Edited by
Doo Hun Lim · Seung Won Yoon · Daeyeon Cho

Human Resource Development in South Korea

Theory and Cases

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Preface

This edited book is a collaborative work accomplished by many researchers and practitioners who are serving on the Korea HRD SIG of the Academy of Human Resource Development. If we briefly introduce the nature and work of this organization, the Korea HRD SIG is a network of scholars and practitioners who are interested in the HRD research and practice of Korea as well as the larger and global audience of the AHRD. The purpose of the Korea HRD SIG is to provide opportunities for scholars and practitioners to network with each other for the advancement of Korea-specific HRD research, ultimately contributing to HRD worldwide. The Korea HRD SIG's vision is to be a research-focused community of practice for HRD researchers who have a genuine interest in connecting national and international HRD.

Specific goals of the Korean HRD SIG include: (a) contributing to the body of scholarly work on organizational and national HRD through rigorous research, (b) contributing to international HRD from the perspective of East Asian culture in general and Korean culture in particular, (c) forming a network of people for collaborative research among scholars and practitioners, and (d) developing partnerships with HRD practitioners and universities offering HRD programs in Korea to provide scholarly interactions, meetings, and project-partnership or teaching opportunities.

This edited book consists of 14 chapters in three major sections: national and social issues of HRD, sector perspectives on HRD, and contemporary issues and trends. This edited book includes collaborating authors' diverse expertise and up-to-date perspectives on the current state of HRD issues, topics, and trends within South Korean contexts. Proposed chapters cover major trends, notable distinctions, exemplary practices, and challenges and needs for preparing future HRD activities.

Norman, USA — Doo Hun Lim
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The original version of the book was revised: Author affiliation and Biography has been corrected. The correction to this book is available at https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-54066-1_15

Acknowledgments

This edited book is a by-product of ongoing and collaborative research efforts among Korean scholars majoring in HRD and sponsored by the Korea Special Interests Group (SIG) of the Academy of Human Resource Development. It is our intention to introduce various topics in HRD research and practice that are of great interest in private and public settings. We believe that this book will contribute to the development and validation of cross-national HRD theories and practices among many international scholars and provide numerous examples of how South Korean organizations are addressing and tackling workplace performance and organizational issues. We hope that this edited book will be a useful and meaningful resource for students majoring in HRD as they attempt to grasp the scope, needs, and impact of HRD research in a developing and developed country. We also hope that this edited book will be a useful resource for practitioners in organizations as they seek more creative solutions to address their training and performance needs. Finally, we express our sincere gratitude to all of the contributing authors for their endeavors to complete this book. Without their contributions, a holistic view on major trends, issues, resources, and future needs of HRD in a nation and deeper reflection on the connection to global HRD would not have been possible.

Contents

Notes on Contributors

Hyeon-Cheol Bong is Professor of Business Administration at Chonbuk National University, South Korea. He is also the former president of the Korea Action Learning Association (KALA). He worked as an HR professional at Hyundai Institute for HRD and first introduced action learning in Korea through a translation of action learning books (e.g., Marquardt, 1999). Since 2000, he has implemented action learning programs in many organizations and established the KALA in 2005. His research interest centers on the implementation of action learning in organizations such as Samsung Electronics and Hyundai Oilbank and with the office of the President of Korea at the Blue House. He has published articles on action learning in Korean journals including "An exploratory study of key success factors of action learning in South Korean companies" (Bong, 2007). He is a board member of the Korean Academy of Organization and Management and the Korean Association for Training and Development. He serves on the editorial board of the Action Learning: Research and Practice journal. He received his Ph.D. in HRM from Regensburg University in Germany.

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PART I

National and Social Issues of HRD

CHAPTER 1

Themes and Trends of HRD Research in the South Korean

Doo Hun Lim, Seung Won Yoon, and Daeyeon Cho

Introduction

A key issue for many countries is building up the human and social capital of the nation and developing change agencies that will undertake societal human resource development (HRD) initiatives to overcome workforce challenges. This research theme is critical as more organizations and countries attempt to increase their competitiveness to survive in today's ever-changing global business environment (Farinha, Nunes, Ferreira, & Fernandes, 2018; Florida, 2006). To be competitive, governmental agencies in many countries have established supportive national policies to increase nationwide manpower and human resource potential.

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As South Korea transitions from a developing to developed country, it has been an exemplar nation that continuously improves its HRD practices and national-level HRD policies.

Like many Asian countries, South Korea has been significantly influenced by Confucianism and Buddhism (Lee, 2009), but especially over the last four decades, it has also adopted traditions from western cultures with Christianity traditions. As such, the societal and spiritual color of South Korea is mixed between that of the East and the West. This intertwined cultural ethos has infiltrated many organizational and workplace cultures and employees' work ethic. It has also influenced HRD norms and practices. This history of the national and organizational environment has formed the current landscape of HRD systems and practices of South Korean organizations. The country's rapid economic advancement and global reach of pop arts and culture has also continued to draw global interest as South Korean organizations develop human resources.

The contemporary development of HRD theories and practices in South Korea started in the 1990s (Lee, Chang, & Kim, 2011), which coincided with the nation's first economic crisis and rapid organizational transformation, followed by globalization of many private-sector firms. Simultaneously, the development of national policies of HRD has been strategically pursued to meet the diverse societal, national, and organizational human performance needs, which has spurred the growth of HRD research and practice in South Korea (Oh, Ryu, & Choi, 2013).

In understanding HRD in South Korea, as one of the fastest growing countries economically in the world, we believe readers of this edited book will benefit from the specific and exemplary uses of HRD policies, theories, interventions, and cases. More specifically, some of the book chapters address topical agendas focusing on the roles of national HRD and its interconnectedness with local- and organizational-level HRD policies and practices. To cover contemporary trends and future issues, the authors present topics in diverse areas, such as the application of data analytics for HRD, action learning trends, and psychological and work climate issues affecting performance. Chapters also cover critical topics such as women leadership and North Korean defectors that have gained considerable attention from diverse audiences domestically and internationally.

HRD graduate students, international and cross-cultural HRD scholars, and practitioners will have access to rich cases of how HRD can be successful at the organization, industry, and societal levels. The South

Korean government has played a major role in starting and guiding HRD investment through policies and partnerships. For example, the aging workforce in South Korea has had a significant impact on HRD policy development at the national and local levels and also for private-sector HRD practices, in general. After covering these national and social topics, the next section shows how HRD has been practiced in manufacturing, corporate HRD functions, and government and industry collaborations. The last section covers contemporary issues, challenges, and future needs to further advance HRD in the nation.

Major Themes of HRD in South Korea

This edited book consists of 14 chapters in three major sections: national and social issues of HRD, sector perspectives on HRD, and contemporary issues and trends. This edited book represents the collaborating authors' diverse expertise and presents up-to-date perspectives on the current state of HRD issues, topics, and trends in the South Korean context. The following sections provide abbreviated descriptions of the fourteen chapters and the implications for research and practice.

HRD Research Trends in South Korea

The titles in this book demonstrate the variety of topics illustrating the broad scope, contexts, and interdisciplinary nature of HRD. The topics address HRD issues and examples in South Korea in terms of national HRD, the aging workforce, HRD in small to medium size enterprises (SMEs), development of North Korean defectors, authentic leadership and agility, corporate universities, government and private sector collaboration, HR/people analytics, women leaders' voices, action learning, positive organizational behaviors, biased judgment, and more importantly, how lessons learned can apply in other settings or in the future. The last chapter also describes the most recent landscape of HRD research in the country capturing core HRD research areas, key scholars, and their connections and collaboration. The authors were asked to share how their topics illustrate the current state of HRD and what is necessary for future applications. Thus, the chapters are a compilation that include both insights and foresights of major achievements in the field capturing both the past and present.

South Korea is truly a remarkable country to study HRD practice and research. In terms of practice, people from outside South Korea recognize that continuous investment in people has been the single most important reason for South Korea's rapid economic success and leading global market position in various sectors. It started with industrial manufacturing in the 1970s moving from electronics, automobiles, and information technology in the 1990's to the most recent increase in the global popularity of South Korean culture called the Korean Wave including K-drama and K-pop. These trends have also brought about rapid changes and complexity in organizational management and HR systems as well as social norms. However, the landscape of HRD research seems to be less well-known. As an academic discipline, South Korea is somewhat unique in that the number of academic HRD programs at universities and the number of journal publications have continuously grown. The number of HRD academic programs and curricula in South Korea is unique compared to other countries (Lim & Cho, 2015), and South Korean HRD scholars in the U.S. constitute the largest ethnic scholar group representing an impressive 30% of all peer-refereed sessions at the annual Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) conference in the Americas. These statistics tell us that whether as a leading guide or practice, research has been side-by-side with HRD practices in South Korea to validate the investment and improvement of HRD. Given this backdrop, by including the broad scope of HRD work and the need to capture the best take-aways from this edited book, our goal is to capture the important work of core agencies to make HRD work impactful and meaningful at various levels.

Government as a Central Player and Partner of the HRD Ecosystem

Our discussion on the role of government in HRD is not meant to claim its universal importance. Every country is different in terms of gubernatorial structure and operation. Instead, we highlight the HRD issues within the public domain that are above and beyond the control of any single organization or institution, let alone individuals. It is also important to recognize that the birth of HRD as a legitimate field of practice in South Korea came from the government's creation of economic development policies to invest in industrial manufacturing and provide training programs to increase the number of skilled managers and employees (Yoon, Lim, & Cho, 2015).

The first two sections in this book present numerous examples of laws, policies, and assistance programs the South Korean government has created and implemented. The distinctive contributions to the field include identifying national and societal priorities (e.g., increasing access to lifelong and on-demand learning in view of the growing service industry, Chapter 2), institutionalizing support services for senior workers (Chapter 3) and North Korean defectors (Chapter 5), and assisting SMEs with training and subsidy programs (Chapter 4) and internationalization efforts (Chapter 8). These initiatives have been made possible because of concrete governmental policies and partnerships.

Core Functions and Roles: Emphasis on Interventions and Impacts

The chapters also highlight how core functions and activities of HRD work. The focus is on improving system performance through learning and the development of people, leading to positive and tangible changes for individuals, organizations, and society. For instance, the three action learning cases in Chapter 12 illustrate how an approach that integrates authentic project actions with team-level learning could effectively address the goal of participating members in higher education, industry, and citizenship education settings. Chapter 8 illustrates how individual-focused work-and-learning interventions sponsored by multiple entities have addressed the talent shortage of SMEs. HRD work that exemplifies why individual initiatives and transformation are also critical. For instance, leaders' authenticity is the driving force for establishing workplace agility and change-oriented behaviors (Chapter 6). Diversity and inclusion are also topics of growing interest worldwide. Scholars and visionary leaders recognize that these topics are of strategic importance to draw talent and compete based on deeper principles of societal causes and value alignment. In addition to the work about the government's efforts to help North Korean defectors, Chapter 10 shares how gender equality and work-family life balance could improve through woman leaders' conscious resistance to social norms that favor men in the workplace. These efforts call for the support of supervising leaders and an organizational culture with supportive policies.

The authors aptly point out that although the presented cases show the efficacy and value of HRD work, future work could be more effective, particularly through more effective system collaboration and scientific measurements. For instance, in Chapter 8, Kim and colleagues point out how the lack of formal partnerships between the Korean Ministry of Unification and about 300 NGOs helping North Korean defectors are too narrow because the programs focus largely on initial employment. They emphasize that assistance and assessment efforts should also include workplace adjustment to address the high turnover rate in the first year. Similarly, two chapters focusing on SMEs and woman leaders point out how training/education and recognition programs are managed by different ministries and the programs often overlap. The duplication of work and confusion should be addressed in the future.

Contemporary Issues and Needs

Finally, topics such as agile work (Chapter 6), talent development (Chapters 7 and 8), digital transformation and globalization (Chapter 4), and data analytics (Chapter 9) reflect important trends and pressing workplace needs. These topics highlight the need to apply more rigorous and appropriate conceptual frameworks as well as more effective research designs and analyses. In Chapter 11, Joo claims that the dominant paradigm of HRD work has been a problem-fixing and performance-improving mindset. By applying positive psychology frameworks at the individual, group, and organizational levels, HRD can and should balance the various needs to improve both the well-being and performance of employees. In a similar vein, in Chapter 13, Lee presents numerous cases to illustrate how leaders' judgment and decision making have the innate tendency to confirm their comfortable yet narrow-minded beliefs. Exposing these assumptions to research evidence can help bridge and advance research and practice. We often joke that from the outside, the organizational culture seems to be a joyful comedy, but when examined from within, it is a rich drama. South Korea is frequently complimented in the media for its positive HRD investments such as its strong IT infrastructure and highly educated employees, but then unexpected national security threats are repeatedly reported on the next day. This chapter explains South Korea's history of dealing with geo-political tensions among powerful countries, including the U.S., Japan, China, and Russia. It aptly highlights that macro-level environments affect the role of government and the perception, culture, and social norms of individuals. Thus, both careful consumption of media and cultural understanding are important.

Learning and working in the current workplace and society indicate how and why traditional approaches of designing and measuring HRD work that separates learning from work will no longer be tolerated. In Chapter 9, Yoon and colleagues explain how large, global South Korean conglomerates started implementing data analytics in various areas, such as leader assessments, a digital learning platform focusing on self-directed learning, knowledge exchange and social learning. They also describe how the processes and approaches of applying data analytics are not yet standardized. HR professionals in pursuit of analytical approaches also need to address the need for organizational support and buy-in. Chapter 7 by Kwon and Kim also describes how data analytics is an important key for managing organizational talent and integrating learning with work through thought experiments.

Using author profiling analysis and the last 10 years of journal articles published in the four major HRD related journals in the country, Cho and Park present core areas of HRD research in South Korea. The topics include training, career development, organizational development, NHRD, community/lifelong learning, competency improvement, e-learning, HRD evaluation, HRD solutions, mentoring and coaching, and leadership. Their chapter clearly captures the broad HRD research topics, the changing trends, and nature of current research interest. They also include the weaknesses and demands, such as participation from and more collaboration with scholars in other countries, and research agendas that need to respond to dynamic shifts in society.

HRD Practice Trends in South Korea

Transformation of Corporate HRD Institutes and Centers

With the significant growth of industries in South Korea over the last few decades, HRD institutes and centers of large- and medium-sized enterprises in business sectors have played significant roles in systematically developing training programs and providing proactive HRD solutions. These initiatives have resulted in South Korean companies' increased talent competitiveness and eventually becoming one of the top 10 largest economies. However, depending only on corporate HRD centers for the development of human capital in organizations is limiting.

The chapters in this book illustrate how rapidly the Korean workplace and environment have changed (e.g., increasing older workers in the workplace in Chapter 3; effects of the coronavirus (COVID-19) crisis on global manufacturing companies in Chapter 6). These challenges call for transformative approaches for South Korean corporates' HRD centers and novel and strategic HRD solutions. Chapter 7 emphasizes that corporate universities (HRD centers) should integrate both formal and informal workplace learning, which, in turn, will promote the development of firm-specific human capital strategies. Chapter 2 also suggests strategic non-formal and informal learning opportunities for older workers to retain job-related knowledge and skills. Chapter 7 also focuses on HRD centers' facilitative role as a key success factor for action learning. In addition to performing existing roles and functions, such as offering traditional training programs, HRD centers are strongly advised to consider an expansion of their roles (e.g., increasing the role of organizational learning and developing managers as learning leaders in the workplace).

Importance of Leadership and the Leader's Roles

In the era of the 4th industrial revolution, characterized by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity, it is imperative to develop leaders' competencies and abilities to influence the strategic decision making of organizations. Although the authors in each chapter describe a variety of topics and challenges focusing on different facets of HRD, several chapters highlight the importance of leadership (or leader's roles) for organizations, and challenge leaders to move to the next level by creating new opportunities for employees.

Chapter 6 emphasizes that a team leader's authentic leadership and agility are more important in global manufacturing companies. Chapter 10 particularly notes that female workers' supervisors should have more supportive reactions when female workers, who are often discriminated in the gendered workplace, resist organizational norms and practices. Chapter 11 explores the link between positive organizational behavior and leadership by presenting how leadership perspectives (e.g., authentic, empowering leadership) influence the process of creating positive environment for employees. In Chapter 13, the authors also highlight leaders' role in designing and implementing interventions that lessen people's confirmation bias and in offering all available information that could influence people's decision making.

Challenges and New Needs of HRD in Diverse Sectors

HRD spans various fields and areas in South Korean society and should be implemented in a way that benefits a variety of human resources in different sectors of society. Thus, in this edited book, our discussion of the practical aspects of HRD in South Korea is not only limited to HRD issues related to a business sector and people in dominant groups, but it also includes HRD issues related to disadvantaged groups.

In Chapter 2, for instance, the authors discuss conceptual and practical topics at the national level of HRD. South Korean government-led national human resource development (NHRD) has created successful practices for vocational and life-long education, which also have many implications for developing countries. However, rapid changes in South Korean industries and digital transformation now call for a paradigm shift in South Korean NHRD. In Chapter 5, the authors pay particular attention to a minority group, North Korean defectors, who struggle with workforce adjustment in South Korea. The authors highlight the need for context-specific (e.g., individual and social contexts) vocational training programs that enable marginalized workers to effectively develop job-related skills and find jobs. To tackle these challenges and accommodate the new needs of national-level HRD, HRD interventions (e.g., work-learning dual system in Chapter 8) and new HR analytical approaches (e.g., Chapter 9) should be applied and tested in various organizational and industry settings.

