure an appropriate return for a favor, social exchange requires trusting others to discharge their obligations." Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) argued that POS "creates trust that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligation of noticing and rewarding employee efforts made on its behalf." Whitener (2001) reported POS to be related to trust in management. An organization's care and concern about the well-being of an employee will convey information about the organization's benevolence and good-will leading to perceptions of its trustworthiness in the eyes of the employee. The employee behaviors related to policy compliance, if the employees perceive their compliance behaviors to have a favorable impact on the organization or benefit an organization, they are more likely to take such actions (Herath and Rao, 2009). Some researchers (Eisenberg *et al.*, 1990) found that organization effected positively to employee diligence, commitment, and innovation; they reasoned that trust may explain their discovery. General attitudes pertaining to the appropriateness of organizational monitoring can also be categorized as an attitude predictor of compliance intentions because they are personal evaluations of the appropriateness of employee monitoring as an organizational practice. Based on these inferences, the following hypothesis is developed:

H3: Employees perceiving greater organizational supports from electronic monitoring system will have stronger intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

Implementing electronic monitoring without notifying employees may cause employees to distrust their supervisors and organizations. This secret monitoring may make employees perceive the greatest threat to privacy, and reduce their trust. If employees have unfavorable beliefs about electronic monitoring, they will have negative attitudes toward the electronic monitoring system implemented in organizations. Advance notice can not only avoid employees to have unfavorable beliefs about electronic monitoring, but also clarify the usefulness of electronic monitoring systems to them. And then, employees will have positive attitudes toward the electronic monitoring systems implemented in organizations. Sonnenberg (1993) argued that clear and open communication will increase the trust of employees, and further increase the POS of employees. Advance notice just conforms to the clear and open communication with employees before electronic monitoring. It will enhance perceived behavioral integrity and trust of employees in organizations.

A person with more interdependent self-construal will emphasize harmony within his/her organization, and attention to relationships over personal goals. Furthermore, the person with interdependent self-construal react their affective reactions to their organization. They have more commitment and positive effect to their organizations, so they may comply with policies and try to achieve the goals and values of the organization, including the electronic monitoring systems of the organization. Based on the above discussion, we also add advance notice and self-construals as situation factors to understand employees' intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

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3.2 The Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study are that integrate the relevant literature and develop the research model in order to study the relationship among three factors of individual differences and the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Second, the purpose of this study also would like to find out the impact of moderating factors which will affect the research model. Thirdly, this study also empirically test the research model though the employees in Taiwan. Thus, we develop the conceptual framework as show in Figure 3-1.

**Factors of
Individual Differences**
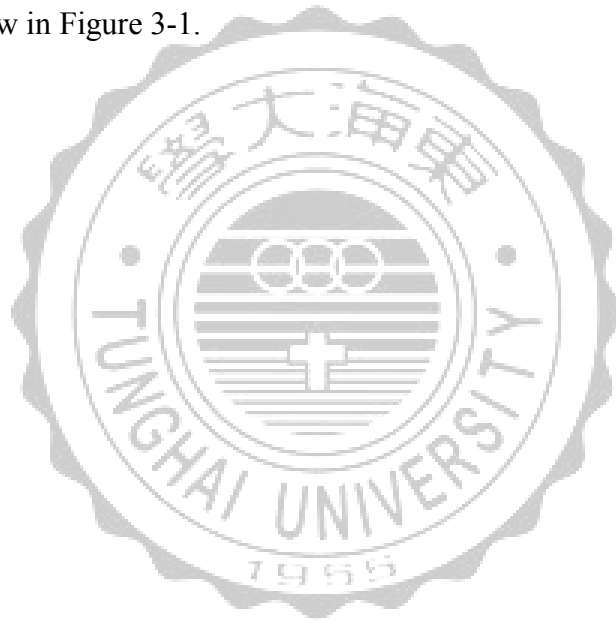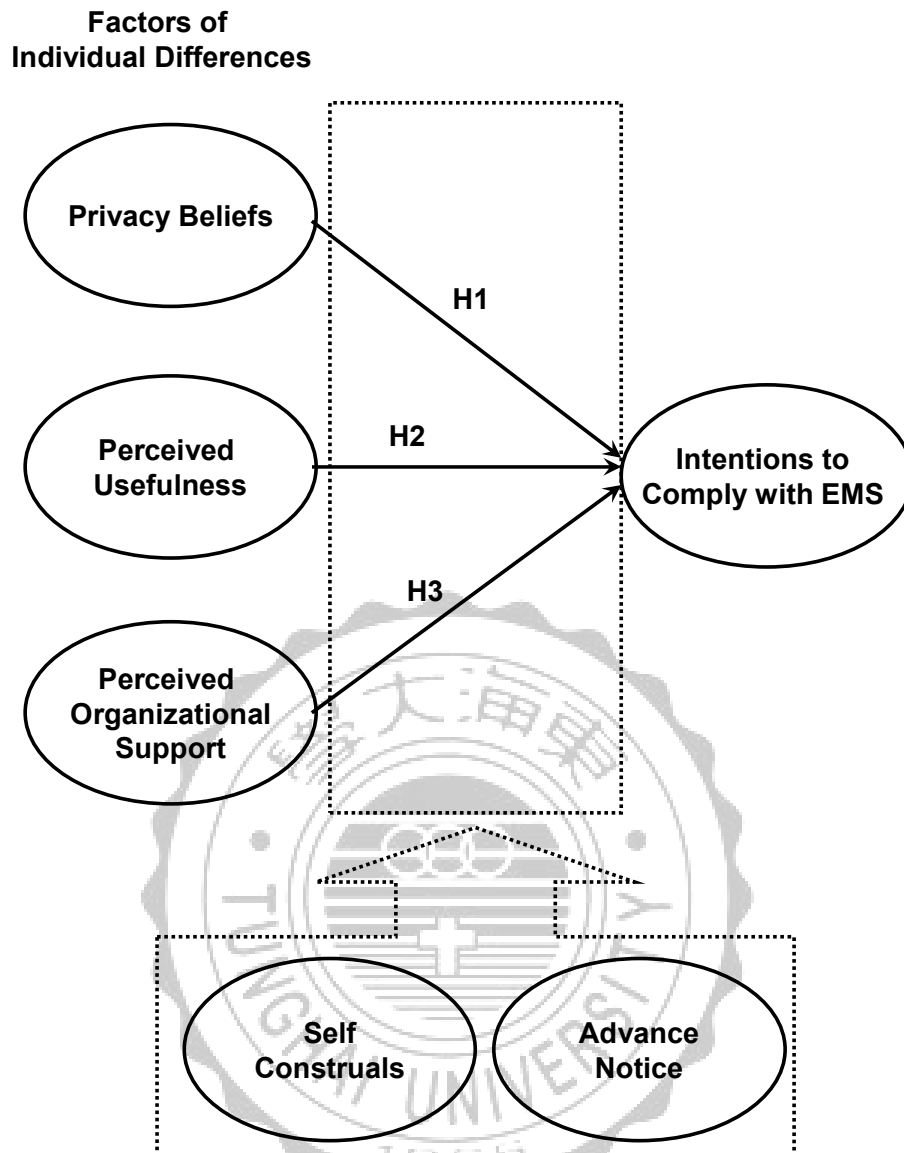
Figure 3-1 The Research Framework

We expected that privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support would affect intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Then advance notice and self-construals moderate the effect of the three constructs.