Conclusions and Implications

This edited book is a byproduct of ongoing and collaborative research efforts among Korean scholars majoring in HRD and sponsored by the Korea Special Interests Group (SIG) of the Academy of Human Resource Development. It is our intention to introduce various topics in HRD research and practice that are of great interest in private and public organizational settings. We believe this book will contribute to the development and validation of cross-national HRD theories and practices among many international scholars and provide numerous examples of how South Korean organizations are struggling to address workplace performance and organizational issues. We hope that this edited book will be a useful and meaningful resource for students majoring in HRD as they attempt to grasp the impact of contemporary HRD themes and issues in a developing and developed country. We also hope that this edited book will be a useful resource for practitioners in organizations as they seek more creative solutions to address their training and performance needs. Finally, we express our sincere gratitude to all of the contributing authors for their endeavors to complete this book. Without their contributions, the book would not address the ongoing interests our scholarly community.

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CHAPTER 2

National Human Resource Development in Korea

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Introduction

NHRD is the official term for the National Human Resource Development. It has been used since the Korean government's use of the term in 2001. The term and its concepts were introduced in the "1st Basic Plan for National Human Resource Development" (Korean Government, 2001). The basic national human resource development plan is to empower the nation to become the main body that plans all policy areas related to the national HRD. It is a strategic plan that systemizes the government's various resources in policymaking to set and achieve the country's goals: a policy that has a comprehensive planning power

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covering education, training, research and development, employment, welfare, and various industrial sectors.

The term Vocational Education and Training (VET) was commonly used before the term NHRD was introduced in Korea. While the history of the VET can be traced back to 1899 (KRIVET, 1998), the national framework for the VET was not completed until 1967. Thus, the research on the VET history considers the introduction period of the Korean VET as 1967–1974. The effect of the VET on national economic development was significant. According to Lee and Song (2005), the quality of labor increased annually by 0.57 from 1970 to 2001, accounting for 12.3% of the total labor inputs. As excellent human resources are often credited as the main cause of the economic development in Korea, the tendency to develop the HR at the national level remains strong.

The Korean government announced the Basic Act on Human Resource Development in 2002 to strengthen the basic plans for the NHRD. According to the Act, the basic HRD plan should include the following: the establishment of the infrastructure for the development of the major human resources by the relevant administrative agencies, the development of the major human resources by the private sector, the efficient management and operation of the human resources by the state and local governments, the management of the human resources-related information, and the prospect of mid- to long-term manpower supply. Basically, the Korean NHRD can be seen as the HRD, usually adopted by companies, expanded to a nationwide scale.

According to the Basic Act on the HRD, the NHRD is a broader concept than the human capital at the economic level. In the NHRD, the HR is not just a labor-level production component, but a comprehensive quality that includes not only knowledge and skills but also abstract values such as morality (Baik, 2006). The NHRD is the government's policy efforts to contribute to national economic and social development as well as to enhance national competitiveness by improving the abilities of every citizen through education and training. The NHRD can be seen as a sign of efforts to efficiently utilize the available manpower at the national level. These efforts include strengthening the link between the education and training markets and the labor market, providing career and employment counseling services, supplying education, occupation and labor market information, and endorsing career management policies for individual citizens.

Influenced by the history of and the experiences with the Basic Act on NHRD and the NHRD in Korea, the Korean NHRD activities are focused on vocational training and education. In addition, the focus is on the establishment of a system that supports the operation of training and education. However, various inequalities such as income disparity and digital divide are emerging as Korea's core industries are gradually moving on to become knowledge-based ones. To overcome this social phenomenon, a lifelong education has become important in Korea (Park & Kim, 2016). For the majority of the adult population, the knowledge they obtained during their school years is often insufficient for navigating through the rapidly changing era. Thus, the Korean government has set lifelong education as one of the national education policies to encourage lifelong learning. Against this backdrop, the Korean government is changing its policy stance toward establishing a linkage system for "learning-employment-welfare" (Kim, Choi, & Ha, 2019). This change calls for finding opportunities for a self-directed life through simultaneous management of learning and growth in various areas of individuals' lives, in harmony with the evolving era and industries. Recently, the Korean government has selected the "lifelong learning account system" as a major national agenda in the field of lifelong education and has begun full-fledged preparations.

Thus, in order to explore the Korean NHRD, we will examine not only the policies, projects, and achievements in the field of traditional vocational training and vocational education but also those of lifelong learning. After examining each of the three areas, the analysis of the Korean NHRD will be concluded with an integrated discussion.

Vocational Education in South Korea

Historical Overview of Vocational Education

In the late nineteenth century, modern vocational education started as a school system in Korea. Established in 1886, *Yugyeong Gonwon*, Korea's first modern public institute, introduced agriculture as an official curriculum for the first time in Korea. Under the Enforcement Decree and Enforcement Regulations of vocational school promulgated in 1909, the operation of schools was divided into three categories: agricultural, industrial, and commercial schools (Lee, 2004). However, the modern vocational education system was not fully established until the 1960s because of the Japanese colonial era (1910–1945) and the Korean War (1950).

Since the 1960s, Korea has marked a considerable change in vocational education. By the late 1960s, especially due to the change of industrial structure and the shift from the light to heavy industry, the demand for the skilled labor force exploded. The Korean government placed an emphasis on vocational high school to secure qualified workers. From the 1960s to the 1970s, the government made intensive investments in the secondary vocational education while vocational high schools played a vital role in supplying qualified workers who were essential to the economic growth.

During the 1980s and 1990s, the industrial structure of Korea entered the second phase of the shift. In the context of technology-intensive industries, the government emphasized the cultivation of high-skilled workers. Accordingly, opportunities for higher education gradually expanded. It thus affected the emergence and expansion of the vocational education after high school. An educational reform which was announced on May 31, 1995, contained the overall restructuring across the entire education sector. For vocational education, an emphasis was put on "lifelong education," driving the policy to focus on effective measures to allow vocational high school graduates to study while working. After 1995, led by the Kim administration and then by the Park administration, Korea witnessed various policies that improved the quality of vocational education, as shown in Table 2.1. In the 2000s, Korea made an effort to improve the quality of vocational education in the new economic and social environment. As a result, vocational education experienced several important procedures.

First, the Korean government made efforts to diversify the operating system of vocational education at an upper secondary level. In Korea, the secondary vocational education institutes were a part of the formal schooling system, allowing the Ministry of Education (MoE) as well as metropolitan and provincial education offices to play a leading role in establishing schools, reorganizing and operating education, placing teachers, and supporting school financing. In 2013, eight government departments started to support 201 schools.

Second, under the *Lee, Myung-bak* administration, the main agenda of vocational education was "Employment first, Advancement to university later." In this context, the government fully supported vocational high schools in terms of financing and strengthening the network between the

Table 2.1 Major policies in vocational education by the government

Kim, Dae-jung Administration (1998–2002)	– Establish a vocational education system to meet the demands of knowledge-based and lifelong learning society – Shift the system and improve the support by policy to allow students to work while advancing to the university according to the departure of vocational high school education from an educational dead end
Roh, Moo-hyun Administration (2003–2007)	– Ensure the internal stability of vocational education and strengthen career guidance – Expand opportunities for skill development through the link between learning and working
Lee, Myung-bak Administration (2008–2012)	– Reorganize vocational high schools as specialized vocational high school – Establish "employment first, Advancement to University later" system – Support the employment of vocational high school graduates – Establish Meister high schools that provide intensive industry-specific vocational education
Park, Geun-hye Administration	– Focus on "Ability-oriented society" which emphasizes an individual's ability instead of the academic backgrounds – Develop and implement "National Competency Standard" in overall vocational education and training system including a national curriculum of vocational high school – Establish a "Korean style dual system" which adopts an apprenticeship scheme

Source Authors

educational institutes and industry. Further, this government newly introduced special-purpose high schools tailored to meet the industrial demand (hereinafter referred to as "Meister high schools") in order to establish an intensive school-based vocational education system.

Third, during the Park Geun-hye administration, a major contribution to the vocational education was the development and implementation of the National Competency Standard (NCS). The introduction of the NCS meant that the country standardized the skills (including knowledge, technology, and attitude) required to successfully perform its functions at the national level. The knowledge, expertise, and attitude would be required to complete the tasks of the job provided by an industrial sector.

To strengthen the linkage of work, education, training, and qualifications, the government made efforts to develop and operate the curriculums of education and training and to disseminate the manuals through utilizing the NCS.

Current Status of Vocational Education

Basic Information

In Korea's current system, which is a single track, 6-3-3-4(2) system, high schools and junior colleges provide vocational education. High schools are divided into two types: vocational high schools as a terminal education and general high schools as a path to advancement to the university education. Currently, there are two types of high schools that focus on secondary vocational education: specialized vocational high schools and Meister high schools. At the time when there was a discussion on educational reform which would diversify vocational education in high schools, the concept of specialized high schools emerged (Commission of Education Reform, 1992). Specialized high schools were established with the aim of training students who wished to seek a career for their aptitude and an education system which would equip them with expertise in specific fields (Korean Education Development Institute, 2013). With the goal of establishing the leading model of vocational high schools, Meister high schools were introduced and classified as a special-purpose high school under the current school system. The purpose of Meister high schools is to operate curricula that directly link with the demands of specific industry sectors under Article 91 (2) of the Enforcement Decree of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Thus, Meister high schools are aimed at operating curricula that fulfill the specialized industrial needs of promising fields and at nurturing young Meisters who meet the demands of the labor market by connecting the employment of the students to the industrial fields. As of 2013, an enrollment of 15,728 students attended a total of 34 schools, and the proportion of total female students was 14.4% (Table 2.2).

Curriculum

Secondary vocational education institutes in Korea are required to organize and operate a vocational education curriculum that reflects the demands of a regional labor market within the framework of the national curriculum. The Ministry of Education announces the standards for

Table 2.2 Vocational education in the general education system

Classification	Number of schools	Number of students
Elementary school	5,913	2,784,000
Middle school	3,173	1,804,189
High school	2,322(100%)	1,893,303(100%)
General school	1,525(65.7%)	1,356,070(71.6%)
Special-purpose high school*	168(7.2%)	67,099(3.5%)
Meister high school	34(1.5%)	15,728(0.8%)
Specialized high school	494(21.3%)	320,374(16.9%)
Specialized vocational high school	470(20.2%)	317,445(16.8%)
Autonomous high school	165(7.1%)	149,760(7.9%)
Size of vocational education in high school	504(21.7%)	333,173(17.6%)

Source Korea Educational Developmental Institute (2013)

the national curriculum, and the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education prepare the guidelines for organizing/operating the regional education curriculum. Each school organizes/operates the school education curriculum, and teachers lead the classes according to the annual teaching/learning plan. However, vocational education institutes have the authority to autonomously organize/operate subjects by reflecting the characteristics of the school as well as the needs of the industries and students.

Teachers

In Korea, the teacher system is stipulated under the laws and regulations in terms teachers' qualifications, training, and recruitment. In the case of teachers who are responsible for teaching and learning in classes, they are granted a credential in a specific subject along with the teacher's certificate, depending upon what subjects they can teach. A teacher in vocational education at the secondary level, in a narrow sense, is a teacher in charge of specialized subjects (vocational subjects), meaning a regular or assistant teacher who is qualified to teach vocational subjects with a credential in the subject. In Korea, the training of the secondary education teachers is organized based on the two types of systems: first, a college of education or the department of education in the general college/university, and second, a teacher training course in the regular college/university. Also, for vocational teachers, there are various short-term training programs that are related pedagogy and industry-specific knowledge and skills.

Achievements and Limitations

Korean vocational education made several achievements. First, since 2010, the Korean government has tried to reform the system toward employment-centered vocational high schools. In particular, after the establishment of "Policy for the advancement of vocational high school (2010)," vocational high school was reorganized as a specialized vocational high school with a focus on a specific industry. In this context, the employment rate of the vocational high schools rapidly increased with the introduction of Meister high schools.

Second, Meister high school has been recognized as a successful vocational educational model. Established in 2010, the network of Meister Schools is specifically designed to prepare the youth to work in high-skilled manufacturing jobs. They also seek to encourage a higher sense of social status for such positions. Students enjoy free tuition and are referred to as young "Meisters"—a German term for a master craftsman. The first year of Meister Schools focuses on the basics (including computer literacy, global manner, workplace etiquette, and foreign languages) and fundamentals of industrial knowledge such as new media contents, energy, machinery, mechatronics, and telecommunications, among many others. In the second and third years, they choose a specialty and spend most of their time practicing their newly acquired skills. They subsequently participate in internships and fieldworks, which can lead to a job offer as early as the end of their first year. They graduate with an equivalence of two years' work and/or community college experience.

Third, the Korean government has tried various policies to promote the smooth school-to-work transition. In addition to the Meister high school model, extended vocational education policies such as "Korean style dual system" and "NCS (National Competency Standard)" were actively implemented in the context of vocational high schools and colleges.

Along with these achievements, there are still some limitations to be addressed. There are high needs to strengthen demand-driven approaches based on coherent school-industry cooperation in the vocational education. Also, there are strong needs for overcoming cultural preference of emphasizing the secondary education as a system that prioritizes university entrance examinations.

Vocational Training in South Korea

History of Vocational Training in Korea: Governance, Projects, Achievements and Limitations

Governance, Policy, Laws and Regulations

Vocational training governance was able to meet the demand and to empower stakeholders and institutions to interact directly with the related with those involve. The Labor Administration was launched in 1963, followed by its regional offices which were established in 1974 (MOEL, 2018). The administration was promoted to the “Ministry of Labor” in 1981 and was renamed as the “Ministry of Employment and Labor” under the revised Government Organization Act in 2010. Under the Ministry of Labor, there were regional labor offices and employment support centers. In addition, vocational training was conducted in the vocational training institutions. The vocational training institutions were categorized as either public or private institutions. The representative public institutions were the Korea Vocational Training Management Corporation established in 1982 and Korea Polytechnic Colleges. The Korea Vocational Training Management Corporation acquired the National Central Vocational Training Center from the Ministry of Labor in June 1982 and launched the Skills Development Centers in 24 Training Centers in November 1982 (HRDK, 2017). The Korea Polytechnic Colleges were evenly distributed across the country. Korea Polytechnic Colleges produced human resources focusing on the traditional manufacturing industry in the past. Moreover, the Institution for Vocational Training Instructors was established. Subsequently, the Korea University of Technology and Education was established in 1992, which was a four-year university to develop vocational training instructors. The university not only developed instructors in training institutions but also provided short-term courses for trainers (license and improvement courses) as well as graduate courses and advanced courses for vocational training experts (Ra, 2013).

A unique feature of the development of Korea’s vocational training was an alignment of the economic development strategy (Ko & Park, 2013; Ra, 2013). As part of the successive Five-year Economic Development Plans, the Economic Planning Board (EPB) instituted a manpower planning system at a national level and undertook major updates of this system every five years. The Ministry of Labor was responsible for setting policies for the vocational training system according to the economic policy (Ko & Park, 2013).

As the Korean government-initiated a government-led vocational training system, the Central Vocational Training Center and public training institutions were established to train new technicians. To develop the technicians with a government initiative, the Vocational Training Act was enacted in 1967. Also, the Special Measures for Vocational Training Act and Act on the Establishment of Vocational Training Promotion Fund were enacted, respectively, in 1974 and 1976. To develop human resources such as multi-skilled, middle, and advanced technical experts, a public training institution was established and strengthened their roles: Korea Vocational Training Management Corporation was established in 1982, and Korea National University of Technology and Education was opened in 1992. As the industrial structure was changed to service the industry in the 1990s, the Employment Insurance Act was enforced in 1995. Employment Insurance played a role as a social safety net. Additionally, the Vocational Training Act was abolished, and the Vocational Training Promotion Act was enacted in 1999. Then, the autonomous implementation of vocational training in companies was promoted by eliminating the mandatory vocational training system in the business. Further, the vocational training teacher license system was converted into a qualification system.

Projects

Government subsidies were provided for corporate vocational training according to the Vocational Training Act and the Obligation System of In-Service Training (or Training Levy System). According to the Act, companies are obligated to provide training for employees or bear an applicable share of the expenses. The Act supported rapid economic growth with a government-led initiative in the 1970s and promoted improved investments in manpower training businesses (Ra, 2013). In the late 1980s, in-service training for employees became an important factor for the stable growth of the company.

As service industrialization accelerated in the 1990s, the government abolished the Obligation System of In-Service Training and integrated it into the Employment Insurance System (Vocational Competency Development Program of Employment Insurance) with the Employment Insurance Act in 1995. With momentum from the Asian Financial Crisis, Korea's vocational training system actively provided a number of training programs to people who lost their jobs. The Employment Insurance System was highlighted to increase the efficiency of vocational training systems. The system functioned as an effective social safety net to decrease unemployment and improve employability for all employees including the incumbent and vulnerable workers (Ra, 2013).

Achievements and Limitations

The Korean vocational training had been integrated into Korea's economic development strategy since the elaboration of the first Five-Year Economic Development Plan in 1962. The vocational training system was recognized as one of the successful cases of a government-led policy for obligating companies to conduct vocational training programs and making employers participate as partners (Ra, 2013). The introduction of a levy system encouraged corporations to train employees by increasing partnerships between employers and trainers. The levy system was changed to the Employment Insurance System in 1995 and created a dedicated fund; the government offered grants for training to firms and unemployed individuals (Ko & Park, 2013). Public and private training institutions could provide training.