3.3 Construct Measurement

In order to meet the objectives of the study, the following constructs are operated in

the given research: (1) privacy beliefs, (2) perceived usefulness, (3) perceived organizational support, (4) intentions to comply with EMS, (5) self-construals, and (6) advance notice. Development of measurement items/scales was guided by the goal of adequately representing the research constructs. Most of the items were previously tested by other scholars, and are employed in the given study in existing or slightly modified manner.

3.3.1 Privacy Beliefs

Defined as personal knowledge, privacy involves what individuals in a particular society, during a particular time period, are willing to disclose about themselves (Miller and Weckert, 2000). Privacy beliefs concern about electronic monitoring of employees may lead to some unforeseen circumstances. Individual beliefs regarding whether electronic monitoring represents the invasive extent of privacy. All individuals vary in their definitions of privacy. Obviously, employee perceptions regarding electronic monitoring may cause different reactions. Additionally, previous individual beliefs regarding privacy and monitoring significantly affect their reactions to electronic monitoring systems. All of the scales were derived from Smith *et al.* (1996) study.

3.3.2 Perceived Usefulness

As discussed earlier, the technology acceptance model (TAM) defines perceived usefulness as the extent to which individuals believe that using a particular system will enhance their job performance (Davis, 1989). Within an organizational context, individuals generally want to perform well in order to receive salary raises, promotions, bonuses, and other reward incentives (Pfeffer, 1982; Schein, 1970; Vroom, 1964). Restated, systems with a high degree of perceived usefulness persuade

employees to believe in a positive performance relationship. All of the scales were derived from Davis (1989) study.

3.3.3 Perceived Organizational Support

In this study perceived organizational supports (POS) are referred to as "the quality of employee and organizational relationships, as indicated by employee perceptions of the extent to which the organization is concerned with their welfare and values their contribution (Aryee *et al.*, 2002)." Settoon *et al.* (1996) contended that managers whom act positively towards employees contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships. Managers thus obligate employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways. All of the scales were derived from Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) study. But the 8-item scales the recommendation of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) that "Because the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic. Prudence nevertheless dictates that both facets of the definition of POS (valuation of employees' contribution and care about employees' well-being) be represented in short versions of the questionnaire." Thus, we adopted the 8-item scales from Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) study.

3.3.4 Intentions to Comply with EMS

Employees' reactions to using information technology influence their intention to use it, thus influencing directly their actual usage of the technology (Venkatesh and Davis, 2000). Respondents are asked to express their intentions to comply with electronic monitoring by indicating whether they agree to each of the statements in organizational trust of the questionnaire on a five-point Likert scale.

3.3.5 Self-Construal

As this study refers to the concept of self-construals as two major self-construals, depending on how individuals view themselves in relation to others. The independent self-construal tends to perceive itself as separate from its roles and relationships (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 1994), basing its identity on internal characteristics, dispositions and traits. This self remains fairly stable and tends to allow for consistent behavior across circumstances, regardless of the context. Also, the interdependent self-construal tends to conform to relevant others, fulfill and create obligations, as well as form various interpersonal relationships. All of the scales were derived from Singelis (1994) study.

3.3.6 Advance Notice

As discussed earlier, organizations with electronic monitoring systems in workplace may or may not inform the employees of the monitoring. Advance notice can enhance good beliefs of employees about electronic monitoring, and managers can also clarify and educate their employee. In this study, we gave a description of organization to create two situations to respondents. The two situations represent advance notice and did not advance notice that may moderate the effect of the three constructs. This study develops nine questionnaire items from (Spitzmüller and Stanton, 2006) study. All measurement constructs are summarized in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 Measurement Constructs

CONSTRUCT	ITEM		ADAPTED MEASURE AND SOURCE	SCALE TYPE
Privacy beliefs	Privacy beliefs	1~15	Smith *et al.* (1996)	five-point Likert scale 1=Strongly disagree 5=Strongly agree
Perceived usefulness	Electronic monitoring system	1~6	Davis (1989)	
Perceived organizational supports	POS and organizational trust	1~8	Eisenberger *et al.* (1986); Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002)	
Intentions to comply with EMS	Electronic monitoring system	7~15	Spitzmüller and Stanton (2006)	
Self-construal	Independent	1、3、4、5、6、9、11、12、16、18、20、22	Singelis (1994)	
	Interdependent	2、7、8、10、13、14、15、17、19、21、23、24		

3.4 Questionnaire Design

As discussed above, a 61–item survey questionnaire was developed to obtain the responses from the employees about their opinions on various research constructs. The questionnaire of this study consists of six research constructs. The questionnaire has five main sections. The first section contained 9 items sought for demographic information: industry, number of employees, duration of the current job, duration of the current industry, division, position, gender, age, and the level of education. In the second section, 14 items were used to measure the variables involved, presented as follows: "Perceived Usefulness (5 items)" and "Intentions to Comply with EMS (9

items)". The third and fourth section, 24 items were used to measure "Self-Construal", and 15 items were used to measure "Privacy Beliefs". In the last section, 8 items were used to measure the variable involved "Perceived Organizational Support (8 items)".

These 61 items were measured using five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It was provided a statement to create situations for the construct of advance notice in the questionnaires. The detailed contents of the questionnaire are shown in the Appendix A and B.

3.5　Sampling Plan

A series of questionnaire surveys was conducted to identify employees' perception of the research variables for the study. The population of the study was decided to embrace the central section of Taiwan, with a sample size of 300. Paper based questionnaires were distributed among the respondents in order to collect the data. We adopt convenient sampling method and collect data from employees who work in a company.

A pilot study was conducted with a reliability test to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Then the final version of the questionnaire measures was refined through the process of purification and proofread through information management and organization experts. The subjects were asked to express their opinions about their perception toward organization or electronic monitoring, and, finally, about whether they have intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. The role of demographics will be also addressed.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

In order to achieve the purposes of this research, and test the proposed hypotheses, SPSS software version 18 was employed to help analyze the collected data. The following data analysis was conducted:

3.6.1 Descriptive Statistics Analysis

In order to better understand the characteristics of each research variable and investigate the moderating effect of demographics in terms of privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, perceived organizational support, self-construals, and intentions to comply with EMS, descriptive statistics analysis was used to illustrate the means and standard deviations of each research variable.

3.6.2 Reliability Tests

Internal consistency analysis (Cronbach's alpha) were employed to confirm the reliability of each research factor. Coefficient alpha (α) is a measure of squared correlation between observed scores and true scores. In other words, reliability is measured in terms of the ratio of true score variance to observed score variance. It can test the internal consistency of each factor. According to Robinson and Shaver (1973), if α is greater than 0.7, it means that it has high reliability, while if a is smaller than 0.3, low reliability is implied. George and Mallery (2003) also provide a standard of alpha as shown in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2 Standard of Alpha

Range of α	Meaning
$1.0 > \alpha \geqq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geqq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geqq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geqq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geqq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha \geqq 0.0$	Unacceptable

3.6.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation and regression analysis are related in the sense that both deal with relationships among variables. The correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. Values of the correlation coefficient are always between 1 to (-1). A correlation coefficient of 1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a positive linear sense, a correlation coefficient of (-1) indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a negative linear sense, and a correlation coefficient of 0 indicates that there is no linear relationship between the two variables. For simple linear regression, the sample correlation coefficient is the square root of the coefficient of determination, with the sign of the correlation coefficient being the same as the sign to estimated regression equation.