As the economy grew, the emphasis of vocational training shifted from the new recruits to the existing employees to help upgrade their skills. Government-subsidized private training in the early phase (from the 1960s through 1976) drove the vocational training system at the beginning, moving on to government-led public training in the next phase, and then to a private-led system participated by voluntary firms and supported by the government (Ko & Park, 2013). However, individuals had limited selections for the training they needed due to the approach of the vocational training system. Moreover, although the necessity of employer-provided training was fully recognized, business owners and workers still required an innovative strategy to resolve the constraints of time, money, and space.

Current State of Vocational Training in Korea: Governance, Projects, Achievements, and Limitations

Governance, Policy, Laws and Regulations

Since the mid-2000s, Korea has been facing a deepening social polarization due to the following factors: a low economic growth rate, a low employment rate, declining economic conditions, a low birth rate, and the aging population. These factors required increased support for small and medium-sized enterprises, as well as for other vulnerable groups. In this context, the Ministry of Employment and Labor (MOEL) became responsible for "overall employment policies, employment insurance, vocational competency development training, labor standards, and other matters of employment and labor" (MOEL, 2018, p. 15).

In addition, governance was reorganized to adopt an innovative market-friendly delivery system of vocational training. The "Human Resources Development Service of Korea (HRD Korea)" was specialized in supporting lifelong learning of workers and providing various services to small and medium enterprises, and non-regular workers. The HRD Korea supported "the development, evaluation, and utilization of human resources to raise the values of people and workplaces, such as support of lifelong competency development, management of national qualification test, foreigner employment support, overseas employment promotion, and skill encouragement, to contribute to the development of the national economy and promotion the Korean people's welfare" (HRD Korea, 2017). The "Korea Polytechnics (KOPO)" dramatically expanded training systems for small- and medium-sized enterprises and vulnerable groups while introducing a Factory Learning System to meet local and industrial demands. The KOPO offers customer-oriented programs in 2020: degree programs, non-degree vocational training programs, unemployed vocational training programs, and improvement programs (KOPO, 2020). Further, the "Korea University of Technology and Education" is an HRD training and re-education institution that developed short- and long-term training models for the HRD workforce of small and medium enterprises, university instructors, and vocational high school teachers.

Korean government sought to shift vocational training from the government-led to the privately operated system as the industrial structure and consumer demand became increasingly complicated as the country entered the knowledge-based economy. In 2005, the Vocational Training Promotion Act was fully amended to support the development of various vocational competencies, including the autonomous training of workers as well as vocational training by employers. In 2007, the "1st Basic Plan for the Development of Lifelong Vocational Ability" was prepared and promoted the improvement of the vocational competencies of both the vulnerable to employment and incumbent workers who are limited opportunities to improve their job ability. The paradigm of the vocational ability development policy was also shifted to enhance the quality of professional human resource development services. It focused on small and medium-sized enterprises and temporary workers as well as on performance-oriented, market-friendly support instead of government-centered protection and regulation.

Projects

In 2008, the training account system named "*Naeil Baeum* Card" System (translated to "Learn for Tomorrow" Card System) was introduced in order to convert the government-regulated supply and demand system into autonomous vocational ability development centered on consumers. The *Naeil Baeum* Card System is designed to enable the unemployed to select suitable training courses after proper counseling. The system reimburses the expense of employment training programs provided for vulnerable groups who have less access to employer-provided training. The *Naeil Baeum* Card system helps temporary workers and those who anticipate a job transition within 90 days or have been on an unpaid leave of absence for 90 days (Ra, 2013).

The "training under paid-leave" system supports business owners who give the employees paid leave for educational and training reasons. The business owners are reimbursed for the expenses and wages of the participants of the training programs. Seven or more days of paid leave is given to the business with fewer than 150 employees. Additionally, the "Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs)-specific training" is a training project which focuses on SMEs to provide training opportunities for their employees (MOEL, 2018). The types of the SME-specific training are the "consortium for HRD ability magnified program," "SME learning organization support Project," "SME core competency training program," and "SME structured on-the-job training" (Ko & Park, 2013; MOEL, 2018). The "consortium for HRD ability magnified program" offered training opportunities by holding a consortium for relevant SMEs. The "SME learning organization support project" and "SME structured on-the-job training" were intended to support the necessary infrastructure for training. The "SME core competency training program" supported employees in SMEs who participate in advanced training courses, thereby providing employees in SMEs with high-quality training opportunities that can pair with large companies.

Achievements and Limitations

The introduction of the *Naeil Baeum* Card System produced positive results such as the expansion of training choices for job seekers and the increase of the training market. Also, this system could satisfy the workforce demand from industries and companies by balancing between manpower demand and supply. However, training based on demand for workforce and training from industries is not sufficiently conducted. Moreover, even though training consultation has become mandatory, there is still a gap between industrial workforce demand and choice of training courses by the unemployed (Ra, 2013). Another achievement in recent vocational training is to support and provide training opportunities to SMEs which suffer from a lack of skilled workers and infrastructure such as qualified trainers and good facilities for training.

Despite the success and accomplishments, Korea currently faces challenges in vocational training. To sustain economic development, it is essential to nurture, allocate, and utilize human resources in a way that sustainably creates employment and supports high value-added activities in the 4th industrial revolution era. This involves making continued learning available for the individuals throughout their careers to allow them to upgrade and acquire necessary skills (Ko & Park, 2013). To support individual career development, an effective consulting system should be established along with the development of qualified job consultants.

Lifelong Learning in South Korea

Historical Overview of Lifelong Learning in Korea

Lifelong education emerged in the 1990s to secure national competitiveness and to improve the quality of human resources. There was a widespread perception that lifelong learning would improve continued employability and responsiveness to the job market throughout workers careers in the rapidly changing industrial structure (Ahn & Ha, 2017). In the 1970s, Korean industrialization focused on the steel and shipbuilding industries. As focus moved to the electronics industry in the 1980s, education became a pipeline to supply a workforce equipped with high-level skills obtained through upper secondary and tertiary education. Coping with a rapid shift to a knowledge-based economy, the Kim Young Sam administration produced a turning point, announcing a new policy package, namely the 5.31 education reform. The education reform urged a paradigm shift from vocational education and training for economic growth to individual development and from a segmented to a holistic approach suggesting the construction of a lifelong learning society (Lee, Kim, Adams, 2010).

In 1999, the Lifelong Education Act (LEA) was enacted and outlined the responsibilities and duties of central and local governments in lifelong education. A lifelong education promotion center prescribed in the LEA was established under the Korea Educational Development Institute and developed into the National Institute for Lifelong Learning Education (NILE) which plays a pivotal role in organizing, coordinating, collaborating, and implementing lifelong learning education in Korea. As of 2020, after several amendments, the LEA details three levels of governance in lifelong learning education: central government level, local government level, and institutional level (NILE, 2019a).

Organization of Korean LEA (Lifelong Education Act)

First, at a central level, the Ministry of Education plays a key role in collaborating with the Lifelong Education Promotion Committee (LEPC), the NILE, and the National Lifelong Education Promotion Centre for People with Disabilities (NLEPCPD). The LEPC under the Ministry of Education is responsible for reviewing basic lifelong education plans, evaluating policy outcomes, coordinating with stakeholders, and deliberating on all matters set by the presidential decree. The central government distribution system is administrated mainly by the Ministry of Education along with the NILE and the NLEPCPD.

Second, at a local level, the local governments are responsible for providing lifelong learning opportunities and establishing and promoting lifelong learning educational policy according to Article 5 of the LEA. The regional distribution system divides provinces, metropolitan areas, and cities into separate regions. All 17 metropolitan and provincial governments have established ordinances to operate city and provincial lifelong education councils in charge of reviewing annual plans and policies, coordinating projects and programs, and promoting cooperation among stakeholders in the region.

Third, at an institutional level, there are mainly three types of lifelong education institutes. One is a facility, corporation, or organization that has been accredited, registered, and reported under the LEA. Another is a private institution *hakwon* which provides private lessons in the field of lifelong vocational education not provided by the school curriculum. The other is a facility, corporation, or organization whose main purpose lies in lifelong education under other laws. The lifelong learning center under Article 21 of the LEA develops and operates lifelong education programs as well as related teacher training and education. It also provides lifelong learning counseling and other programs to promote lifelong education.

Current Situation of LEA

As specified in the LEA, the Ministry of Education prepares a basic plan to design and implement lifelong learning every five years. As of the end of 2019, a total of four basic plans have been established. The most recent basic plan, the Fourth Basic Plan for the Promotion of Lifelong Education (2018–2022), currently affects nationwide lifelong learning in Korea.

The Lifelong Learning City (LLC) project aims to establish a lifelong learning community in which anyone can enjoy lifelong learning anytime and to build up national networks linking regions and the central government. There had been 160 governments appointed as a lifelong learning city from 2001 to 2018 (NILE, 2019b, p. 13). They concentrated on regional issues such as lifelong education to improve employability, linkage among social enterprises and businesses, community social welfare activities and volunteer works, and the use of local resources allied to national initiatives.

The Lifelong Learning Account System (LLAS) has enabled the lifelong learner to track his or her learning experiences in a centralized online learning account system. The credits earned through accredited lifelong learning and registered on the LLAS can exempt lifelong learners from a subject test of the middle or high school graduate qualification exam or enable them to demonstrate their educational backgrounds at job interviews. In regard to higher education, the Academic Credit Bank System (ACBA) officially recognizes various learning experiences acquired both inside and outside of traditional school settings and grants academic credits transferable to fulfill the requirements for an associate or bachelor degree.

Since the beginning of distance learning, online-based courses have become popular in recent decades. Online learning can be an outstanding way to broaden the access to the higher education. The Korean Massive Online Open Online Course (K-MOOC) is designed to innovate the teaching methods of universities, to broaden opportunities for higher education, and to establish an open platform of higher education. The first step of the K-MOOC project was to encourage universities and colleges to participate as providers of the content in the field of high social demands. Since its launch in October 2015, K-MOOC has seen an increase in users. According to the 2018 Lifelong Education White Paper, 42.0 % of the users were in their twenties, 14.3% in their thirties, 13.9% in their forties; 28.5% were high school graduates and 27.1% were undergraduates (p. 489). However, they have yet to meet the needs of non-traditional students such as adult workers, retirees, and elderly adults.

In addition, universities and colleges became significant players in lifelong learning. The Universities' Lifelong Education Support (LES) project helps to bridge high school-to-work policy by relieving college entrance competition and reforming to an adult-learners' friendly environment. Universities and colleges selected by the LES projects are required to provide a special application process for employed workers over 25 years of age, to provide adult learner-friendly programs and courses, and to organize the staff to support them. Allied colleges and universities allow credit transfers and confer joint degrees.

The *Neulbaeum*, which literally means lifelong learning in Korean, is a comprehensive lifelong learning web portal that gathers a variety of information including statistics and academic courses on lifelong learning throughout the provinces and cities. It includes *Damoa*, a lifelong learning information network of 17 provinces and online content directly created by the NILE and public organizations. Personal lifelong learning tracking services in the portal connected with the LLAS integrate and customize individual lifelong learning with a convenient access. All in a one-stop self-serviced portal, *Neulbaeum* saves time for lifelong learners when searching for information, registering lifelong learning courses and programs, and managing their lifelong learning plan.

Achievements and Limitations of Lifelong Learning in Korea

The LLA introduced a number of significant concepts, such as taking time off (both paid and unpaid) for education and training. It encouraged the construction of lifelong education facilities. The LLA was designed to foster the development of innovative educational programs that can be offered both in-house and online. It is notable that the LLA enabled accreditation of credits from non-formal education and training. In the process of building the legal system, however, the national legislation somewhat hampered the integration of the LLA provisions at all levels of education. Thus, the LLA remains separate from the Early Childhood Education Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Higher Education Act, and other lifelong learning initiatives (Ahn & Ha, 2017).

The implementation of the Third Basic Plan (2003–2017) enabled the establishment of the NILE and the Lifelong Learning Promotion Center under 17 local governments. Also, online-based access to lifelong education has been enhanced considerably through K-MOOC and *Neulbaeum*. The LLC project has greatly contributed to the expansion of lifelong learning opportunities nationwide by engaging regional cities and vitalized lifelong learning in Korea. Despite the quantitative growth, there remains a question of the quality. However, the Fourth Basic Plan for lifelong education promotion, established in 2018, included a quality control of the LLC as well as a performance assessment examining the educational capabilities; promotion of programs and projects for a better delivery; financial supports; preferential treatment; and consulting services (NILE, 2018). In addition, the Lifelong Learning Voucher project will provide vouchers to 5316 underprivileged adults to guarantee practical educational opportunities (NILE, 2019b, p. 508).

Achievements, Challenges, and Issues of the Recent NHRD in Korea

In this chapter, the history, current status, core projects, and achievements of vocational education, vocational training, and lifelong learning have been introduced regarding the Korean NHRD. After the exploitation of Japanese imperialism and the devastation caused by the Korean War, the NHRD was one of the few options which the Korean government could choose for its economic revival. It has been acknowledged by many sources that the cause of Korea's economic growth through the rapid industrialization phase lies in the development of its human capital (ILO, 2008). The efforts are also recognized by many developing countries, especially in the following respects.

First, the Korean government has strengthened the link between the national economic development plan and the vocational training system. Investment in the HRD takes a long time to bear fruit. Therefore, it is difficult for an organization or an individual to recognize the need for developing capabilities and continuing the investment for a long period. For this very reason, for the Korean NHRD, there is a justification for the government policy intervention and regulation. Korea's case demonstrates how important the government's leading role can be when the nation is at the center of significant changes. The Korean government prepared a national economic development plan every five years, set up an HR training plan that was expected to be necessary, and carried out necessary laws, systems, and financing for the smooth operation of the plan (Kang, 2014).

Second, the Korean government led its HRD and a set of job insurance systems. The primary objectives of the NHRD have been to select and train the HR for the appropriate training professions to suit the various stages of industrial development. In the period of economic development, the government focused on leading the HRD for jobs that had a common demand in all industries. Since the late 1990s, the government has sought to foster the private sector-led HRD. In order to properly finance vocational training, the Korean government introduced the employment insurance system to mandate the business owners to provide stable training and effectively promoted the improvement of job skills of the unemployed or the vulnerable.

Third, the Korean government established the National Qualification System (NQS) to establish a framework for training to effectively support the industrial development and secure the quality of the NHRD. Initially, the NQS was initiated to enhance the public confidence of the certificates awarded to those who have completed the training. Since then, the NQS has been developing in parallel with Korea's industrial structure and the changes in the VET system, and has contributed to improving corporate productivity by evaluating worker's abilities and training performance. Furthermore, the NQS has been responsible for providing feedback to ensure that the NHRD is meeting the needs of the industrial sites.

Currently, however, Korea called to the need to respond to changes in the future environment caused by the emergence of various domestic and international issues. Due to rapidly evolving technology, it has become difficult to predict the changes in industries and the required knowledge and skills. Also, social and demographic changes toward an aging society at an unprecedented rate unexperienced in other parts of the world and shift to a multicultural society are other factors that make it difficult for the NHRD to respond to future labor supplies. Along with these changes of the time, this chapter will discuss the NHRD's tasks in terms of VE, VT, and LL.

First, Korea has been making efforts through the qualitative growth of vocational education (VE) to foster an outstanding workforce required by industry at an early stage. The Meister high school, in particular, was an active response to the change of social awareness of VE and the development of young technical personnel. However, Meister is running on a scale of about 500. Other vocational high schools and colleges are still training low-level technicians while maintaining their past appearance. There are still problems at the sites of VE that are still unable to keep up with the environmental changes that are taking place very rapidly in a very short period of time. VE has the advantage of getting a job right after acquiring certain skills, but because of the rapid progress of technology, the skills learned in the VE setting quickly lose values (Goh, 2019).

Second, in order for Vocational Training (VT) to appropriately contribute to the national development, training must be conducted in accordance with the contents and methods required in the future (Hwang, 2019). One of the important reasons why Korea's NHRD has been successful so far is that it has been relatively easy to keep up with technological changes. How to respond to the changes in population structure, changes in industry and technology causing the changes in jobs, and the dual labor structure is now being raised as an issue in connection with various projects in the Korean NHRD system (Park, Park, Kim, Jung, & Sim, 2019).

Third, in a knowledge-information society where the half-life of knowledge and technology is getting shorter, the Korean government is responding to lifelong learning at the national level to prepare for the aging era. Since 2000, the Lifelong Learning Act has been in effect and related policies have been in full swing. Lifelong Learning (LLE), however, has a character that emphasizes personal responsibility, so despite the preparation of the relevant regulations and implementation of policies, out-of-study can occur depending on the individual situation of the learners. The effect of LLL varies greatly depending on the will related to LLL, sufficient financial conditions, and perception for LLL.

Korea led an economic growth through its powerful NHRD. Thus, there are many implications for developing countries to adopt from the strong government-led NHRD. However, the social and industrial changes that Korean society is currently facing are calling for a significant shift in the NHRD. At present, coordinating among various social needs, the role of the nation, and achieving economic growth remains a task for the Korean government.