Neither regression nor correlation analyses can be interpreted as establishing cause-and-effect relationships. They can indicate only how or to what extent variables are associated with each other. The correlation coefficient measures only the degree of linear association between two variables.

3.6.4 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis involves identifying the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. A model of the relationship is hypothesized, and estimates of the parameter values are used to develop an estimated regression equation. In simple linear regression, the model used to describe the relationship between a single dependent variable y and a single independent variable x. Various tests are then employed to determine if the model is satisfactory. If the model is deemed satisfactory, the estimated regression equation can be used to predict the value of the dependent variable given values for the independent variables.

Chapter 4 Research Results

The findings of data analyses to test the research hypotheses are presented in this chapter. The empirical results are shown in the three sections of the given chapter. The first section is dedicated to descriptive statistics analysis of the collected data. Reliability tests' results are discussed in the second section. It includes evaluation of Cronbach's α coefficients. Furthermore, correlation and regression analysis is presented in the fourth section in order to examine the relationships among the research constructs.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics analysis was conducted in this section to present the information about individual characteristics of respondents in terms of relevant research variables.

4.1.1 Data Collection

We released 300 copies, and 286 of which were gathered for one month. Owing to omission of the respondents, roughly 15 copies of the collected 286 copies turned out to be useless, hence 271 (133 of advance notice; 138 of non advance notice) cases were utilized for further data analyses.

4.1.2 The Sample

The descriptive profiles of the sample (n=271) in terms of nine demographic items of this study ((1) industry, (2) number of employees, (3) years of company experience, (4) department, (5) position, (6) gender, (7) age, (8) level of education) are shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1 The Sample Profile (N=271)

Respondents' profile	Freq.	Percentage	Respondents' profile	Freq.	Percentage
Industry			**Department**		
Management consulting	9	3.3%	Operation	19	7.0%
Traditional manufacturing	33	12.2%	Marketing Planning	16	5.9%
Medical industry	5	1.8%	Human Resources	8	3.0%
Education	14	5.2%	Product Development	12	4.4%
Electronics-related	10	3.7%	General Accounting	22	8.1%
Financial and Insurance	18	6.6%	Information	20	7.4%
Electricity, gas and water industry	2	0.7%	Security	1	0.4%
Retail	4	1.5%	Business	41	15.1%
Service	26	9.6%	Administration	74	27.3%
Media and Communication	6	2.2%	Procurement	6	2.2%
Transport	4	1.5%	Engineering	19	7.0%
Information technology	14	5.2%	Others	16	5.9%
commerce	28	10.3%			
Government organizations	71	26.2%	**Position**		
Consumer goods industry	11	4.1%	Manager	47	17.3%
Others	16	5.9%	Non-manager	224	82.7%
Number of Employees			**Gender**		
Under 50	90	33.2%	Male	103	38.0%
Between 51 and 100	26	9.6%	Female	168	62.0%
Between 101 and 200	96	35.4%			
Between 201 and 500	23	8.5%	**Age**		
Between 501 and 1000	11	4.1%	Under 20	9	3.3%
Between 1001 and 2000	6	2.2%	Between 21 and 30	128	47.2%
Between 2001 and 5000	3	1.1%	Between 31 and 40	76	28.0%
Over 5001	16	5.9%	Between 41 and 50	34	12.6%
			Between 51 and 60	22	8.1%
Years of Company Experience			Over 60	2	0.7%
Between 1 and 5 years	184	67.9%			
Between 6 and 10 years	48	17.7%	**Level of Education**		
Between 11 and 15 years	21	7.7%	Under junior high school	6	2.2%
Between 16 and 20 years	7	2.6%	High (vocational) school	29	10.7%
Over 20 years	11	4.1%	Junior college and Bachelor	192	70.8%
			Master	44	16.2%

The table reveals that 26% respondents belong to government organizations, and other industry (5.9%), which does not belong to any industry listed on questionnaire. The respondents' company with over 50 employees is 66.8%, and the work experience of respondents (67.9%) are between 1 and 5 years, while only 2.6% are between 16 and 20 years. 27.3% of respondents belong to Administration Department. Other department (5.9%) is the second large in this study, which does not belong to any industry listed on questionnaire. Administration Department and Others comprised 33.2% of respondents.

The results show that most respondents (82.7%) are not managers; much fewer (17.3%) are managers, and they are mostly females (62.2%). Most respondents (47.2%) are between 21 and 30 years old. In terms of education, the majority of respondents graduated from junior college and university (70.8%).

4.1.3 Measurement Results for Relevant Research Variables

Tables 4-2 to 4-6 present descriptive statistics for each of the questionnaire items of the relevant research variables, and Table 4-7 present descriptive statistics for each of the research constructs. There are 15 items of privacy beliefs, 5 items of perceived usefulness, 8 items of perceived organizational supports, 24 items of self-construals, 11 items of organizational trust, and 9 items of intention to comply with EMS.

Table 4-2 shows that privacy in general are important for the respondents, which is indicated by the mean score from 3.46 to 4.62.

Table 4-2 Descriptive Analysis for Privacy Beliefs Questionnaire Items

Privacy Beliefs	Mean	Std. Deviation
It usually bothers me when companies ask me for personal information.	3.46	0.949
All the personal information in computer databases should be double-checked for accuracy-no matter how much this costs.	3.74	0.971
Companies should not use personal information for any purpose unless it has been authorized by the individuals who provided the information.	4.35	0.749
Companies should devote more time and effort to preventing unauthorized access to personal information.	4.40	0.733
When companies ask me for personal information, I sometimes think twice before providing it.	4.04	0.824
Companies should take more steps to make sure that the personal information in their files is accurate.	4.12	0.844
When people give personal information to a company for some reason, the company should never use the information for any other reason.	4.31	0.790
Companies should have better procedures to correct errors in personal information.	4.15	0.767
Computer databases that contain personal information should be protected from unauthorized access-no matter how much it costs.	4.50	0.682
It bothers me to give personal information to so many companies.	4.05	0.844
Companies should never sell the personal information in their computer databases to other companies.	4.62	0.715
Companies should devote more time and effort to verifying the accuracy of the personal information in their databases.	4.14	0.823
Companies should never share personal information with other companies unless it has been authorized by the individuals who provided the information.	4.52	0.693
Companies should take more steps to make sure that unauthorized people cannot access personal information in their computers.	4.48	0.704
I'm concerned that companies are collecting too much personal information about me.	4.18	0.811

Table 4-3 shows the means and standard deviations of the respondents' perceived usefulness are indicated. The relatively high mean scores from 2.95 to 3.10 in a five-point Likert type scale.

Table 4-3 Descriptive Analysis for Perceived Usefulness Questionnaire Items

Perceived Usefulness	Mean	Std. Deviation
Using electronic monitoring in my job would enable me to accomplish tasks more quickly.	3.08	1.188
Using electronic monitoring would improve my job performance.	2.95	1.160
Using electronic monitoring in my job would increase my productivity.	3.00	1.127
Using electronic monitoring would enhance my effectiveness on the job.	3.10	1.176
I would find electronic monitoring useful in my job.	2.96	1.154

Table 4-4 shows the means and standard deviations of the respondents' perceived organizational supports are indicated. The relatively high mean scores from 2.94 to 3.23 in a five-point Likert type scale reveal the tendency to positively perceive by the respondents.

Table 4-4 Descriptive Analysis for POS Questionnaire Items

Perceived Organizational Supports	Mean	Std. Deviation
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	3.15	0.872
The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	3.06	0.812
The organization would ignore any complaint from me.	3.01	0.837
The organization really cares about my well-being.	2.94	0.892
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	2.97	0.892
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	3.23	0.793
The organization shows very little concern for me.	3.04	0.844
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	3.01	0.816

Moreover, Table 4-5 below shows the results of the construct of self-construals, the mean score of independent-self from 2.95 to 4.32, and the mean score of interdependent-self from 2.95 to 4.28.

Table 4-5 Descriptive Analysis for Self-Construals Questionnaire Items

Self-Construals (Independent-Self)	Mean	Std. Deviation
I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.	3.70	0.870
Speaking up during a class is not a problem for me.	3.44	0.963
Having a lively imagination is important to me.	3.94	0.803
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.	3.06	0.993
I am the same person at home that I am at company.	2.98	1.090
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	4.22	0.621
I act the same way no matter who I am with.	3.31	0.988
I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.	2.95	1.006
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.	3.13	0.991
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.	3.72	0.814
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.	3.66	0.862
I value being in good health above everything.	4.32	0.749
Self-Construals (Interdependent-Self)	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	4.28	0.685
I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor.	3.99	0.791
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making career plans.	3.82	0.751
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.	3.93	0.856
I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.	4.00	0.767
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.	3.56	0.854
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.	3.31	0.922
I respect people who are modest about themselves.	4.10	0.676
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.	2.95	0.990
If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.	3.17	0.944
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.	3.94	0.712
Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.	3.76	0.825

Finally, Table 4-6 reveals the intentions of the respondents to comply with EMS, the mean score from 2.47 to 3.25.

Table 4-6 Descriptive Analysis for Intentions to
Comply with EMS Questionnaire Items

Intentions to Comply with EMS	Mean	Std. Deviation
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will try to find a way to keep my private, for instance, by changing settings on my computer.	2.63	1.185
If my company implements electronic monitoring, and I knew how to circumvent it, I would show my co-workers how to do that.	2.80	1.231
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will accept this policy and not try to circumvent it.	3.10	1.051
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will encourage my colleagues to accept this policy and not try to circumvent it.	2.95	1.023
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will stop using the company system if I can and use another computer instead.	2.65	1.148
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will encourage my co-workers to stop using the company system if they can and use another computer instead.	3.13	1.093
If my company implements electronic monitoring, and my co-workers try to fool the system by using other computers or programmes, I will report this to the responsible supervisor.	2.47	1.091
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will complain about it with my supervisor and/or with the department responsible for the implementation of the system.	2.99	1.099
If my company implements electronic monitoring, I will encourage my co-workers to complain with their supervisors and with the responsible department.	3.25	1.106

Table 4-7 below shows the results of the construct of the research constructs, the means score and standard deviations of the respondents are indicated.

Privacy Beliefs

There were 15 items to be used to measure the variables involved, the means score is 4.20; the score above average of 3 indicate that employees have high privacy beliefs

to affect their attitudes and, then, the attitudes of employees affect their behavioral intentions.

Perceived Usefulness

There were 5 items to be used to measure the variables involved, the means score is 3.02; the score slightly higher than average of 3 indicate that employees has no very high perceived usefulness to affect their behavioral intentions.

Perceived Organizational Supports

There were 8 items to be used to measure the variables involved, the means score is 3.05; the score slightly higher than average of 3 indicate that employees has no very high perceived organizational supports to affect their behavioral intentions.

Self-Construal

Table 4-7 shows the self-construals of the respondents, and the frequency and percent of the respondents' self-construals as shown in Table 4-8. Most respondents (66.4%) belong to interdependent-self; other respondents (33.6%) are independent-self in this study, which indicate that more interdependent-self of employees to affect their attitudes and behavioral intentions. The self-construals of advance notice are presented in Table 4-9.

Intention to Comply with EMS

It contained 9 items to be used to measure the variables involved, the means score is 2.88; the score below average of 3 indicate that employees have low intention to comply with EMS.

Table 4-7 Descriptive Analysis for Research Constructs

Construct	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Privacy Beliefs	15	4.20	0.5377
Perceived Usefulness	5	3.02	1.0579
Perceived Organizational Supports	8	3.05	0.5679
Intention to Comply with EMS	9	2.88	0.6500

Table 4-8 Self-Construals of the Respondents

Self-Construals		
Categories	Frequency	Percent (%)
Interdependent-self	180	66.4
Independent-self	91	33.6
Total	271	100.0

Table 4-9 Self-Construals of Advance Notice

Categories	Advance Notice	Non -Advance Notice	Total
Interdependent-self	88	92	180
Independent-self	45	46	91
Total	133	138	271

4.2 Results of Reliability Tests

Prior to conducting further analyses it is important to assess reliability in the measurement scale. Besides, reliability measures the extent to which items are free of random or unstable error, and, hence, yield consistent results. The necessity of internal consistency consists in that individual items or indicators of the scale should all be measuring the same construct and thus be highly interred correlated. Hence, Cronbach's α greater than 0.7 are employed to prove the reliability of the instrument.

The results of reliability test present the Cronbach's α greater than 0.7 for all the constructs. The results of reliability test for the construct of attitudes are shown in

Table 4-10.

Table 4-10 Reliability Analysis of Construct

Construct	Cronbach's α
Privacy Beliefs	0.914
Perceived Usefulness	0.949
Perceived Organizational Supports	0.826
Self-Construal (interdependent-self)	0.785
Self-Construal (independent-self)	0.764
Intention to Comply with EMS	0.757

4.3 Results of Correlation and Regression Analysis

In this part, the results of correlation and regression analysis are shown below. The correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. Regression analysis involves identifying the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. If the model is deemed satisfactory, the estimated regression equation can be used to predict the value of the dependent variable given values for the independent variables.

4.3.1 Correlations

The correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. Values of the correlation coefficient are always between 1 to (-1). A correlation coefficient of 1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a positive linear sense, a correlation coefficient of (-1) indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a negative linear sense, and a correlation coefficient of 0 indicates that there is no linear relationship between the two variables.

In the Table 4-11, the variables of the study as follow: privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, perceived organizational support, intentions to comply with EMS, self-construals, and advance notice. The dependent variable is intentions to comply

with EMS, and the independent variables are privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support.

The correlation coefficient of intentions to comply with EMS between privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support are (-0.057), 0.214, and 0.228 respectively. At the significant level P< 0.01, it indicates perceived usefulness and perceived organizational support significantly positive associated with intentions to comply with EMS.