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PART II

Sector Perspectives

CHAPTER 3

Aging Issues and HRD in South Korea

Doo Hun Lim, Hyunok Ryu, and Chang Sung Jang

Introduction

For several decades, South Korea has witnessed the rapid aging of its population. Advancements in health-related technologies and medical solutions, better health education, and governmental policies to improve health conditions have significantly extended older people's lifespan. The rapidly declining birth rate has also contributed to the aging trends in South Korea (OECD, 2018). In the workplace, older workers tend to delay retirement since they want to maintain their current jobs to fulfill their life objectives (Lim, Park, Park, & Jang, 2020). As a result of these aging trends, South Korean society has and will continue to encounter many new challenges in every aspect at the individual, organizational, community, and societal levels. To proactively address these challenges in the workplace, organizations must establish new work policies and multi-level interventions at the individual, group, and organizational levels.

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Aging issues have also impacted many areas of HRD. For example, National HRD has increasingly paid special attention to aging issues to create national-level HRD policies and solutions (Kim, Baek, & Lee, 2018). Lifelong learning has been one of the focal areas of HRD as more people feel the need to develop personal competencies to realize their life goals and fulfillment (Kee & Kim, 2016). Career development and management is another HRD area actively accommodating the changing needs of older workers in the workplace. Recently, HRD practitioners have started to create effective teaching and learning strategies and solutions to improve individual and organizational performance based on neuroscientific findings about how the brain functions for cognitive and emotional reactions as people age (Lim, Chai, Park, & Doo, 2019).

Although considerable research has focused on the aging issues in South Korea (e.g., Kang, 2016; Kwon & Roh, 2008; Lee & Lee, 2014; Lim, Ryu, Kim, Song, & Ban, 2018), most studies have had a fairly narrow focus on specific issues of HRD (e.g., competency development, lifelong learning, informal learning). However, the literature lacks an overall review and analysis of aging issues and guiding perspectives to be used by HRD researchers and practitioners in South Korea. To meet this research and practice need, the purpose of this study is to review the literature on aging issues and trends at the societal level, identify specific aging issues in the workplace, reveal HRD-related issues and solutions for aging workforce, and provide thoughtful implications for research and practice.

Aging Trends

Aging Trends in the World

The global population is aging and the resulting challenges in many developed countries are severe. By 2050, one out of six people will be 65 or older (UN, 2019). By 2018, many developed countries reached the status of aged society (14% of the population aged 65 and over) including Sweden, France, the UK, Japan, the USA, and South Korea (National Institute on Aging, 2011). For the USA, the percentage of the older population aged 65 and over is expected to reach 21% by 2050 (Hayutin, Beals, & Borges, 2013). These aging trends create significant challenges for workplace organizations. For example, if we separate working generations into two age brackets of 20–44 years old and 45–64 years old, the number of baby boomers who can work in the first age bracket rise over a 20-year period as they entered the workplace. As the boomers start exiting the later age bracket, the bracket size will suffer if the echo baby boomers do not gradually enter that bracket. Due to these changing demographics, there are three key issues in the workplace: (a) how to accommodate the aging workforce, (b) how organizations can benefit from keeping older workers in the workforce, and (c) how to plan for an effective multi-generational organization.

Aging Trends in South Korea

Aging is a particularly serious concern for South Korea since it has the fastest aging population among OECD countries (OECD, 2018). The extremely low birth rate of South Korea, which is currently at 1.05 children per woman, has significantly accelerated the aging trends (Statistics Korea, 2019). It is expected that the aging trends in South Korea will impact the employment trends in similar ways to other developed countries such as Japan and some European countries. A primary change is the increased number of older workers with the employment rate among older people (aged 55–64) continuing to rise in South Korea: 64.5% in 2013, 66.6% in 2015, 66.2% in 2016, and 67.5% in 2017 (OECD, 2018). What is noteworthy is the large gap between the mandatory retirement age and the age when people actually exit the labor market. South Korea reported the oldest age for quitting work among the OECD member nations, even though South Korea has a mandatory retirement age of 60 from companies. For instance, between 2012 and 2017, the average age for quitting work was 72.9 for men (in comparison, the OECD average was 65.3) and 73.1 for women (the OECD average was 63.6). This gap between the mandatory retirement from a company and labor market exit occurs because many people who are forced out of companies choose to continue working by becoming self-employed or temporary workers (Kim, 2019b). Interestingly, approximately one-third of older employees are forced to retire involuntarily prior to the statutory retirement age of 60, partially due to their lack of necessary skills and competencies to successfully perform technologically advanced jobs and tasks (OECD, 2018).

Aging Issues in the Workplace

Financial Issues with Aging

Before discussing aging issues in the workplace further, to better understand the larger context, it is helpful to note the structural mechanism contributing to the high rate of South Korean older people working past retirement age. According to Statistics Korea (2019), among older adults who reported that they wanted to work (aged 55–79), the most common reason was financial need (60.2%) and the next most common reason was the pleasure of working (32.8%). Kim et al. (2018) indicated that for a large proportion of Korean older adults, a critical factor for labor market participation is the immature welfare system with a low national pension coverage rate and a low benefit payout. For example, they reported that in 2015, only 46.5% of older adults over 65 years old received an old-age pension. The amounts for both the old-age pension and social allowance were so low that the combination of the two was not enough to cover the minimum cost of living. This highlights the need for many South Korean older employees to work to make a living, even after their legal retirement age.

Another significant issue for older employees in organizations is the precarious nature of their jobs or working environment. This environment is closely related to why South Korean seniors are the poorest among OECD countries (OECD, 2017) despite the overall high employment rate. The percentage of older workers (over the age of 55) who are paid below the minimum wage has been on the rise: 25.3% (2015), 29.4% (2016), 28.8% (2017), and 30.9% (2018), which is notably higher than the total population (11.4% and 16.4%) in the same years (Kim, 2019b). In addition, Kim et al. (2018) pointed out that more than half of older South Korean workers work with no guaranteed wage (e.g., self-employed or unpaid family workers). These workers work under irregular working conditions and are not likely to benefit from social insurance. The authors also identified the gender imbalance of these precarious conditions. When the study classified different groups based on the extent of precariousness of their work, the "Not Precarious" group was dominated by male workers and only 2.6% by female workers. Lee and Lee (2014) also found that male older workers were more likely to benefit from social activities (e.g., religious, alumni groups, and mutual aid) in their employment compared to female counterparts.

Performance Issues with Aging

From the employer's perspective, older workers are often not welcomed. A long-held belief among employers has been that older workers have lower productivity and are costly for the organization. While South Korean law regulates the minimum retirement age at 60, employers tend to interpret this to their favor and use this regulation to avoid hiring and retaining someone older than 60 years of age (Roh, Ryu, & McLean, 2020). Several studies have debunked this bias including Kim (2019a) who found no evidence that the proportion of older workers had a negative effect on organizational productivity and no positive relationship between the proportion of older workers and organizational labor costs. Rather, the wage system or the workers' bargaining power had far more influence on labor costs. In contrast, Lee, Park, and Yang (2018) found that a higher proportion of older workers had a negative effect on the value added per worker. However, when different variables such as industry, size, and financial conditions were considered, a higher proportion of older workers had a positive effect on the value added per worker in large-scale manufacturing organizations under growing or risky conditions. Therefore, the authors proposed that future research take into account the diverse nature of organizations and their financial condition when assessing organizational productivity in relation to older workers' productivity.

Aging is associated with both positive and negative factors of performance: positive in the sense that older workers bring their accumulated experiences and skills, and negative due to the lack of technical knowledge and creativity (Seok, Moon, Kim, & Reed, 2018). However, the advent of the fourth industrial revolution, with rapidly evolving technologies and required skills, further complicates issues for older workers. Sung (2018) argued that automated and IT-controlled processes are challenging for those working repetitive and routine tasks and make it difficult for them to keep their jobs. Although he calls for a different educational system, a new educational system might not solve the problem for older workers. From the company's point of view, it is not easy to establish new work procedures for better performance and train older workers using adequate learning solutions so they can stay updated with emerging technologies (Yoon & Lim, 2010). Next, we examine the aging issues that particularly impact HRD.

Aging Issues and HRD

Employability with Aging

Enhancing the employability of older adults is desirable for the national economy, as it lessens financial and social burdens for the younger generation who often need to care for the older generation (Kim, 2019a). As such, various measures have been implemented to promote and retain employment of older workers. Examples include subsidies, vocational training, job creation programs, and a wage peak system (Kim et al., 2018). However, in their policy analysis, Roh et al. (2020) showed that South Korean national HRD policies have given the lowest priority to senior workers compared to other age groups (i.e., early youth, later youth, early adulthood, and later adulthood) in both the number of national HRD policy projects and the amount of budget allocated. As seniors are often categorized as retirees (even though many of them are still working in precarious conditions), the government does not prioritize seniors as policy beneficiaries. This is noteworthy since training and utilization of the older labor force are reportedly the most potent measures to counteract South Korea's rapid population aging (Kang, 2016; Kwon & Roh, 2008). Drawing on Levinson (1990), Lee and Yoon (2009), and Roh et al. (2020) highlighted that career development requires support from policies tailored to each age group. In comparison, Lee and Lee (2014) focused on a more specific group of seniors: those with lower socioeconomic status. They called for governmental initiatives to implement targeted employment and foster social engagement for this group and to enact more proactive policies to create jobs for seniors such as storytellers or animal care attendants. Kee and Kim's (2016) study also focused on lifelong learning programs for older adults, but their arguments about the structural and legal framework in South Korea are insightful in discussing aging issues and HRD. The authors asserted that three areas—employment, welfare, and education—are closely related to older adults, and would be more practical if they were pursued in a comprehensive manner. In reality, however, policies are developed and implemented by three different government agencies (the Ministry of Labor, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, and the Ministry of Education). In addition, the division of labor related to education for seniors across the three agencies is not clearly defined, which hints at possible political dynamics that the three agencies are attempting to shun their responsibilities and to avoid proactive measures.

Learning and Development Issues with Aging

Under the current structural context, many older workers prefer to remain employed as long as they are physically and mentally capable. However, it is crucial to determine which learning interventions and strategies enhance organizational performance while satisfying the diverse learning needs of older workers. Whereas some scholars have claimed that older workers' participation in non-formal and informal learning helps foster and retain job-related knowledge and skills (Dämmrich, Kosyakova, & Blossfeld, 2016), Lim et al. (2018) found that South Korean older workers' engagement in non-formal and informal learning did not relate to higher cognitive competencies (literacy and numeracy skills) but it related to higher use of those skills in the workplace. This finding shows that non-formal and informal learning activities are not directly linked to an increase in older workers' cognitive competences, but rather, they function as use of skills or transfer agency to enhance performance at work. Other studies have also noted that informal learning is crucial in expediting the use or transfer of learned skills and knowledge in work settings (Lim & Morris, 2006; Park, Lim, & Chang, 2017). As these studies illustrate, multiple issues are relevant for HRD: (a) how organizations can devise appropriate mechanisms to expedite older workers' non-formal and informal learning; (b) how to provide opportunities for older workers to adequately use their skills and account for organizational transfer-enabling variables; and (c) how to identify learner characteristics to design suitable instructional programs (Lim et al., 2018).

Knowledge Management Issues with Aging

When older workers leave the workforce, their tacit knowledge and expertise also depart. This means that not paying attention to these significant workforce changes may result in loss of the knowledge and skills older workers possess. To prevent this knowledge loss, organizations need to think more flexibly, generate creative initiatives, and, importantly, consider the extent to which such initiatives fit the organization's and employees' needs (Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, & Besen, 2009). Most community education programs for older adults are only leisure-oriented and seldom aim to foster employability (Kee & Kim, 2016), highlighting the need for organizational interventions targeting older workers. In the next section, we investigate a wide range of HRD interventions that have been implemented or proposed for older workers in South Korea.

HRD Interventions for Aging Issues

OD Approaches for the Aging Workforce

Understanding aging issues in the workplace has potential benefits since interventions influence individual career advancement and continuous organizational development and change (Maurer, Weiss, & Barbeite, 2003). Although there are ongoing discussions about whether the aging workforce can enhance organizational performance, greater attention has been given to the role and scope of organization-driven interventions that address aging issues in the workplace. In particular, human resource (HR) professionals, and business leaders have strived to adopt organization development (OD) approaches to promote long-term strategies in response to organizations' work-related challenges stemming from the steadily growing aging workforce such as decreased employee productivity or job performance (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002; OECD, 2012; Roberson & Hansson, 2007) and a climate that promotes age discrimination (Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch, 2010). Establishing responsible HR policies or systems to accommodate and manage the aging workforce has become an overarching strategy that must be considered for sustainable corporate success.

By definition, OD is "a process that applies a broad range of behavioral science knowledge and practices to help organizations build their capacity to change and to achieve greater effectiveness" (Cummings & Worley, 2008, p. 1). OD incorporates several HRD interventions across individual, group, and organization levels to accomplish desirable organizational change. Particularly in South Korea, OD approaches have been given higher priority in the economic sector. In addition, it is widely perceived that emphasizing human assets is likely to play a critical role in guaranteeing sustainable national economic growth and successful human resource management (HRM) in organizations (Kim & Bae, 2004). According to a Mercer Human Resource Consulting (2009) report, there is an increasing need to introduce strategic workforce planning into the economic sector as an OD practice, especially for countries with predominant demographic shifts in the workplace. That is, deepening our understanding of both aging trends and relevant organization strategies will help address any potential crisis in a timely manner. The benefit of this approach is that by identifying the key skills and experience of aged employees, HR professionals and organization leaders can fill the gap between the talent supply and organization goals to reduce labor-related costs.

In addition to effective workforce planning, cultivating a flexible organizational culture and promoting organizational learning are promising OD approaches. For instance, after analyzing 408 companies in South Korea, Chang, and Zhang (2016) found that a flexible organizational culture and elderly empowerment systems (e.g., retirement age extension, wage peak system, and elderly part-time work system) that were introduced to appropriately respond to the aging issues positively influenced aged workers' employment rate. Authors of scholarly articles in the field of organization science have suggested that a flexible organizational culture facilitates older workers' organization commitment and productivity (Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005). In addition, a perceived age diversity climate mitigates age discrimination among employees (Boehm, Kunze, & Bruch, 2014). In one recent study, flexibility-driven corporate policies and HRM strategies are positively associated with the successful management of low performing older employees (Ok & Park, 2018). Furthermore, it is important to note that a flexible organizational culture promotes decentralization (Jo & Park, 2011) and thus helps horizontal communication and information exchange of a diverse age group in the workplace. A flexible organizational culture is also closely associated with the activation of organizational learning (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Based on the analysis of employees working in research institutes in South Korea, Jung (2019) demonstrated that older employees were engaged more in organizational learning activities compared to younger cohorts.

HRD Interventions at the Group/Team Level

Given that organizational performance is heavily dependent upon teams and group dynamics within organizations (Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim, & Saltz, 2011; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), team development practices (i.e., team-building) have attracted much attention from organization leaders and HR professionals. To address potential organizational challenges due to the expansion of the aging population, emphasis must be placed on how group dynamics meet the needs of members of the organization who are culturally diverse and dispersed (Muethel &

Hoegl, 2010). In particular, promoting harmony among multiple generations is a key factor for organizational success (Chao & Moon, 2005; Twenge, 2010). Thus, team-building activities aimed at enhancing group members' interpersonal and problem-solving skills (Kang & Stewart, 2007) can be a value-added HRD strategy that promotes emotional support and exchange of resources across different age groups. From the 1990s, the focus of HRD interventions in South Korean firms has evolved from improving knowledge and skills of individual employees to adopting training and development (T&D) functions for team-building and group dynamics, as essential HRD programs and methods (Cho, Lim, & Park, 2015). Consequently, some South Korean firms have actively developed their own instructional systems design (ISD) models (e.g., Samsung ISD) to implement T&D programs (Lee, 2003) by identifying the learning and development (L&D) needs of the aging workforce.

Another emerging topic of HRD interventions in South Korea is managerial coaching (Kim, 2014; Park & Cho, 2013). The need for coaching has grown as current HRD face "an aging population and an aging workforce; skill shortages nationally and globally; the changing nature of work and employment; globalization and increased global mobility; emergence of the knowledge economy; and technological advances" (Cameron, 2009, p. 10). In response to these fundamental aging issues in the workplace, HR professionals in South Korean firms have initiated managerial coaching programs as a team-level HRD strategy for "retooling their executive-level managers" (Cho et al., 2015, p. 472). The primary advantage of this approach is that it increases inter-organizational social capital and a denser network of employees, regardless of their generational differences (Kapucu & Demiroz, 2015). Empirically, Lee and Tak (2015) found that the implementation of group coaching programs has helped significantly improve team leaders' coaching and positive leadership. Given that effective coaching practices help establish common ground for members of the organization, older workers can be more engaged in the process of exchange and distribution of their information, resources, and knowledge to build collaborative ties in the organization.

Lankard (1995) suggested that T&D programs must allow employees to connect the organization's goals and values to real-world situations, and transfer experience and knowledge from one situation to another. In this sense, embracing action learning has been stressed as an effective on-the-job L&D method. Defined as learning that takes place in the process of "group discussion, trial and error, discovery, and learning from and with each other" (Zuber-Skeritt, 2002, p. 114), active learning addresses actual complex workplace issues by facilitating employees' problem-solving processes. Because action learning supports advancement of high-potential employees' competency, T&D methods and program development on the basis of the action learning approach have been very popular for many firms in South Korea (Rowley & Paik, 2009). Park (2014) demonstrated that effective group- and team-level learning depends on individual employees' trust and open communication as well as an organization-level talent-oriented mindset. This result reiterates the importance of building a decentralized flexible organizational culture in which older employees actively participate in interpersonal L&D programs for their career development and improved organization productivity as a whole.