Table 4-11 Correlation Matrix

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1.Privacy Beliefs	1.000					
2.Perceived Usefulness	0.069	1.000				
3.Perceived Organizational Supports	0.028	0.144*	1.000			
4.Intention to Comply with EMS	-0.057	0.214**	0.228**	1.000		
5.Self-Construals	-0.015	-0.010	-0.047	-0.035	1.000	
6.Advance Notice	-0.150*	0.025	0.028	-0.105	-0.005	1.000

Significant Level: ** P< 0.01; * P< 0.05; † P< 0.1 (2-tailed)

4.3.2 Regression Analysis

Firstly, a regression model was used to test the effects of the differences of individuals on EMS compliance but not considering two situation factors. The model intends to clarify the relationship between three independent variables (privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational supports) and the dependent variable (intentions to comply with EMS). The results of the model are shown in Table 4-12. Collectively, the overall significance of the estimated regression line is good (F-value = 8.930, P-value = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.091$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.081$); that is, the three differences of individuals influence their EMS compliance. Individually,

however, as we have seen, only perceived usefulness and perceived organizational support have an impact on intentions to comply with EMS, but privacy belief has not significant effect on EMS compliance intention. Perceived organizational supports is the most important construct to contribute to explaining the intentions to comply with EMS, followed by perceived usefulness. Additonally, the adjusted R^2 tells us merely 8.1% of variation in the dependent variable explained by the explanatory variables, implying that other factors or situation factors may neutralize the overall effect.

Table 4-12 Results of Regression Analysis (Not Considering Situation Factors)

	Intention to Comply with EMS
Privacy Beliefs	-0.092
Perceived Usefulness	0.116**
Perceived Organizational Supports	0.233***
R^2	0.091
Adjusted R^2	0.081
F	8.930***

Significant Level: ***$P \leq 0.001$; ** $P \leq 0.01$; ** $P \leq 0.05$; † $P \leq 0.1$

4.3.3 Analysis of Situation Factors

Many studies about electronic monitoring indicated that the beliefs of employees affect their attitudes, behavioral intention, and ultimately behavior, but few add situation factors to explore the behavior of employees in organizations. As described in chapter 2, two key situation factors advance notice and self-construals were considered in this study. Using the concept of dichotomy, this study distinguishes all

questionnaires into "with advance notice" and "without advance notice" ones. On the other hand, questionnaire respondents also were divided into "inderdependent-self" and "independent-self" ones. Therefore, all questionnaire responses were split into four portions. We intend to run four regressions based on the four portions of sample for understanding the relationship between the difference of individuals and intentions to comply with EMS.

In this part, we aimed at advance notice to split self-construals into interdependent-self and independent-self. And the result of regression analysis are shown below to test the effect when considering two situation factors and clarifies the relationship between three dependent variables (privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational supports) and the dependent variable (intentions to comply with EMS).

Advance Notice

Table 4-13 indicates the results of interdependent-self and independent-self in the situation of advance notice, according to which interdependent-self is the most important factor to the dependent variable of intentions to comply with EMS, and perceived organizational supports is the most important construct to contribute to explaining the dependent variable of intentions to comply with EMS (F-Value = 9.036, P-Value = 0.000, R^2 = 0.244, Adjusted R^2 = 0.217,), followed by privacy beliefs and perceived usefulness. The adjusted R^2 tells us 21.7% of variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. In interdependent-self, all constructs (privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, and perceived organizational support) have significant effect on intentions to comply with EMS. But in independent-self, all constructs have not significant effect on intentions to comply with EMS.

Table 4-13 Analysis Results of Advance Notice

	Interdependent-Self	Independent-Self
Privacy Beliefs	-0.421**	0.164
Perceived Usefulness	0.146†	0.023
Perceived Organizational Supports	0.322***	0.069
R^2	0.244	0.043
Adjusted R^2	0.217	-0.027
F	9.036***	0.613

Significant Level: ***$P \leq 0.001$; ** $P \leq 0.01$; ** $P \leq 0.05$; † $P \leq 0.1$

Non- Advance Notice

Table 4-14 indicates the results of interdependent-self and independent-self in the situation of non-advance notice, according to which independent-self is the most important factor to the dependent variable of intentions to comply with EMS, and perceived usefulness is the most important construct to contribute to explaining the dependent variable of intentions to comply with EMS (P-Value = 0.001, R^2 = 0.291, Adjusted R^2 = 0.240, F-Value = 5.733), and the adjusted R^2 tells us 29.1% of variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. In independent-self, only perceived usefulness has significant effect on intentions to comply with EMS. But in interdependent-self, all constructs have not significant effect on intentions to comply with EMS.

Table 4-14 Analysis Results of Non-Advance Notice

	Interdependent-Self	Independent-Self
Privacy Beliefs	0.062	-0.130
Perceived Usefulness	0.062	0.336***
Perceived Organizational Supports	0.169	0.216
R^2	0.040	0.291
Adjusted R^2	0.007	0.240
F	1.208	5.733**

Significant Level: ***$P \leq 0.001$; ** $P \leq 0.01$; ** $P \leq 0.05$; †$P \leq 0.1$

We further integrated the analysis results of situation factors in Table 4-15. Obviously, after adding the situation factors, the results are different to the overall model.

Table 4-15 Results of Regression Analysis (Considering Situation Factors)

	Intentions to Comply EMS			
	Advance Notice	Advance Notice	Non-Advance Notice	Non-Advance Notice
	Interdependent Self	Independent Self	Interdependent Self	Independent Self
Privacy Beliefs	-0.421**	0.164	0.062	-0.130
Perceived Usefulness	0.146†	0.023	0.062	0.336***
Perceived Organizational Supports	0.322***	0.069	0.169	0.216
R^2	0.244	0.043	0.040	0.291
Adjusted R^2	0.217	-0.027	0.007	0.240
F	9.036***	0.613	1.208	5.733**

Chapter 5 Discussions and Conclusions

This chapter summarizes all the results of the conducted empirical study based on the data analysis outcome presented in chapter 4. Conclusion and research limitations for further research are also discussed in this chapter.

5.1 Research Conclusions and Implications

The relationships among privacy beliefs, perceived usefulness, perceived organizational support, and intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems are investigated in the given study. First, overall model not considering the effect of situation factors is examined. Second, four models when consider two situation factors, the hypotheses H1 to H3 are respectively supported or not supported.

The research results are summarized in

Table 5-1: the hypotheses H2, H3 are supported, while H1 is not supported, that is, perceived usefulness and perceived organizational support have impact on intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems, while the impact of privacy beliefs was not supported.

Table 5-1 Summary of Hypotheses Testing (Not Considering Situation Factors)

Hypotheses		Result
H1	Employees will have less intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems when employees are provided with privacy beliefs for electronic monitoring than when they receive no privacy beliefs.	Not Supported
H2	Employees will have more intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems when employees are provided with usefulness for electronic monitoring than when they receive no usefulness.	Supported
H3	Employees will have more intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems when employees are provided with organizational supports than when they receive no organizational supports.	Supported

As the research constructs were further investigated to examine the impacts of self-construals within employees. Advance notice and self- construals both are the concept of dichotomy; we split the data into four portions. This four models when consider two situation factors, the results of hypotheses as shown in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2 Summary of Hypotheses Testing (Considering Situation Factors)

Situation Factor	Advance Notice	Non -Advance Notice
Interdependent Self	H1: Supported H2: Supported H3: Supported	All hypotheses are not supported
Independent Self	All hypotheses are not supported	H1: Not Supported H2: Supported H3: Not Supported

Moreover, regression analysis of overall model has revealed that perceived organizational support have the most significant impact on intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems, followed by perceived usefulness. Thus, it can be concluded that perceived organizational support and perceived usefulness are of great importance when making decisions to comply with or resist electronic monitoring systems. Besides, it is found that employees with high perceived organizational support will have much intention to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

In the situation of advance notice, according to which interdependent-self is the most important factor, because all hypotheses are supported. Perceived organizational supports is the most important construct to contribute to explaining the dependent variable of intentions to comply, followed by privacy beliefs and perceived usefulness. Employees with interdependent-self tendercy benefits to electronic monitoring system implementation, employees of interdependent-self are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant others, to fulfill and create obligation, and in general to become part of various interpersonal relationships most impact on intentions to comply with electronic monitoring. Managers notify employees with interdependent-self before implementing electronic monitoring, and tell them the benefits of the electronic

monitoring to organization, so that they may have much intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Hence, creating the perception of organizational support being beneficial and the open communication critical to establishing and maintaining trust with employees of interdependent-self is able to increase the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Open communication with employees about electronic monitoring avoids litigation and improves employee relations. Providing employees of interdependent-self with information of usefulness about the electronic monitoring, so that they could evaluate it, and derive cognitive perception of the benefits it offers. Cognitive perception of organization is getting more important, as employees of interdependent-self are becoming more aware of the well concern of organization.

On the other hand, privacy beliefs of employees with interdependent-self may reduce their intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Organizations should try to ensure employees with interdependent-self feel that privacy is not invaded in order to increase their intentions to comply with electronic monitoring, therefore, with or without advance notice is a very important factor to employees with interdependent-self.

Conversely, in the situation of non-advance notice, according to which independent-self is the most important factor to the dependent variable of intentions to comply, and perceived usefulness is the most important construct to the dependent variable of intentions to comply. The employees of independent-self tend to perceive itself as separate from its roles and relationships, so they have few intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems whether notify them or not. When learning of this monitoring, the employees of independent-self may view their organizational environment as untrustworthy and invasive, allowing them not to comply with policies and strive for organizational goals and values, including the

electronic monitoring systems. But in the situation of non-advance notice, they may get a way to perform them well to ability to increase their reward. Employees with independent-self may believe the electronic monitor enhances their job performance, and contend that it is an indispensable means of benefitting themselves because electronic monitoring systems can increase their reward incentives.

In summary, from a managerial standpoint it can be concluded that enhancing the possibilities of employees' perceived organizational supports, making well concern with employees is able to increase intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. In addition, we know that the self- construals of employees and notify or not will affect the implementation of electronic monitoring in organizations.

5.2 Contribution for Academicians and Practitioners

By examining previously unrelated streams of research, this develops a conceptual model for explaining individual differences of how employees affect their intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

For academics, this study proposes three differences of individual represent the three components of trust respectively. Additionally, from the perspectives of employees' characteristics, few studies have focused on employees' self-construals and advance notice to understand employees' intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. The proposed model incorporates advance notice and self-construals of employees to understand employees' intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems.

The results of this study indicate some clues: in the situation of non-advance notice, only perceived usefulness enhances the intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems for those employees of independent-self, but for the employees of

interdependent-self, all of constructs have not work to their intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. As for the situation of advance notice, only those employees of independent-self have significant impact on intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems, and perceived organizational support have the most significant impact.

For practitioners, propositions derived from the conceptual model significantly contribute to efforts to induce employees' intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems in the workplace. It is very important to organizations that enhancing the possibilities of employees' perceived organizational supports, and making well concern with their employees is able to increase intentions to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Furthermore, this study observes implications of self- construals of employees and advance notice from data analysis: first, if an organization wants to implement electronic monitoring may need to decide whether to inform their employees of this information. Second, prior to the implementation of electronic monitoring, the organization can evaluate their employees, or implement test of self-construals to the candidates of recruitment, so that help the implementation of electronic monitoring succeed. Finally, with regard to implement electronic monitoring without notifying employees are uncertain or unknown about electronic monitoring, that may cause employees of interdependent-self to have not strong motivations to comply with electronic monitoring systems. Thus, managers should consider communicating with employees of interdependent-self about the electronic monitoring. As for employees of independent-self, managers should enhance usefulness of the electronic monitoring, and then prevent the possibility of their resistance to electronic monitoring system.

Implement electronic monitoring with notifying employees, managers may strive to acquire commitment of employees with independent-self Besides, managers should

give employees of interdependent-self more concern and care, and substance support them to work hard to give them equal repay, or other substantial incentives. On the other hand, must ensure employees with interdependent-self feel that privacy is not invaded to assist in implementing electronic monitoring.

5.3   Research Limitations and Further Research

Although the given study may be useful in evaluating the factors of intentions of employees in central section of Taiwan area, it does not embrace other cities and towns in the rest of the country or other countries. Hence, further research could focus on investigating the data from other areas or countries.

Moreover, an overwhelming majority of respondents to this study are between 21 and 30 years old, which limit the representation of the population. Further research could be conducted among more senior citizens and the findings could be compared with those of the given study to identify any differences.

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Appendix A

Survey Questionnaire 1 (Advance Notice)

您好！我是東海大學企業管理研究所碩士班學生，目前在張榮庭老師的指導下，研究電子監控相關議題，為使本研究能反映業界狀況，希望您協助填答本問卷，共計五頁。您的意見有助於我們了解員工對公司電子監控系統的看法。

　　答案僅供學術研究分析之用，不會外流。感謝您的協助，我們在此致上最誠摯的謝意與祝福！非常感謝您在百忙中撥冗幫忙。

　　敬祝

　　　　鴻圖大展　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　東海大學企業管理研究所
　　　　平安順心

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　指導教授:張榮庭　博士
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　研究生:陳欣愉　敬上
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　國科會計劃編號 NSC100-2628-H-029-001-MY2

第一部分　基本資料

1. 請問 貴公司產業別：□顧問業 □傳統製造業(包含食品、塑膠、紡織…等產業)
　　　　　　　　　　　□醫療業 □教育業 □電子業 □金融保險業 □水電燃氣業
　　　　　　　　　　　□零售業 □服務業 □法律業 □媒體通訊業 □交通運輸業
　　　　　　　　　　　□資訊與高科技業 □一般商業與貿易業 □政府機關
　　　　　　　　　　　□消費品產業 □其他(請填寫)_____

2. 請問 貴公司員工人數約：□50 人以下 □51~100 人 □101~200 人 □201~500 人
　　　　　　　　　　　□501~1000 人 □1001~2000 人 □2001~5000 人 □5001 人以上

3. 請問您於 貴公司服務年資：□1~5 年 □6~10 年 □11~15 年 □16~20 年 □20 年以上

4. 請問您於現在產業服務年資：□1~5 年 □6~10 年 □11~15 年 □16~20 年 □20 年以上

5. 請問您服務的部門：□生產作業 □行銷企劃 □人力資源 □產品研發 □財務會計
　　　　　　　　　□資訊部門 □安全部門 □業務部門 □行政部門 □採購單位
　　　　　　　　　□稽核部門 □工程單位 □其他(請填寫)_____