HRD Interventions at the Individual Level

Knowledge and skills acquisition of the aging workforce in response to the rapidly changing economic environment has become a major concern for HR professionals, corporate leaders, employers, and policymakers (Armstrong-Stassen & Templer, 2006; Brough, Johnson, Drummond, Pennisi, & Timms, 2011). Current studies reveal that the widespread perceptions of aged workers can change. The widespread stereotypical assumptions are that older employees are less productive and less engaged in performing the tasks compared to younger people. However, brain science studies reveal that aged employees have the potential to learn, adapt, be resilient, and have competencies to retain information based on the concept of neuroplasticity (Mahon & Millar, 2014; Schwartz-Hebron, 2012). More specifically, as opposed to the conventional beliefs about aging, older employees can acquire new knowledge and skills in a work environment that provides task-relevant stimuli and minimizes overly complex task procedures and that reinforce attention and memory retrieval (Lim et al., 2020). Facilitating neuroscientific approach-driven personnel management has become an important policy agenda since the South Korean government enacted the "Brain Research Promotion Act" in 1998 and implemented the first (1998–2007), second (2008–2017), and third (2018–2027) "Brain Research Promotion Basic Plans" (Jeong et al., 2016). In the HRD and organization contexts, emerging discussion has focused on how neuroscience impacts the attainment of aging workforce management and organizational success. For example, Lim and Jang (in press) suggested several principles of a brain-based HR strategy to cope with aging issues in the workplace: maintain positive emotional resiliency, drive immersive workplace-related learning, and activate physical and sensuous activities.

The importance of individual-level HRD interventions is even more critical given the increased number of older employees in leadership or managerial positions and the global trends of skill shortfalls of the aging workforce across various economic sectors (Brown & McCracken, 2017). Kwon and Cho (2017) also emphasized the importance of informal HRD interventions of trainers who are responsible for leading organizations and executing business strategies. Moreover, various scholarly articles analyzing learning systems in South Korean HRD settings have demonstrated that informal and self-directed learning-based HRD interventions play a critical role in leader-member exchange (Bae, Kim, & Kim, 2013), employees' psychological capital (Jeon, 2020), and work engagement or organizational commitment (Bae & Lee, 2012; Park, Lee, & Lee, 2015). These HRD interventions can enhance career management, especially for older employees (Park, 2009), highlighting the need to design and develop HRD ecosystems that empower dynamic individual-level L&D practices. Integrating diverse learning strategies into the organization will help employees create and share their experience and knowledge.

Conclusions and Implications

South Korea is a dynamic society that has been influenced by various international, societal, economic, and political factors such as the relationship with North Korea, the positioning of the South Korean economy as the "Chinese-Japanese nutcracker," and heavy dependence on imports/exports for its economic development. Aging trends are another influential factor that will predict the nation's future. To understand the current aging trends in South Korea, particularly as they relate to HRD and the workplace, we reviewed statistics and research findings about aging issues. More specifically, we identified various aging issues in the South Korean workplace such as older workers' financial and employability issues. Aging issues related to HRD practices were also discussed including organizational, performance, and learning issues affecting older workers.

To address these diverse aging issues in South Korea, we believe it is critical to adopt more active policy approaches at the national, organizational, and individual levels. For example, as guidance to establish national-level HRD policies, a recent UN (2019) report provided several meaningful national guidelines including establishing fiscal policies to sustain older workers in the main workforce, promoting gender equality in employment, adopting family-friendly policies to improve labor force participation, eliminating age-related discrimination, and providing more investment in educating and promoting lifelong learning for older workers. At the organizational level, we suggest more proactive measures and interventions to address these aging issues. Possible approaches include modifying working conditions to accommodate older workers' physical changes, providing job aids that specifically help older workers, providing continuing education to equip them to handle changing functions and tasks due to technological advancements, incorporating self-directed and informal learning to sustain learning motivation for career mobility and development, and having older workers mentor younger workers to promote knowledge transfer and management (Lim, Smith, & Kim, 2016).

As for the research implications, we believe that a critical task is to identify the impact of aging trends in various HRD areas (e.g., equal employment, benefits and rewards, long-term vs. short-term performance, leadership development, career mobility, job satisfaction, work resilience). By identifying the various impacts, HRD practitioners can develop appropriate interventions to address aging issues in the workplace. In addition, studies investigating the impact of establishing national HRD policies for older workers on societal-level outcomes deserve expanded research sponsored by many stakeholders such as the Ministry of Labor and HRD associations in South Korea. In particular, additional research is needed to identify the alignment and interconnectedness between the national-level and organizational-level HRD policies to improve workplace performance and older workers' well-being.

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CHAPTER 4

Government Support for Human Resource Development and Internationalization of Small- and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) in South Korea

Sunyoung Park, Shinhee Jeong, and Eunjee Kim

Introduction

Considerable attention has been paid to small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), prompting scholars to discuss the significant roles of human resource development (HRD) (Gray & Short, 2018; Michna,

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Kmieciak, & Burzynska-Ptaszek, 2017; Nolan & Garavan, 2016; Short, 2019; Tracz-Krupa & Tomé, 2020). There is a general consensus among scholars that HRD in SMEs (1) is diverse based on their unique contexts, (2) is mostly informal, (3) occurs often within the context of employees' jobs, and (4) can be enhanced by developing and managing organizational learning processes and environments (Csillag, Csizmadia, Hidegh, & Szászvári, 2019; Mustafa & Elliott, 2019; Nolan & Garavan, 2016).

In South Korea (hereafter Korea), SMEs play a critical role in the economy, business, and labor market (Ministry of SMEs and Startups [MSS], 2020). SMEs in Korea constitute 99.7% of the total number of profit corporations, 89.8% of total employees, and 52.7% of total annual sales (Statistics Korea, 2018). However, a labor shortage is a continuous challenge for SMEs to sustain and expand their economic roles in Korea (Park, Kim, Jang, & Nam, 2014). In the second half of 2019, SMEs left 11.1% of their positions unfilled even though they needed an additional 241,000 employees (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2019). The main reasons SMEs face a labor shortage are related to the labor mismatch, low salary and benefits, and employment insecurity in SMEs (MSS, 2015; Park et al., 2014).

To address these concerns, in 2003, the Korean government established a "Special Act on Support for Human Resources of Small and Medium Enterprises" to help SMEs decrease the labor shortage gap and recruit employees (MSS, 2015). This Act aims to "contribute to the balanced development of the national economy and society by enhancing the competitiveness of small and medium enterprises and promoting the employment thereof with support for programs facilitating the supply and demand of human resources, upgrading human resource structure and improving awareness of small and medium enterprises" (Korea Legislation Research Institute, 2020, p. 30). Based on this Act, the government has developed basic plans every five years to provide systematic support, and multiple ministries have established HRD-related policies and programs for SMEs (MSS, 2015).

With this government support, Korean SMEs have faced emerging demands to improve their capability, performance, business relationships, and sustainability beyond the domestic level (Cho & Lee, 2018). As a result, the labor market and businesses have expanded across countries in line with globalization and technological development. In today's market, internationalization seems inevitable for corporations to grow and survive. It is particularly true for countries with dynamic emerging economies such as Korea (Cho & Lee, 2018). Moreover, for SMEs operating high-technology and manufacturing businesses, it is necessary to respond to the risks and opportunities driven by global competition to stay in the marketplace (Ruzzier, Hisrich, & Antoncic, 2006). Internationalization can give SMEs more opportunities for exposure in new global markets, enhance global marketability, bolster the domestic economy, and improve organizational performance in dynamic global environments (Lee, Park, & Dam, 2019). Thus, it is critical to examine government-initiated SME internationalization training programs to identify opportunities for diverse SMEs who aspire to or are currently implementing internationalization initiatives.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the current Korean policies on supporting HRD in SMEs, introduce related successful cases, and examine government-initiated SMEs internationalization programs from an HRD perspective. By adopting the three core functions of HRD (i.e., training and development, organization development, and career development) as the analytic lens, we review the governmental policies related to Korean SMEs and present cases to demonstrate how the supporting policies have been applied to organizations. We also introduce the concept of internationalization and SME internationalization support programs in Korea from an HRD perspective.

We begin this chapter by reviewing the literature and government reports to identify current HRD policies and programs, related cases, and internationalization for Korean SMEs. We identified existing studies using multiple databases, including Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, and Google Scholar (for English literature), Korean Studies Information Service System (KISS), Research Information Sharing Service (RISS), and DBpia (for Korean literature). We searched using the following keywords and mixed terms within the title or keywords: Korean government, Korean small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), human resource development (HRD), and internationalization. Additionally, we collected information from the official websites of Korean ministries and government agencies.

Government Programs for HRD in SMEs

In this section, we introduce the government policies and programs for HRD in SMEs and related cases according to training and development, organization development, and career development (Table 4.1). We selected representative HRD programs for HRD in SMEs from among the diverse programs offered by multiple government ministries.

Table 4.1 Government programs for HRD in SMEs

Training and development	*Organization development*	*Career development*
• Training institutes for SMEs • Youth startup academy • HRD program for specialized vocational schools • Skilled workforce development program • HRD support through academic-industrial collaboration	• Consulting support • HRD competency support for SMEs	• College courses specializing in SMEs • Skilled workforce development program

Source Authors

Programs Related to Training and Development

Training and development-focused programs include training institutes for SMEs, a youth start-up academy, HRD program for specialized vocational schools, skilled workforce development program, and an HR-designated program for cultivating SMEs. These programs have been implemented and supported by the Korea SMEs and Startups Agency (KOSMES), a non-profit, government-funded organization established to implement government policies and programs for the Korean SMEs. The skilled workforce development program is explained further in the career development programs section.

Training Institutes for SMEs

Through four local training institutes, employees in SMEs can attend diverse training programs such as job competency training, policy training, customized training, and online training (KOSMES, 2020). Job competency training includes executive training (for innovation, finance, marketing, and technology strategies), administrative management training, technical training (i.e., training in metals and molds, productive technology training, training in electricity, electronics, and IT, and the programmable logic controllers [PLC] technician certificate program), and quality management training. Policy training provides educational programs on government policies and funding systems for SMEs. Customized training provides on-site training and modified programs based on each SME's specific request. For online training, several online courses are aimed at technology, quality control, and operational functions.

Youth Start-Up Academy

This academy provides comprehensive support for young entrepreneurs and CEOs in SMEs throughout the technology-intensive business start-up process to ensure business success by adopting a basic 1-year academic system (KOSMES, 2020). Participants complete required courses on product development, prototyping, negotiation, marketing strategies, a global business plan, and global marketing. These courses are based on the whole support process including the stages of start-up-focused competency improvement, business planning and product development, prototyping, and marketing. The academy checks the progress of each participant using a mid-term evaluation to identify participants who do not meet the required performance level and should leave the academy. Each participant also receives individual coaching with a dedicated professor and an industry expert group.

HRD Program for Specialized Vocational Schools

This program connects SMEs to vocational schools and their students by helping the schools provide field-oriented curriculum and training for students who want to be employed in SMEs (KOSMES, 2020). After making an agreement between the schools and SMEs, they work together to develop the organization-specific content and curriculum by analyzing the needs and job descriptions of the SMEs. By using a specialized curriculum, the schools provide job-tailored classes for the students. Through these classes, students learn specific knowledge and skills that SMEs expect employees to possess. The school receives related teaching materials and training programs for teachers and students to implement and students attend job-tailored classes. After students graduate, the SMEs hire the students as employees. Thus, this program has mutual benefits for both the SMEs and vocational schools.

HRD Support Through Academic-Industrial Collaboration

This program emphasizes collaboration between SMEs or industrial associations and technical colleges to balance the academic supply and practical demand for labor (KOSMES, 2020). This program has three components: customized courses, on-the-job training, and 1 team-1 project. Customized courses provide practice-oriented knowledge from SMEs to students to be completed within 100 hours without overlapping with academic major programs. In on-the-job training, students understand practices and improve job skills and knowledge for more than four weeks in the SMEs. After the training, students receive support for employment. Lastly, the 1 team-1 project refers to one team implementing one project. By creating a team consisting of the organization, a professor, and a student, they conduct a project related to specific research and idea generation for one to three months based on a request from the organization.

Organization Development Programs

Organization development programs offer consulting support and HRD competency support for SMEs. These programs are implemented and supported by KOSMES and HRD Service of Korea (HRDK), which is a government organization under the Ministry of Employment and Labor established in 1982 to support the HRD of organizations and employees (HRDK, 2020a).

Consulting Support

This program provides tailored consulting services for SMEs to identify problems and issues and improve their fundamental capability, sustainability, and global competitive advantage (KOSMES, 2020). The consulting services include management consulting, technical consulting, specialization consulting, one-stop start-up support consulting, and chemical management consulting. Specifically, management consulting covers areas such as management strategies, human resources, marketing, finance, customer satisfaction, global management strategies, and corporate sustainable responsibility. Technical consulting supports production innovation, quality, information technology, energy and green management, and research and development. Specialization consulting focuses on future growth-oriented industries, new service business areas, and creative and innovative start-up support. However, this program was discontinued in the first half year of 2020.

HRD Competency Support for SMEs

This program includes learning organizations in SMEs, HRD self-assessment, certified best HRD awards, and an advisory committee for HRD in SMEs (HRDK, 2020b). Certified best HRD awards recognize SMEs that have made strong efforts to improve their HRD by supporting employees' learning and performance. The program for learning organizations in SMEs supports learning activities and organizations' infrastructures to accumulate and expand job-related knowledge, experience, and know-how in a systemic way. The HRD self-assessment can help SMEs examine HRD-related issues and identify solutions based on the components of their human resource (HR) infrastructure (HRM plan, HR organization, and support), HR implementation (strategic connection, development and training, personnel, and HRD investment), and HR performance (performance improvement, job performance, and training-HR connection). The advisory committee for HRD in SMEs can help organizations learn advanced skills and experiences from national core talent groups and utilize their skills to improve organizational performance.

Career Development Programs

Career development programs include college courses specializing in SMEs and skilled workforce development programs. These programs are designed and operated by the Korea SMEs and Startups Agency (KOSME) under the Ministry of SMEs and Startups and HRD service of Korea with support from the Ministry of Employment and Labor (HRD service of Korea, 2020a).

College Courses Specializing in SMEs

This program systematically links departments at colleges and SMEs by supporting them to design and offer field-oriented curriculum tailored to the needs of each SME. With mutual agreement among SMEs, colleges, and SME employees, a tailored curriculum is designed and delivered to employees at SMEs based on the results of a needs analysis of the participating SME (HRD service of Korea, 2020b). Through this customized training, SMEs can cultivate the workforce with a specialization they need, and colleges can expand the industry-academia cooperation by combining the specialized courses and on-site training practices.

Skilled Workforce Development Program

This program was designed by KOSME to nurture a skilled workforce for SMEs by combining specialized vocational school courses (2 years) and college courses (2 ~ 3 years) (KOSME, 2020). By connecting the specialized courses and curriculum between the specialized vocational schools and colleges, this program organizes a training consortium with an SME to provide students and prospective employees with tailored training from basic to advanced levels. The goal of this program is to increase employment for students who have been trained to meet specific needs of an SME after graduation and to produce a highly skilled workforce in the field. One of the benefits for students is that they can serve as industrial technical personnel without worrying about enlisting in the military[1] or about their future career path. From the perspective of SMEs, they can recruit customized skilled talent without depleting training resources since the training is partly subsidized by KOSME.

Cases: How the Programs Have Been Applied

In this section, we examine how the policies and support from the Korean government and organizations (e.g., Ministry of SMEs and Startups and Ministry of Employment and Labor) have been applied to SMEs by reviewing two representative cases. The following cases delineate several common issues and problems that most SMEs have encountered such as a chronic shortage of skilled workers, high turnover rate, and insufficient capacity to conduct training at all levels for their employees. We first introduce two cases that demonstrate the policies applied to support the organizational efforts of training, career, and organization development

[1] This program exempts students from the required military service.

in each organization. For each case, we then summarize the organizational context related to the workforce, the implementation process, and the outcomes of the selected polices to provide support for SMEs.

Case 1: Company a (Press Molding)

Company A is a private sector company producing press molding equipment with 75 employees located in southern Korea. The company was founded in 2000 as the most advanced die making enterprise to help strengthen the foundation of the national industry. Company A has accumulated technical know-how to secure innovative and creative precision die technology with a vision of becoming a leading company in the sector. It also aims to contribute to environmental conservation by building an eco-friendly management system. However, due to the chronic labor shortage and relatively low awareness of press molding technology, it was difficult to secure excellent technical engineers and skilled technicians. It was even more challenging to systematically train newly employed engineers due to the lack of an appropriate system, a low budget, and insufficient infrastructure for training within the company.

Over the past few years, the company realized that the know-how of senior-level engineers was not being transferred to the younger engineers. This increased knowledge loss resulted in a delayed production schedule and defective products. With the goal of solving these issues, the company decided to apply for the "building a learning organization project" funded by HRD Service of Korea. By participating in the project, the company expected to raise the level of training and create an organizational culture that was conducive to new learning and innovation to meet their customers' fast-changing demands.