6. 請問您的職位： □主管(包含基層、中階與高階主管) □非主管

7. 請問您的性別： □男性 □女性

8. 請問您的年齡： □20 歲以下 □21~25 歲 □26~30 歲 □31~35 歲 □36~40 歲
　　　　　　　　□41~45 歲 □46~50 歲 □51~55 歲 □56~60 歲 □61~65 歲

9. 請問您的教育程度：□國中及以下 □高中(職) □專科 □大學 □碩士 □博士

第二部分 電子監控系統

電子監控的種類包含 (1)電話：運用電腦來掌握通話次數及每次通話的精確時間。 (2)電子郵件：透過公司伺服器、關鍵字搜索及自然語言處理來儲存員工 e-mail 記錄，並定位與標記可疑的內容。 (3)視頻：即時或縮時錄影，記錄訊息後將訊息傳送至遠端電腦或監控站。 (4)擊鍵：員工鍵盤輸入和電腦的反應數據進行檢查或記錄。 (5)檔案存取：使用軟體監控員工硬碟，並取得員工的電腦檔案、螢幕畫面、瀏覽網頁與下載資料等。

如果公司某天**告知**你**將實施電子監控**，並加以說明公司實施電子監控的原因與目的，請依題意之描述加以預想並填答。請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常 不同意 ←			→	非常 同意
1. 在我的工作中使用電子監控，會促使我更快完成任務。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 使用電子監控會促使我有更好的工作表現。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 使用電子監控會促使我增加生產力。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 使用電子監控會促使我增強工作效能。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我覺得電子監控對我的工作是有用的。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 如果公司實施電子監控去追蹤員工的電腦活動，我會試著找方法來確保我不被監控。例如：變更我的電腦設定。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 如果公司實施電子監控，並且我知道如何躲避監控，我會告訴我的同事該怎麼做才能躲避。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會接受這個政策並不試著躲避監控。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會鼓勵我的同事接受這個政策並不試著躲避監控。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 如果公司實施電子監控，可以的話我會試著使用其他不被監控的電腦來代替。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 如果公司實施電子監控，可以的話我會鼓勵我的同事不要使用公司的系統，並使用其他的電腦來代替。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 如果公司實施電子監控，而我的同事試圖擾亂監控系統(例如：使用其他電腦或程式)，我會將這件事報告我的主管。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會和我的主管或負責此系統的部門嚴苛的討論這個系統。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會鼓勵我的同事去和他們的主管或負責此系統的部門抱怨這個系統。	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分 個人特質

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常 不同意 ← →				非常 同意
1. 我寧願直接說「不」，也不願意冒著被別人誤解我真正意思的風險。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 對我而言，和屬於同一團體中的人維持和諧的關係是很重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 在課堂上直接說出自己的看法，對我而言不是個問題。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 對我而言，擁有豐富的想像力是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 在一群人中，只有我一個人受到稱讚或獎勵時，我不會覺得彆扭。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 在公司的我和在家裡的我沒有什麼兩樣。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 如果我和上司共乘巴士，我會讓座給我的上司。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 在作生涯規劃時，我應該將父母的建議納入考慮。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 有能力自己照顧自己對我而言是最主要關心的。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我的快樂是建立在我周遭的人也快樂的基礎上。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 不論和誰相處，我都表現出相同的樣子。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 在初次見面之後，我很快就可以自然地稱呼對方的名字，即使對方的年紀比我大很多。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 和上司互動時，我會保持尊敬之心。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我常常覺得，我和他人的關係比我自己的成就還重要。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 為了我所屬團體的福祉，我會犧牲自己的利益。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 和剛認識的人相處時，我喜歡直來直往。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我尊敬謙虛的人。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 在許多方面，我喜歡有自己的特色並且與眾不同。	1	2	3	4	5
19. 即使我在這個團體中並不快樂，但如果他們需要我，我還是會留下來。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 對我而言，能夠擁有獨立於他人的自我認同（成為一個獨立於他人的個體），是非常重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
21. 如果我的兄弟或姊妹在某件事上失敗了，我覺得我也有責任。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 我覺得擁有良好的健康甚於其他一切事物。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 對我而言，尊重團體所做的決定是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
24. 即使我相當不同意團體成員的看法，我也會避免爭執。	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分 隱私信念

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
1. 當企業詢問我的個人資料時會令我困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 不管花多少成本，所有在電腦資料庫中的個人資料都應該被準確的重覆確認。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 企業不應該為任何目的使用個人資料，除非資料已被提供者授權。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 企業應該投入更多的時間和努力，以防止個人資料未經授權的取得。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 當企業要我提供個人資料時，我會三思而後行。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 企業應該採取更多步驟，以確保檔案中的個人資料是準確的。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 當人們因為某些原因提供個人資料給企業，該企業不應該因為任何其他的原因去使用那些資料。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 企業應該有更好的程序去校正個人資料裡的錯誤。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 不管花多少成本，那些有個人資料的電腦資料庫應該要被保護，防止未經授權的取得。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 提供個人資料給那麼多間企業會令我困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 企業不應該出售他們電腦資料庫中的個人資料給其他企業。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 企業應該投入更多的時間和努力，核對他們資料庫中個人資料的準確性。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 企業不應該與其他企業分享個人資料，除非資料已被提供者授權。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 企業應該採取更多步驟，以確保未經授權的人在他們的電腦中無法取得個人資料。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我不放心企業收集太多有關我的個人資料。	1	2	3	4	5

第五部分 知覺組織支持與組織信任

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
1. 我覺得公司重視我的貢獻和福利。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我覺得公司不賞識我任何額外的努力。	1	2	3	4	5

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
3. 我覺得公司忽略我的任何抱怨。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我覺得公司真的關心我的福利。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 即使我盡可能的做好我的工作,也不會引起公司的注意。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我覺得公司會關心我的工作滿意。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我覺得公司很少關心我。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我覺得公司對我的工作成就感到自豪。	1	2	3	4	5

請您再檢查一次是否全部填寫完畢,請避免漏填任何一題,

然後請將問卷黏妥後寄回,免貼郵票。

本問卷到此結束。非常感謝您的幫忙!