Process

With HRD Service of Korea's systematic support for SMEs to become learning organizations, Company A launched a company-wide HRD initiative to establish active learning groups. The company formed four learning groups from assembly, management, research, and processing with nine members per team. Each team addressed major issues and problems in each field to improve product quality and reduce costs in the manufacturing process. From the first year of the learning organization support project, employees' voluntary participation led to revitalizing existing training activities and inventing new self-directed learning channels such as biweekly forums for members.

Outcomes

Through the learning organization support project, Company A was able to identify errors and defects in the operation process and to design the foundation to build a smart factory. Reducing the number of defects and design failures accelerated the production process, and the increased efficiency in manufacturing resulted in improved productivity, cost-savings, and revenue. In addition, members of the learning groups recommended changing the entire molding process by establishing a 3D modeling system to further increase the mass productivity and competitiveness of the company. With this new technology, they expect to recruit and nurture more human resources including young technicians and engineers. In addition, employees recognized that the learning organization project helped reform the culture of the organization to a more employee-friendly environment and open communication. As a result, the CEO continues to see more opportunities to support and expand the positive impact of the learning organization project. However, since support for establishing learning organizations in SMEs from HRD service of Korea generally only lasts one year, the CEO will need to seek further support.

In addition to the learning organization project, to cultivate a highly skilled workforce in the specialized field of molding, the company encourages students in technical and vocational schools to participate in their basic technical training and practice programs in molding technology. Through the technology officer training project and skilled workforce development program by KOSME, the company has supported employees to pursue degrees and further develop their careers in molding technology. With its vision of eco-friendly management, this molding company aims to become a leading company in the sector and provide support for their employees to pursue advanced degrees through the work-learning dual system with the help of the Ministry of Labor. Through the P-TECH (Pathways in Technical Education, oriented Convergent High-Technology) system, this company is working to cultivate a practical and highly skilled workforce.

Case 2: Company B (Automatic Control Systems)

Company B, located in the southwestern region of Korea, is a small-sized enterprise with 21 employees producing automatic control systems and plant control equipment. Although its main products are automobile-related, Company B has recently expanded its business to other sectors such as the electronics, steel, environment, and medical equipment. With these new additions, the company has renewed its strategic vision and overall management system to respond to the changes. To succeed in these new business sectors, the company needed to secure and nurture global talent with specialized knowledge and skills.

Process

With these new business additions, the company needed to cultivate a skilled workforce and secure high-performance experts as well as train all employees. However, with no in-house resources for training, Company B had to seek help and resources from outside the company. The company applied for several programs such as training institutes for SMEs from KOSME and learning organizations from HRD Service of Korea. Through training institutes for SMEs, employees could attend job competency training at the local training institutes including technical training (e.g., electronics, PLC, IT), and administrative management training.

The company also applied for HRD competency support for SMEs through building learning organizations in SMEs. This program supports learning activities and the SME's infrastructure to systematically share and create job-related knowledge and know-how. Given that the CEO of the company highly values a flexible organizational culture for innovation, Company B held workshops, team-building sessions, and monthly "happy day" events. However, due to the chronic shortage of skilled engineers and the frequent business trips, it was challenging to schedule and solicit active participation for these workshops and events. After launching the learning organization project, the company formed study groups around three divisions (i.e., system division, distribution division, and FA division), making the training more flexible to coordinate.

Outcomes

Because of the previous experience in workshops, team-building, and monthly events at the company, it was possible to have a soft landing in launching the learning organization project throughout the company. In addition, since the study groups operated around divisions and departments, discussing issues and transferring skilled engineers' know-how to new employees helped solve problems in each department. For example, in the system division, which is responsible for the sales operation of the automation facilities, frequent technical errors were identified and discussed through open forums of the study group. As a result, the frequency of errors was reduced from 3 to 1% six months after launching. By establishing a link between learning and work, the study groups not only helped improve the competencies of the relatively less-experienced engineers but also helped establish a flexible organizational culture that was conducive to ongoing learning at work.

Internationalization of SMEs

In this section, we first discuss what internationalization means in the SME context. Second, we compare relevant policies across nations. Lastly, we review Korean governmental policies on internationalization among SMEs from an HRD perspective.

What Is Internationalization?

Internationalization started to emerge in the early 1920s. The process accelerated with the growth of globalization as advanced technology and transportation opened economic markets and made them more integrated and accessible. Several authors have defined internationalization in corporate settings (Ruzzier et al., 2006). Johanson and Vahlne (1977) defined the term from a network perspective as "the process of developing networks of business relationships in other countries through extension, penetration, and integration" (p. 20). Ahokangas (1998), focusing on a resource-based perspective, described the phenomenon as "the process of mobilizing, accumulating, and developing resource stocks for international activities" (Ruzzier et al., 2006, p. 479). According to Lehtinen and Pennttinen (1999), internationalization involves "the relationships between the firm and its international environment, derives its origin from the development and utilization process of the personnel's cognitive and attitudinal readiness and is concretely manifested in the development and utilization process of different international activities, primarily inward, outward and cooperative operations" (Ruzzier et al., 2006, p. 479). Their definition provides a holistic approach to understanding the scope of internationalization as the term should not merely denote outward movement (e.g., exporting or selling products or services beyond a national boundary), but should also include inward and cooperative movement. Considering the holistic view of internationalization, there are different routes SMEs could take to enter a foreign market such as franchising and licensing overseas or in the host country, buying products or services from overseas, or operating joint ventures (Fletcher, 2001).

Various theories have attempted to explain the internationalization process. According to the Uppsala model (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977), a corporate's international engagement increases gradually and sequentially with the interplay between the development of foreign market knowledge and increasing commitment decisions. In particular, knowledge and learning experience acquired from a firm's previous or current business operations affects future investment or commitment to foreign markets (Forsgren, 2002). Another theory, the transaction cost approach (Gilroy, 1993), suggests that internationalization decisions should be driven by economic efficiency that minimizes production costs and environmental uncertainty. In line with this approach, considering cost-efficiency, foreign countries that are socially, culturally similar to the host country are usually preferred so firms can more effectively internationalize their businesses (Cui, Walsh, & Zou, 2014). Lastly, the network approach (Johanson & Mattsson, 1988) considers a corporate's network relationships with other actors (e.g., customers, suppliers, and government) to access resources and markets. As a company becomes more internationalized, it can form the more and stronger the business relationships.

Pertinent to the network approach, a growing number of scholars have examined the non-sequential approach of internationalization. Many successful SMEs have rapidly internationalized or have immediately started the internationalization process after formation. In this sense, the non-sequential approach challenges the traditional notion that firms should establish stable businesses in their domestic markets first before entering into foreign markets (Cuervo-Cazurra, 2011; Osarenkhoe, 2008).

Internationalization and Firm Performance

Entering into the international market may provide opportunities for SMEs to improve competitive dynamics such as greater profit, more customers, or business partners/collaborators. However, there are concerns about adding another risk of foreignness (i.e., unfamiliar social/cultural environments) on the top of the inherent constraints such as a low budget and limited staff, so-called smallness (Cho & Lee, 2018). The focal question is: What is the impact of internationalization on firm performance? Studies have reported mixed results. Some studies (Jung, 1991; Qian, 1998) have found a positive association between internationalization and firm performance while other studies have recorded a negative relationship (Collines, 1990; Kumar, 1984) or no relationship (Morck & Yeung, 1991; Sambharya, 1995). More recent scholars (Lu & Beamish, 2004; Contractor, Kundu, & Hsu, 2003) have provided empirical evidence that their relationship is not linear but is curvilinear such as quadratic (U-shaped or inverted U-shaped) or cubic (S-shaped curve). For example, examining Korean SMEs in the manufacturing sector, Cho and Lee (2018) found an S-shaped relationship between the degree of internationalization and SME performance. The same authors (2018) also demonstrated an inverted U-shaped relationship between the degree of internationalization and corporate longevity among Korean SMEs in IT-related industries.

The logic of a nonlinear relationship is based on a three-stage model. In the early stage (Stage 1) of business expansion to a foreign market, the entrance costs and initial learning costs usually exceed the benefits; thus, the negative impact is predictable. In Stage 2, once firms learn how to adjust their organizational systems and structures to operate in the foreign market, they start to perform more effectively and reap the benefits (Contractor et al., 2003; Ruigrok, Amann, & Wagner, 2007). In Stage 3, when firms heavily expand their foreign operations, the environmental and technological complexities are more intense, so the costs associated with geographic dispersion increase and begin to outweigh the benefits (Qian, 2002). Drawing on this model, empirical studies have demonstrated that firms benefit from internationalization when operating at a moderate degree, but they are likely to experience an adverse, negative impact of internationalization when operating at a level that is too little or too much.

Regardless of the inconclusive findings in the literature on the internationalization impact on firm performance, SMEs' need to go beyond the domestic market has become a reality for most businesses. Thus, many governments worldwide have signed bilateral free trade agreements with foreign countries. These agreements have changed their domestic market environment so it is largely integrated with the global market. As a result, for SMEs to survive, they need to respond to the new trading opportunities and challenges. The success of SMEs in today's highly globalized market is also increasingly crucial for the national economy and future growth (Gjellerup, 2000). In the following section, we discuss governmental initiatives to support SMEs' internationalization efforts and provide several cross-national comparisons.

Governmental Internationalization Support Programs for SMEs: Cross-National Comparisons

Many governments worldwide have implemented internationalization support programs that are designed to help SMEs overcome the inevitable barriers. OECD (1997) grouped these initiatives into four categories: finance, business environment, firms' internal capabilities, and market access. Financial help programs are designed to fulfill SMEs' need for financial security so they can afford the enormous cost of internationalization, such as finding new buyers, developing distribution networks, and meeting each country's standards for products. The examples include trade credit insurance, development funds, and loan guarantees (Lee & Kim, 2007). Business environment facilitator programs aim to improve the business environment within which SMEs operate. Examples include tax relief or exemptions and facilitating research and development activities and cooperation between companies (particularly cooperation with multinational corporations and large domestic companies). Firm capability-enhancement programs focus on "assisting in human resource development and to help enhance the capability of SMEs to survive and compete" (OECD, 2008, p. 29). Relevant examples include providing language education as well as training and education to understand the unique cultural distance in the foreign market. Lastly, market access programs provide assistance with gathering and distributing information such as sharing factual and legal information, identifying business opportunities and risks in foreign countries, and analyzing markets (Lasserre, 2018; Lee & Kim, 2007).

Due to the distinct socioeconomic status and competitiveness in the global market, SMEs face unique challenges and have a different need for support programs that are customized to the country and business. For example, in the finance category, 45% of SMEs in Colombia share the major constraint of access to capital whereas only 8% of SMEs in Peru have the same concern (Inter-American Development Bank [IDB], 2014). An APEC (2016) report also indicated that SMEs face financial difficulties as the most serious hindrance to internationalization in Chile compared to Korea, Thailand, Malaysia, and the Philippines (APEC, 2016). Almost half (47%) of SMEs in Austria utilize governmental financial support programs compared to only 1% or less of SMEs in other European countries including Denmark and the Netherland (EC, 2014). In the USA, SMEs across various industries (e.g., agricultural and food) have multiple funding resources that are available at the regional, state, and federal government levels (García-Álvarez de Perea, Ramirez-Garcia, & Cubo-Molina, 2019). In contrast, in some Asian countries such as Taiwan and China, most finance programs focus on supporting the manufacturing industry.

For the business environment category, countries have taken various approaches. For example, 24.4% of the internationalization support programs available in China focus on the business environment as it has changed its trade policies and laws (Hong & Ban, 2006). This focus largely reflects China's economic reform initiatives. To stimulate investment in Bulgaria, the government enacted the Investment Promotion Act specifying incentives for foreign investors (MEF, 2019). However, Malaysian SMEs have reported that the domestic rules and regulations are the biggest hurdles to go international compared to SMEs in Korea, Chile, the Philippines, and Malaysia (APEC, 2016).

In terms of firms' internal capability, Japan places considerable emphasis on developing soft assets such as human resources, knowledge, and skills. For example, the Japanese government has operated SME University since 1980 to help CEOs of SMEs gain expert knowledge of internationalization in their country (Lee, 2010). In Denmark, the VITUS program was designed to develop and execute a tailored export strategy through intensive coaching and counseling. The program focuses on sales activities that help participating SMEs secure a solid foothold in the relevant markets within 12 months. The program includes workshops, multiple meetings with advisors, and an expert panel. Workshops in the VITUS program focus on sales, strategy, and cultural awareness with approximately 265 consultancy hours throughout the year (EC, 2018).

As for market access, the USA puts greater emphasis on this category as almost 54% of the government support programs focus on removing barriers connected with access to markets compared to less than 10% related to business environment facilitator programs (Pietrasienski & Slusarczyk, 2015). The US Office of Standards and Intellectual Property uploads country and industry toolkits on their website with detailed information on standards-related issues facing US exporters in various international markets. Similarly, the Dutch Internationalization Agency created a web site detailing financial products and services provided by different host agencies (e.g., private sector, the state, and the EU) such as export-credit insurance, international credit rating, leasing, venture capital, and price comparisons for the products (EC, 2007). These products and services provide valuable financial information for SMEs.

SME Internationalization Support Programs in Korea from an HRD Perspective

The Korean government has also implemented a variety of initiatives related to the four major categories to foster internationalization among SMEs. In this section, we focus on the firm's internal capability-enhancement category from an HRD perspective, as it concentrates on developing intangible resources such as knowledge and expertise at the individual and organizational levels. We contrast this category to the other categories such as finance which focuses on providing tangible resources. It is particularly worthwhile to review the support programs in the internal capability-enhancement category considering that the greatest barrier for Korean SMEs to internationalize their operations is a lack of expertise and human resources (25.7%), followed by financial difficulty (20.8%) and trade regulation (10.6%) (Hong & Ban, 2006). After reviewing Korean government, public-sector websites, and technical reports, we identified training programs and grouped them into the four categories based on the training target subjects. Table 4.2 provides exemplary training programs, but it not an exhaustive list.

As shown in Table 4.2, the first category includes internationalization support training programs designed for Korean employees or CEOs of SMEs residing in Korea. For example, the K-global Project, focusing on SMEs in the information and communications technology

Table 4.2 Exemplary government-initiated training programs for SME internationalization

Subject/target	*Training programs*
Domestic employees/CEO in the host country	• K-Global Project: A comprehensive support program for SMEs specialized in the information and communications technology industry. • KOTRA Academy: Educational programs ranging from basic business etiquette and manners to international marketing • Global Incubating Internship Program: A 3-month internship program for SMEs specialized in mobile or Internet industries, for successful glocalization • Global Start-up School, Global Smart Talent Development program
Domestic employees dispatched to overseas	• KOTRA Expatriate Academy: Training for SME expatriates to enhance their competencies to perform overseas • Foreign Market Pioneering Agent: Dispatches talented SME employees to Korean companies/businesses abroad and develops them into tradingexperts for the SMEs they work for
Foreign employees in the host country	• Employment Training for Foreign Workers: Employment training programs for foreign workers to help them adapt to and settle into Korean society
Native foreign employees in the local country	• Industrial Skill Trainee Program for Overseas-invested Firms • KOTRA Overseas Investment Company Training for Local Employees: Training programs

Source Authors

industries, provides a wide range of support programs focusing on the following: legal issues, marketing strategies, global business, developing and implementing training curriculum for SMEs to develop innovative services based on artificial intelligence, innovation academy, and mentoring services from the start to settle into the foreign market. As another example, Global Incubating Internship Program, in alliance with a variety of accelerator and investor abroad programs, selects promising and domestic SME employees to send overseas for an accelerated program as interns for three months. During this program, the participants receive business-matter, and managerial counseling and mentoring that support their global entry and networking with potential future investors or business partners.

Examples of short-term training opportunities include the Global Startup School, operated by the Korea International Trade Association The school selects high-potential individuals or teams and teaches them how to create ventures and expand their businesses to international markets. The training content includes but is not limited to marketing, entrepreneurship, case studies on best practices, IR pitching and communication skills, and global entry and export strategies. The school also incorporates multiple mentoring sessions to provide individualized, tailored consulting services. The participants are also given investor relations opportunities. Another example of a short-term program is offered by the Korea Small Business Institute. The institute offers the Global Smart Talent Development program for CEOs and employees at SMEs to expand opportunities to learn about export and development competencies related to foreign market entry. It provides three levels of training: basic, advanced, and tailored. The training includes international marketing and negotiation, export/import simulation, and business email writing.

The second category includes support programs designed for Korean employees dispatched overseas. The KOTRA Expatriate Academy is a good example of supporting SME expatriates. It covers various topics for expatriates related to socializing and performing in foreign countries including history, culture, politics, the economy of the foreign country, employment, labor, marketing, the customs clearance procedure, and language education. The Foreign Market Pioneering Agent program selects talented SME employees who are proficient in the foreign language and offers them a 2-week domestic training program. They then dispatch them overseas to act as sales agents for three to nine months. This program also provides a list of buyers and investors in the local country so agents can contact them directly.