Appendix B

Survey Questionnaire 2 (Non Advance Notice)

您好！我是東海大學企業管理研究所碩士班學生，目前在張榮庭老師的指導下，研究電子監控相關議題，為使本研究能反映業界狀況，希望您協助填答本問卷，共計五頁。您的意見有助於我們了解員工對公司電子監控系統的看法。

答案僅供學術研究分析之用，不會外流。感謝您的協助，我們在此致上最誠摯的謝意與祝福！非常感謝您在百忙中撥冗幫忙。

敬祝

鴻圖大展　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　東海大學企業管理研究所
平安順心

指導教授:張榮庭　博士
研究生:陳欣愉　敬上
國科會計劃編號 NSC100-2628-H-029-001-MY2

第一部分　基本資料

1. 請問 貴公司產業別：□顧問業 □傳統製造業(包含食品、塑膠、紡織…等產業)
　　　　　　　　　　□醫療業 □教育業 □電子業 □金融保險業 □水電燃氣業
　　　　　　　　　　□零售業 □服務業 □法律業 □媒體通訊業 □交通運輸業
　　　　　　　　　　□資訊與高科技業 □一般商業與貿易業 □政府機關
　　　　　　　　　　□消費品產業 □其他(請填寫)_____

2. 請問 貴公司員工人數約：□50 人以下 □51~100 人 □101~200 人 □201~500 人
　　　　　　　　　　□501~1000 人 □1001~2000 人 □2001~5000 人 □5001 人以上

3. 請問您於 貴公司服務年資：□1~5 年 □6~10 年 □11~15 年 □16~20 年 □20 年以上

4. 請問您於現在產業服務年資：□1~5 年 □6~10 年 □11~15 年 □16~20 年 □20 年以上

5. 請問您服務的部門：□生產作業 □行銷企劃 □人力資源 □產品研發 □財務會計
　　　　　　　　　　□資訊部門 □安全部門 □業務部門 □行政部門 □採購單位
　　　　　　　　　　□稽核部門 □工程單位 □其他(請填寫)_____

6. 請問您的職位：　□主管(包含基層、中階與高階主管) □非主管

7. 請問您的性別：　□男性　□女性

8. 請問您的年齡：　□20 歲以下 □21~25 歲 □26~30 歲 □31~35 歲 □36~40 歲
　　　　　　　　　□41~45 歲　□46~50 歲 □51~55 歲 □56~60 歲 □61~65 歲

9. 請問您的教育程度：□國中及以下　□高中(職)　□專科　□大學　□碩士　□博士

第二部分 電子監控系統

電子監控的種類包含 (1)電話：運用電腦來掌握通話次數及每次通話的精確時間。 (2)電子郵件：透過公司伺服器、關鍵字搜索及自然語言處理來儲存員工 e-mail 記錄，並定位與標記可疑的內容。 (3)視頻：即時或縮時錄影，記錄訊息後將訊息傳送至遠端電腦或監控站。 (4)擊鍵：員工鍵盤輸入和電腦的反應數據進行檢查或記錄。 (5)檔案存取：使用軟體監控員工硬碟，並取得員工的電腦檔案、螢幕畫面、瀏覽網頁與下載資料等。

如果公司**並未**和你**提及任何**有關**公司內的電子監控系統**，請依題意之描述加以預想並填答。請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
1. 在我的工作中使用電子監控，會促使我更快完成任務。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 使用電子監控會促使我有更好的工作表現。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 使用電子監控會促使我增加生產力。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 使用電子監控會促使我增強工作效能。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我覺得電子監控對我的工作是有用的。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 如果公司實施電子監控去追蹤員工的電腦活動，我會試著找方法來確保我不被監控。例如：變更我的電腦設定。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 如果公司實施電子監控，並且我知道如何躲避監控，我會告訴我的同事該怎麼做才能躲避。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會接受這個政策並不試著躲避監控。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會鼓勵我的同事接受這個政策並不試著躲避監控。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 如果公司實施電子監控，可以的話我會試著使用其他不被監控的電腦來代替。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 如果公司實施電子監控，可以的話我會鼓勵我的同事不要使用公司的系統，並使用其他的電腦來代替。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 如果公司實施電子監控，而我的同事試圖擾亂監控系統(例如：使用其他電腦或程式)，我會將這件事報告我的主管。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會和我的主管或負責此系統的部門嚴苛的討論這個系統。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 如果公司實施電子監控，我會鼓勵我的同事去和他們的主管或負責此系統的部門抱怨這個系統。	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分　個人特質

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ←				→ 非常同意
1. 我寧願直接說「不」，也不願意冒著被別人誤解我真正意思的風險。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 對我而言，和屬於同一團體中的人維持和諧的關係是很重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 在課堂上直接說出自己的看法，對我而言不是個問題。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 對我而言，擁有豐富的想像力是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 在一群人中，只有我一個人受到稱讚或獎勵時，我不會覺得彆扭。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 在公司的我和在家裡的我沒有什麼兩樣。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 如果我和上司共乘巴士，我會讓座給我的上司。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 在作生涯規劃時，我應該將父母的建議納入考慮。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 有能力自己照顧自己對我而言是最主要關心的。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我的快樂是建立在我周遭的人也快樂的基礎上。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 不論和誰相處，我都表現出相同的樣子。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 在初次見面之後，我很快就可以自然地稱呼對方的名字，即使對方的年紀比我大很多。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 和上司互動時，我會保持尊敬之心。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我常常覺得，我和他人的關係比我自己的成就還重要。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 為了我所屬團體的福祉，我會犧牲自己的利益。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 和剛認識的人相處時，我喜歡直來直往。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我尊敬謙虛的人。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 在許多方面，我喜歡有自己的特色並且與眾不同。	1	2	3	4	5
19. 即使我在這個團體中並不快樂，但如果他們需要我，我還是會留下來。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 對我而言，能夠擁有獨立於他人的自我認同（成為一個獨立於他人的個體），是非常重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
21. 如果我的兄弟或姊妹在某件事上失敗了，我覺得我也有責任。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 我覺得擁有良好的健康甚於其他一切事物。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 對我而言，尊重團體所做的決定是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
24. 即使我相當不同意團體成員的看法，我也會避免爭執。	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分 隱私信念

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
1. 當企業詢問我的個人資料時會令我困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 不管花多少成本，所有在電腦資料庫中的個人資料都應該被準確的重覆確認。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 企業不應該為任何目的使用個人資料，除非資料已被提供者授權。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 企業應該投入更多的時間和努力，以防止個人資料未經授權的取得。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 當企業要我提供個人資料時，我會三思而後行。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 企業應該採取更多步驟，以確保檔案中的個人資料是準確的。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 當人們因為某些原因提供個人資料給企業，該企業不應該因為任何其他的原因去使用那些資料。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 企業應該有更好的程序去校正個人資料裡的錯誤。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 不管花多少成本，那些有個人資料的電腦資料庫應該要被保護，防止未經授權的取得。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 提供個人資料給那麼多間企業會令我困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 企業不應該出售他們電腦資料庫中的個人資料給其他企業。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 企業應該投入更多的時間和努力，核對他們資料庫中個人資料的準確性。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 企業不應該與其他企業分享個人資料，除非資料已被提供者授權。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 企業應該採取更多步驟，以確保未經授權的人在他們的電腦中無法取得個人資料。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我不放心企業收集太多有關我的個人資料。	1	2	3	4	5

第五部分 知覺組織支持與組織信任

請依據您實際情形來決定同意程度，勾選**最符合者**

	非常不同意 ← → 非常同意				
1. 我覺得公司重視我的貢獻和福利。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我覺得公司不賞識我任何額外的努力。	1	2	3	4	5

	非常 不同意 ◄──────►				非常 同意
3. 我覺得公司忽略我的任何抱怨。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我覺得公司真的關心我的福利。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 即使我盡可能的做好我的工作，也不會引起公司的注意。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我覺得公司會關心我的工作滿意。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我覺得公司很少關心我。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我覺得公司對我的工作成就感到自豪。	1	2	3	4	5

請您再檢查一次是否**全部填寫完畢**，請**避免漏填任何一題**，

然後請將問卷黏妥後寄回，免貼郵票。

本問卷到此結束。非常感謝您的幫忙！