The third and fourth categories focus on support programs for foreign employees working at Korean SMEs either residing in Korea or in the local country. As a part of the Employment Work Permit System, the Human Resources Development Service of Korea offers employment training programs for foreign workers to help them adapt to and settle into Korean society. It covers various topics such as the Korean language, Korean culture, cross-cultural teamwork, and laws and basic knowledge that are essential to their employment. Training examples for foreign workers residing in local countries include the Industrial Skill Trainee Program for Overseas-invested Firms and KOTRA Overseas Investment Company Training for Local Employees. Foreign workers in the local countries are invited to temporarily visit the host country (Korea) and are offered training programs. These programs are expected to increase their work productivity after returning to the local country, enhance pride and self-esteem as a Korean company employee, and improve intercultural communication skills working with Korean managers.

Discussion and Conclusion

Our review discusses the multiple opportunities and support governments provide for SMEs to develop their HRD capability. According to MSS (2015), SMEs can find and hire more essential employees and train them through these support programs. Government-supported HRD programs have increasingly focused on minimizing the labor shortage SMEs typically face by developing potential employees through collaboration with vocational schools and technical colleges instead of only nurturing and utilizing current employees in the workplace. This trend may be a result of SMEs ongoing struggle with hiring field employees who have graduated from technical colleges or below (MSS, 2015). Collaboration among multiple ministries could enhance HRD support for SMEs. For instance, certified best HRD awards have been awarded from four government ministries (Ministry of Employment and Labor, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy, and MSS). This type of inter-ministry collaboration could increase the synergic effect of government support for SMEs.

To advance government support for HRD in SMEs and maximize the benefits, the current policies and programs need to be evaluated from diverse perspectives. Although government programs have contributed to HRD in SMEs, most positive evaluations about the programs have only come from government reports and government-funded technical papers focusing on the quantitative growth. Although there are successful stories about how SMEs and schools work together to resolve HRD issues, most of these cases have only emphasized the positive sides of the programs and their results. Alternative and more subjective evaluations and communication channels should be included to reflect program participants' voices (organizations, current employees, schools, and students). Such evaluations would improve these programs by identifying the gaps between the programs and practice and hearing their real needs and issues.

As the selected cases illustrate, the policies and programs were designed and implemented by the Korean government and organizations with a top-down approach as a national-level HRD intervention (Cho & McLean, 2017). Given that SMEs have their own unique needs and practices for training that are distinct from large organizations, how they implement the policies and programs reflects their context. The feasibility and effects of the policies and programs are diverse based on the context of each SME. For example, Company B succeeded in building a learning organization with the help of its existing bottom-up learning initiatives. However, skilled workforce development reported that the accumulated dropout rate at the affiliated colleges reached 37% (Ministry of SMEs and Startups, 2020). Thus, to further coordinate the HRD policies and programs with each SME, further research with a holistic approach is needed. Based on the results of holistic evaluations of the policies applied to SMEs, the field of HRD can more effectively identify the challenges, opportunities, and future directions to further develop the skilled workforce in SMEs

The topic of internationalization has been primarily discussed in the fields of management, marketing, and international business which are primarily housed in the HRM arena. The HRD literature has paid far less attention to this significant topic. Our review on the relevant literature suggests that the internationalization process involves a deep learning aspect and that the effectiveness and efficiency of the process depend on human knowledge and expertise. We encourage future HRD scholars to introduce and explore the learning topics presented in this review. For example, HRD scholars should closely evaluate the relationships between learning capabilities and internationalization.

The Korean government may also need to prioritize and invest more in helping SMEs enhance internal capabilities. Most SMEs do not have comprehensive human resources or training systems. Korean SMEs also suffer from a lack of human capital due to the high turnover rate and difficulty recruiting highly talented employees (Jeong, McLean, & Park, 2018; Ko & Kim, 2005). SMEs' approach to HR problems is often reactive and ad hoc. Furthermore, skills and expertise accumulated for the local market is not readily applied to foreign markets. Despite the importance of developing human resources in SMEs, according to Hong and Ban (2006), internationalization support programs focusing on internal capacity building only take into account 4.1% of the four major categories compared to Japan where 39.8% of their support programs focus on SMEs' internal capacity enhancement.

In summary, Korean government organizations have supported HRD and internationalization for SMEs by providing diverse programs and options. Future directions of the initiatives and support for SMEs need to focus on integrating the programs that only focus on HRD or internationalization to include the specific needs of employees in their organizations. In so doing, Korean government support for HRD in SMEs could become a successful role model to increase, develop, and utilize potential and current employees for organizations in other countries.

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CHAPTER 5

North Korean Defectors and Human Resource Development in South Korea

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Introduction

Due to various economic and sociocultural changes in North Korea, the number of North Korean defectors (NKDs) has increased rapidly since the 2000s, and their total numbers are estimated to exceed 30,000 in South Korea (Ministry of Unification [MoU], 2020). Given that NKDs struggle to adjust and settle in South Korean society because of sociocultural and educational differences, the South Korean government and communities provide them with multiple supports such as settlement funds, social services, and educational/learning opportunities. They receive these supports mainly in their initial period through Hanawon, an education and resettlement support institute for NKDs, for 12 weeks, and

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through the Hana Center, which offers regional adaptation education for three weeks and implements post-support for 11 months after that (MoU, 2020).

Nevertheless, many NKDs continue to have difficulties in their life and education in South Korea. Internally, NKDs suffer from miscommunication ascribed to the dialect gap (Tara, 2011) and mental health issues (Chung & Seo, 2007). Externally, NKDs report experiencing discrimination in their employment and skill-job mismatch (Choi, 2011). Getting a job or conducting work activities can be essential for their successful adjustment and settlement; hence, the importance of human resource development (HRD) policies and practices for them has been rising (Choi, 2011). Besides, the remarkable trend of NKDs is their demographic transition that highlights defectors in their 20s and 30s. This younger generation now constitutes a majority among NKDs. It has brought about a social and practical need for newer HRD approaches, focusing more on diversified training/educational programs through their long-term careers. The main reason behind this is that the newer population has different characteristics and personal needs than the older NKD generation (Kretchun & Kim, 2012).

The purpose of this chapter is to examine how HRD functions for NKDs in South Korean society using an integrative literature review (Torraco, 2016). While we analyze existing studies and technical reports regarding NKDs, we will focus on investigating: (a) "how" HRD policies and practices have managed to address the changes of the NKD population, and (b) "what" it needs to do to provide a better HRD for NKDs.

Overview of North Korean Defectors

The Process of Defection and the Current Conditions of North Korean Defectors

The number of NKDs has noticeably grown, especially since 2000. In mid-1990, North Korean people encountered the great famine known as the Arduous March; they were forced to escape from their country searching for money and food. During the same period, the influx of NKDs to South Korea has also increased, while many NKDs come to third countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, and United States

(Song, 2012). According to the statistics from the Ministry of Unification, a total of 947 NKDs arrived in South Korea before 1998, but about 1500 NKDs have entered South Korea every year since 2001 (see Table 5.1). The numbers of NKDs who come to South Korea remain steady, more than 1000, though they have slightly decreased since 2012 (MoU, 2020).

Though many NKDs decided to leave North Korea due to the harsh famine and hunger, it is not the only reason. Various motives, including loss of status, a search for more opportunities, social constraints, and political persecution, led them to escape from North Korea. The political situation, natural disaster, and material necessity also triggered North Koreans to defect from their old home and resettle in a new home. For example, after the collapse of the Berlin Wall, the death of Kim Il-sung (the first-generation dictator), and the overwhelming flood crisis increased the number of NKDs (Kim, 2016).

However, the defection is a perilous and threatening process, often risking their lives. Most people cross Tumen and Yalu rivers when the rivers are frozen in winter to flee from North Korea to China. In many cases, defectors pay brokers expensive costs to escape the vigilance of security. Though they, fortunately, arrived in China, they encounter other challenging situations because China does not allow NKDs to be granted asylum. The Chinese government randomly checks NKDs on roads or uses other strict controls and expatriates them back to North Korea. North Korean returnees encounter more severe punishments in short-term detention facilities, long-term prisons, or political prison camps. NKDs should be protected as refugees since such punishments were regarded violations of human rights, but the Chinese government keeps sending NKDs back to North Korea (Human Rights Watch, 2020).

Therefore, NKDs leave China for neighboring countries such as Mongolia, Vietnam, or Thailand, expecting to enter South Korea. If the South Korean embassy accepts their request for resettlement, they move to temporary protection facilities or a diplomatic office in a foreign country. After a background check and interviews, NKDs are allowed to enter South Korea (MoU, 2020).

Resettlement and Challenges in South Korea

Upon arrival in South Korea, NKDs have to be interrogated, and it takes quite a long time to complete this process—about six months to

Table 5.1 Number of North Korean Defectors entering South Korea

(Persons)

Category	*~'98*	*~'01*	*2002*	*2003*	*2004*	*2005*	*2006*	*2007*	*2008*	*2009*	*2010*
Male	831	565	510	474	626	424	515	573	608	662	591
Female	116	478	632	811	1272	960	1513	1981	2195	2252	1811
Total	947	1043	1142	1285	1898	1384	2028	2554	2803	2914	2402
% of female defectors	12.2	45.8	55.3	63.1	67.0	69.4	74.6	77.6	78.3	77.3	75.4

Category	*2011*	*2012*	*2013*	*2014*	*2015*	*2016*	*2017*	*2018*	*2019*	*3/20*	*Total*
Male	795	404	369	305	251	302	188	168	202	39	9402
Female	1911	1098	1145	1092	1024	1116	939	969	845	96	24,256
Total	2706	1502	1514	1397	1275	1418	1127	1137	1047	135	33,658
% of female defectors	70.6	73.1	75.6	78.2	80.3	78.7	83.3	85.2	80.7	71.1	72.2

Note The number on March 2020 is a provisional estimate
Source Ministry of Unification (https://www.unikorea.go.kr/eng_unikorea/relations/statistics/defectors/)

determine if they are spies or not (Eschborn & Apel, 2014). They were then sent to Hanawon, an education and resettlement support institute for NKDs operated by the South Korean government. In Hanawon, NKDs take 12-week (400-hour) social adjustment programs, including counseling for mental health, understanding for South Korean society, career development, and job training for necessary skills while being provided initial supports for resettlements including accommodation and financial assistance. After completing Hanawon programs, NKDs can receive continuous supports from 32 Hana Centers, where they can be, for instance, offered training opportunities, job search help, counseling services, and medical care assistance. Private contractors run Hana Centers under the government's support (Eschborn & Apel, 2014; MoU, 2020).

After coming to South Korea, NKDs still experience challenges though they become South Korean citizens and receive various supports from the government and communities. For example, many NKDs struggle with mental and physical problems. NKDs often have a physical illness such as diabetes, anemia, and malnutrition during the long journey to South Korea. Also, many of them experience psychological pressure, depression, or other stress-related disorders while they are hiding from Chinese or North Korean authorities (Chung & Seo, 2007). The language difference is another issue for NKDs' adaptation in South Korea. Different accents and vocabulary make them embarrassed or frustrated when they communicate with South Korean people (International Crisis Group, 2011). Furthermore, NKDs struggle with different educational curriculum and contents though they come to South Korea to find more opportunities for a better future (Bae & Yang, 2010).

In the labor market, NK defectors encounter more challenging situations, for example, low employment rate, uncertain employment status, and fewer opportunities for career development (Rho & Lee, 2016). Despite supporting efforts from the South Korean government and local communities, NKDs still have difficulty finding a job, particularly when they do not have the skills or knowledge necessary to work in the South Korean labor market. The unemployment rate of NKDs is higher than that of South Koreans. For example, the unemployment rate of NKDs was 6.3%, while that of South Koreans was 3.4% in 2019 (MoU, 2020; Statistics Korea, 2019). When employed, NKDs have mostly part-time, low-wage occupations consisting of menial, repetitive jobs. In 2009, 54.7% of the employed NKDs were involved in unskilled jobs such as simple labor and machine assembly (MoU, 2011).

Such unskilled jobs often accompany instability of employment status, low wages and benefits, and high labor intensity, which leads NKDs to quit their jobs more frequently or to stay unemployed longer than South Koreans (Choi, 2011). These situations also cause wage differences between NKDs and South Korea workers. In 2019, the average monthly wage of employed NKDs was $1700, while that of wage workers in South Korea is $2200 (Korea Hana Foundation, 2019). NKDs experience difficulties in the labor market through the difference that has been decreasing, given that the average monthly wage of NKDs is 66% of that of South Korean workers. Furthermore, NKDs have limited opportunities for employability and career development; they struggle with a lack of skills or knowledge necessary for their work. Furthermore, although NKDs complete vocational training programs provided by the government and other public and private agencies, they still experience difficulty finding a job related to the training programs (Jo & Yoo, 2019; Korean Hana Foundation, 2020).

The Characteristics of a Changing Population of NKDs

According to an annual report from the Ministry of Unification, the population of NKDs coming to South Korea has changed depending upon North Korean contexts and other political and social factors surrounding them. For instance, after Kim Jong Un became the third leader of the Kim dictatorship dynasty, he has been banning people from leaving North Korea more strictly. North Korean government also continuously puts pressure on the Chinese government to repatriate NKDs back to North Korea, which consequently influenced the recent decreases in the number of NKDs who arrive in South Korea (Human Rights Watch, 2020).

Of NKDs that arrived in South Korea before 1998, women make up only 12.2%. However, now female NKDs account for 72.1% of total NKDs coming to South Korea while the number of male NKDs remains steady, as shown in Table 5.1. Female NKDs encounter many challenges even after coming to South Korea while they are more vulnerable than male NKDs throughout the escape journey. Some of them experience human trafficking and sexual assault, which often bring about stress, depression, and even mental illness, including PTSD (Post Trauma Stress Symptom) (Sung, 2014). Many female NKDs have psychological strengths such as patience, a feeling of responsibility for family, strong aspirations for success, and self-actualization. However, they have career barriers due to their mental weakness (e.g., PTSD), education, financial difficulties, and a lack of social networks (Jeon, 2012). Female NKDs, particularly, struggle with adapting to changes in family relationships and roles, including parenting and education, while many of them participate in the labor market and often have responsibilities as a breadwinner (Sung, 2014).

In line with the increasing number of women NKDs, it is a noticeable change that young NKDs have increasingly entered South Korea; the number of NK teenagers who fled from their hometown with their family or alone is also growing recently (Choi, 2011). Young NKDs experience different challenges from adults in many ways, calling for a different approach to provide support for their social adaptation. Many of them were mentally disabled in physical and educational development during a long escape journey in China or other countries (Cho & Chae, 2019). Korea Hana Foundation (2018) reports that of 10- to 18-year-old NKDs, 48.8% of them had been to school in North Korea, and only 9.2% of them had been to school in the third country during the escape. After coming to South Korea, they often fail to adapt to a new educational system, though many educational supports and benefits were provided (see Table 5.2). They struggle with different educational curriculum and content areas as well as new environments and relationships. Such challenging experiences led young NKDs to drop out of their school, though the dropout rate is gradually decreasing (Cho & Chae, 2019). Young NKDs, thus, have low self-efficacy, especially in career decision-making while they are under-prepared for jobs or careers despite much support from the government and other agencies (Cho & Chae, 2019; Jung & Kim, 2019; Park & Kim, 2014).

Education and Development for NKDs

The South Korean government has played a leading role in supporting NKDs' resettlement and social adaptation while there have been various supporting efforts in both the public and private sectors. Given that the social adaptation of NKDs primarily requires economic stability, the government has committed to employment assistance and vocational training for NKDs.

Table 5.2 Employment and education support for North Korean Defectors

Category	*Item*	*Description*
Employment	Vocational Training	A training allowance (Ministry of Employment and Labor)
	Employment Subsidies (Paid to Employers)	Half of the pay (up to half a million won) per worker for a maximum of four years those who entered South Korea before November 29, 2014
	Employment Supporting Workers	Offering career counseling and job placement at 65 employment centers nationwide
	Others	Employment protection (preferential purchasing), settlement support for those aspiring to be farmers, and unique employment
Education	Special Admission and Transfer to Schools	Offering special admission for those who want to go to college
	Support for Tuition	Exemption from tuition for those enrolled in middle school, high school, a national or public university and subsidizing 50% of tuition for study at a private university
Support for Workers		Supporting system for workers: community services (244 persons at local governments), employment counseling (65 persons at employment centers), and personal protection (900 persons at police stations)

Source Ministry of Unification (https://www.unikorea.go.kr/eng_unikorea/whatwedo/support/)

The Trajectory of HRD

The NKD's vocational training and career development depend considerably upon the government's policies and practices, although private sectors also provide many supports cooperating with the government. The South Korean government has been providing supporting policy and programs that help NKDs' employment and education as presented in Table 5.2, emphasizing the importance of supporting NKDs' workplace adjustment for their successful social adaptation (MoU, 2019; No et al., 2007).

Since the North Korean Refugees Protection and Settlement Support Act was launched to support NKD's settlement and adaptation in 1997, the South Korean government has set systematic policies and programs to support NKDs' better economic and social adjustment. The Ministry of Unification has been leading support for NKDs and collaborating with the Ministry of Employment and Labor, especially in terms of vocational training and employment protection (Park, Kim, Hwang, & Song, 2011). Mainly, employment assistance for NKDs, including employment protection, vocational training, educational credentials/licenses, and start-up assistance, has been provided. In addition, collaborating with the Ministry of Employment and Labor, the government created an alternative workplace including social enterprises. Since 2006, the South Korean government has certified social enterprises according to the Social Enterprise Promotion Act and has provided services—financial, consulting, and educational benefits (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2016).

Recently, the government's supporting efforts for NKDs' social and economic adjustment moved to employment, focusing on "independence" beyond "protection" (Han & Hah, 2017). Aligning with this, career counseling and vocational training were relatively emphasized compared to other employment supports (Park et al., 2011). In Hanawon, NKDs participate in career diagnosis and counseling programs and vocational training programs, including IT, car mechanics, plumbing, nail art, and skincare. At the same time, they learn comprehensive and essential knowledge and skills about South Korean society and systems. Notably, young defectors and defectors who had professional jobs in North Korea are offered three 6-hour customized career counseling programs.

After completing Hanawon, NKDs can be provided with continuous supports for their settlement and adaptation process by the Korea Hana Foundation, an agency affiliated with the Ministry of Unification. The Korea Hana Foundation helps NKDs' employment through the Employment Assistance Center, where they can get career counseling services and find vocational training information. Hana Centers also provide various supports for NKDs' vocational training and employment with private institutions or agencies in local communities (MoU, 2019).

To facilitate NKDs to participate in vocational training programs or to obtain licenses or certificates, the government provides monetary incentives. For instance, NKDs who complete more than 500 hours of vocational training receive a vocational training incentive, about $1000 though it is only available to those who entered South Korea before November 29, 2014 (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020). The Employment Incentive is also offered to NKD who have been working with a company for more than six months to encourage NKDs not to leave their work frequently (Korea Hana Foundation, 2017). 44.6% of employed NKDs quit their job within one year, seeking job security. Such monetary incentives are offered to employers who contribute to NKDs' employment to complement financial incentive programs for NKDs and to promote NKDs' employment. The Employment Promotion Subsidy provides half of the wages—up to $420 per month—to employers for three years when they hire NKDs (Jo & Yoo, 2019).

While the government collaborates with public agencies such as the Human Resource Development Service of Korea and Hana Foundation to provide an extensive range of supports for NKDs' employment and work, it also seeks more customized strategies for different demographic groups of NKDs. For example, a career navigation curriculum that helps young NKDs who are in colleges or universities develop necessary job skills and knowledge and are preparing for the job searching process (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020).

Non-profit organizations also provide supports for NKDs' resettlement and social adaptation. According to Ro and Ha (2011), more than 300 non-profit organizations work for NKDs' resettlement, and many of them offer vocational training programs. However, despite many training and education programs, the effectiveness, especially in terms of employability, cannot be guaranteed since most of them have a lack of finances, a lack of workforce support, and an issue of relationships with local governments (Ro & Ha, 2011). Also, many programs overlap and do not provide follow-up supports or training since there is currently no system in which non-profit organizations and the government collaborate strategically (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020; Ro & Ha, 2011).

To sum up, the current government-led programs for NKDs' workforce adjustment consist of systemic and step-by-step services of four phases: career navigation, job competency development, training-to-work transition, and employment assistance. Furthermore, in each phase, the government collaborates with government agencies such as the Human Resource Development Service of Korea and the Employment Center (go-yong Plus Center) and other public and private institutions (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020). As demographic profiles of NKDs are changing, the policies and programs for NKDs' workforce development and adjustment are asked to change with consideration for their characteristics and needs.

Critical Thinking About the Current Status of HRD

The HRD efforts for NKDs in various sectors have contributed to improvement in NKDs' social and workforce adjustment, and the extensive services have helped NKDs develop job competency and capabilities that the South Korean labor market requires. Though NKDs still have difficulties in the employment and workplace adaptation process, the situations are gradually improving. The unemployment rate was 9.2% in 2009, but it has decreased to 6.3% in 2019. Regarding the employment status, 77% of employed NKDs have full-time jobs in 2016–2019 (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020).

Despite positive changes, NKDs still struggle with workforce adjustment in various aspects, which can be attributed considerably to HRD's approach to NKDs and a lack of comprehensive understandings of NKDs, not considering contexts and characteristics of different groups of NKDs. We, therefore, discuss the current status of HRD and its limitations for NKDs' workforce adjustment and development.

Workplace participation in South Korea requires identity work between North Korean-ness and South Korean-ness, and defectors encounter hostile social relations attributed to the historical and ideological confrontations between two Koreas. Ignoring multiple layers in sociopolitical and cultural differences, we might lose sight of what is out there from defectors' perspectives, what their experiences are like and how they learn from those contexts. In these cross-cultural and cross-regime settings, NKDs experience stress, depression, frustration, and inappropriate social behaviors, which negatively influences their social adaptation (Cho, Son, & Choi, 2020). Currently, NKDs are required to complete a 12-week resettlement program in Hanawon, which extensively includes Korean history, culture, and regimes. However, NKDs claim that they do not learn how the capitalistic and democratic values and systems can be applied to their daily life since it provides only basic knowledge (Kim & Rousseau, 2019).

Next, the current vocational training system and programs aim to promote NKDs' employability in the South Korean labor market by developing their job competency; there is still a question about effectiveness. Various government-sponsored training programs are offered to NKDs, and new training programs are created depending on their needs. However, NKDs feel a lack of job-related competencies and capabilities—especially in a foreign language, statistics, problem-solving, customer service, and crisis management—though they completed vocational training programs. They also complain that they cannot learn the practical skills and knowledge used in the work fields (Cho & Chung, 2006; Korean Hana Foundation, 2020). Indeed, the current vocational training systems tend to overlook NKDs' individual and social contexts, such as work experiences and age. Particularly, NKDs mostly do not have jobs related to previous work experiences in North Korea because the current career planning and vocational training programs do not consider them. This contradictory situation leads NKDs to have less confidence in their job competency and career decisions (Cho & Chung, 2006; Korean Hana Foundation, 2020).

Moreover, skillset-based training can be problematic due to its linear approach. Although defectors' subjective difficulties are found to be complicated and profoundly intertwined with their prior work ethic, experience, and mental and physical well-being, adjustment concerns are oversimplified as small deficits that can be remedied with skill acquisitions. Because defectors' problems are conceptualized as the absence of skills and knowledge, complex learning dynamics that defectors should negotiate with past and current experiences and knowledge are under-investigated. In a centrally planned communist economy, they experienced different work-related norms and practices from the capitalist economy (Kim & Rousseau, 2019).

The existing HRD for NKDs also considerably depends on the behavioristic approach that likely increases motivation through financial incentives. However, such an approach might overlook the nature of work and social contexts, especially in the workplace. The effect of financial incentives on NKD's employment and job security is not different from our expectations: a small number of employers and NKDs receive the Employment Promotion Subsidy and Employment Incentives (Jo & Yoo, 2019; Sun et al., 2005). The Employment Promotion Subsidy for employers sometimes brings about some negative impacts in the workplace. In contrast, its effect on NKDs' employment is quite small: NKDs have troubles in relationship-building with other employees when they are assisted with the Fund (Sun et al., 2005). Also, due to frequent turnover, many NKDs are not eligible for the Employment Incentive (Jo & Yoo, 2019; Korean Hana Foundation, 2020). Given that NKDs leave their jobs in order to find a better job (e.g., wage, job security), it is crucial to provide more customized vocational training programs so that NKDs can have more stable and professional jobs.

The Future of HRD for NKDs

From an integrative review of the literature, we identified the process of NKDs' social and workforce adjustment and how HRD approaches the process with a critical perspective. Based on our discussion, we propose recommendations for HRD policy and practice for NKDs as well as academic suggestions for future research.

Strategies for Policy and Practice

First, HRD professionals and government officers should provide more customized and need-based workforce policies and practices. To support NKDs to acquire job skills and knowledge more effectively, understandings of their characteristics and needs are essential (Rho & Lee, 2016). Notably, their previous work experiences can help them become more competent in the labor market and have a higher career self-efficacy (Kim, 2014). Particularly, given the gap between NKDs' career aspiration and vocational training, HRD should consider NKDs' vocational training needs for their future job, not providing pre-planned training curriculum and contents.

The growing number of young and female NKDs calls for a different approach to HRD policy and practices for their career development and workforce education. For example, given that work-life/family balance is a challenging issue for female NKDs, HRD should provide them with training and education programs that promote women's employability. These can help female NKDs handle both work and family in a balanced way as well as work-life (family) balance policy in the workplace. Also, many women NKDs indicate education and age as one of the significant career barriers. Thus, the government should improve the current education certificate system so that women can receive education certificates while working or taking care of their families.

Besides, young NKDs experience needs of career planning and development while they have a substantial career aspiration and show a preference for professional jobs (Korea Hana Foundation, 2018). HRD professionals can provide more opportunities to learn about jobs and career planning and to prepare for future jobs (Ryoo, Kim, & Lee, 2017). Career planning and development programs should include social supports and social networking. The reason is that most of them cannot receive supports—even psychological supports—from their family and do not have social relationships or supports that help or counsel them for their career. As previous studies repetitively confirmed, social networking is one of the critical challenges NKDs encounter though they recognize its importance in their social adaptation and career success (Bidet, 2009; Korean Hana Foundation, 2020; Shin, 2014).

Though many programs help NKDs' job search and hiring process, most NKDs get job information from social relationships (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020). Though NKDs recognize the significance of social networking, they are often isolated from their community due to discrimination toward NKDs. HRD should, thus, help NKDs build social networks with South Koreans as well as other NKDs in their communities and workplace by providing relationship-based programs such as mentoring and communities-of-practice (Bidet, 2009; Shin, 2014).

Furthermore, to help NKDs' resettlement and workplace adaptation, HRD should offer education programs to South Koreans in the workplace and local communities. NKDs can integrate into the South Korean society when South Korean people develop social awareness of diversity and NKDs and are willing to help NKDs' adaptation process.

Suggestions for Future Research

Although the current studies have been interested in NK defectors' adaptation process and challenges during the process, they mostly focused on the psychological issues of well-being and struggles such as mental health and stress. Given the importance of work in the NKDs' social adaptation process, HRD scholars need to become more interested in NKDs' workforce adjustment and career development.

First, HRD research should listen to various groups of NKDs to identify their characteristics and needs for workforce development. With the increase in female and young NKDs, research on these groups has been increasing. However, HRD scholars need to investigate how characteristics and contexts of different groups influence their workforce adjustment process and career aspiration.

Next, HRD scholars may investigate NKDs' informal learning process. The existing studies mostly focus on government-led or government-sponsored HRD programs and practices for NKDs. However, given that they considerably depend on their own social relations in terms of career planning and development (Korean Hana Foundation, 2020), scholars can develop in-depth understandings of the NKDs' social and workplace adaptation process (Kim, 2019; Olson, Kim, & Hwang, 2017; Park & Kim, 2014).

Conclusion

In this chapter, we identified HRD approaches to NKDs' resettlement and workforce adjustment by integratively reviewing the related literature. The South Korean government provides various types of resettlement supports, especially stressing workforce adjustment and development, with public agencies and other non-profit organizations. Their efforts have been helping NKDs' employment and workplace adaptation, showing improved results. However, NKDs still experience discrimination and challenges in the labor market, and the increase in female and young NKDs demands more customized and systemic HRD interventions, responding to their needs. Furthermore, given that NKDs' lifelong learning and workforce adjustment makes a considerable contribution to social integration (Choi & Kim, 2018), HRD should help NKDs grow up as members of South Korean society by supporting them to adapt to different culture and practices in the workplace.

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CHAPTER 6

Human Resource Development in Global Manufacturing: Agility and Leadership

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Introduction

The world currently faces the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) crisis, which is an unexpected and sudden pandemic. Global manufacturing companies are striving to handle this pandemic virus, which directly influences their global strategy, but uncertainty and challenges are rising for these companies.

At the time of writing, the world seems to be on hold as many businesses are shut down and do not have a clear indicator of when they will reopen. Global manufacturing companies have also been affected by the

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Coronavirus crisis and are creating their own responses to the situation; many have suspended or reduced factory operations, closed stores, and increased opportunities for remote work in order to prevent the spread of coronavirus. These companies are looking to the Human Resources Development (HRD) field to respond to these changes (Li, Ghosh, & Nachmias, 2020) as such responses will have the potential for a long-term impact on the nature of work, organizational management, and HRD practices within the global manufacturing field.

These changes have potential impacts on the way work is done and how employees are managed within global manufacturing companies. In particular, the role of leadership becomes more important and global manufacturing companies need to be more agile in adopting diverse changes rapidly as this coronavirus continues. The leaders within the companies should be able to face changes by considering how to make their global manufacturing companies more agile in conducting their business activities (Tseng & Lin, 2011). When many business activities are limited and restricted, global manufacturing companies need leaders who are authentic.

The coronavirus pandemic has caused many issues, and business companies still need to grow further in order to adapt adequately. In the past, it would be understood that leaders may take hidden, unethical acts not to sacrifice the business interests of their companies. Nowadays, however, leaders are more respected for their transparency and integrity, and they should be able to build positive and transparent relationships with their subordinates. Thus, authentic leaders are likely the best fit for manufacturing companies during the current crisis, as these companies have found it necessary to change their work style to autonomous telecommuting systems with flexible work.

A global manufacturer is a company that produces and manufactures components, assemblies, and finished products. They possess manufacturing capabilities, supply to chains across the world, oversee production facilities, and hire both domestic and foreign workers. Teams are basic units for implementing companies' work and performance at global manufacturing companies in South Korea. Team related factors become important determinants of companies' success. Team leaders are responsible for diverse team activities and have responsibilities to lead team performance which are essential for the overall success of global manufacturing companies.

Global manufacturing companies need leaders who can manage performance and employees more ethically with the flexibility to cope with challenges caused by pandemic crisis. Leaders should be demonstrating this flexibility when they perform business activities. This will also enhance their effectiveness as leaders (Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor, & Mumford, 1991).

Recent leadership studies regarding South Korea focus on women's leadership and work-life balance (Cho et al., 2016), leadership behaviors and job performance (Hwang, Quast, Center, Chung, Hahn, & Wohkittel, 2015), leadership effectiveness and managerial behaviors (Hamlin & Patel, 2020), and leadership style comparison (Park, Han, Hwang, & Park, 2019). However, studies applying authentic leadership and agility for managerial levels—particularly for team leaders—within the manufacturing industry are quite limited. Only a few studies, such as that by Gill, Gardner, Claeys, and Vangronsvelt (2018), have addressed these issues, although the roles of leadership are critical for employee' behaviors and attitudes at global manufacturing companies and need our attention.

To respond flexibly to unexpected changes, global manufacturing companies need agility. Agility means "the ability of the entire organization to be able to do" (Huang & Nof, 1999), or a company's ability to take on multiple roles at the same time. Global manufacturer would need to consider agility more highly for their performance and success.

Particularly in Korea, the roles of leaders are highly significant because collectivism and group orientation are quite influential to the behaviors of Korean employees (Han, Seo, Li, & Yoon, 2016). Subordinates often follow their leaders' instructions without question, which in turn may hamper other changes and innovations (Zhou, Zhao, Tian, Zhang, & Chen, 2018). Therefore, how supervisors exert their leadership becomes more critical in motivating employees and achieving organizational goals during the coronavirus pandemic.

Today's global business companies are committed to more transparent management and corporate social responsibility (CSR). The current business environment requires leaders who can play an important role with honesty and trustworthiness. In early 2000, misbehaved corporate and ethically wrong misconducts like Enron brought a need to introduce authentic leadership which emphasizes more ethical perspectives (Iqbal, Farid, Jianhong, Khattak, & Nurunnabi, 2018). There is a growing concern in South Korea for business companies to be more ethical and transparent. The ethical image and morality of those global business companies have been stressed in South Korea and ethical awareness become more important recently. These factors influence the overall business environment of global companies in South Korea and the behaviors of leaders within these global companies are required to be honest and trustworthy to meet the requirements of transparent CSR trends.

This study is intended to provide an overview on the impact of authentic leadership and agility in Korea's global manufacturing companies. Our target company is in great need of team leaders who have authenticity and can provide positive recognition and communication with their subordinates under this pandemic coronavirus. They are required to be responsible for employees for better performance and to focus on the overall performance management of their teams through authenticity and agility, despite having their company's environment challenged by the coronavirus.

The Importance of Team Leaders at Global Manufacturing Companies and Authentic Leaders

Global manufacturing companies produce and manufactures components, assemblies, and finished produces. They possess manufacturing capabilities and supply chains across the countries. Global manufacturing companies have many overseas production facilities and hire domestic and foreign workforce. South Korea holds a significant percentage of the world's global manufacturing companies and global manufacturing companies are an important percentage of all industries (see Table 6.1).

In particular, South Korea remains competitive in the field of global manufacturing and has a high rank according to the 2016 Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index, Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited, and US Council on Competitiveness (see Table 6.2). Many manufacturing companies in South Korea have been successful and have expanded their shares globally, leading to internationally renowned global manufacturing companies with high global competitiveness.

Team leaders are responsible for guiding a group of employees as they complete a project. They develop and implement a timeframe their team will reach its goals. Team leaders delegate various tasks to their members and serve various roles for the success of their companies. Also, they manage the day-to-day operations and update their company on the team's progress. Their job is to complete their tasks by using all of their available resources including other team members.

Table 6.1 Value added by economic activity, percentage distribution (shares)

Country name	*Year*	*Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing*	*Mining, utilities*	*Manufacturing*	*Construction*	*Wholesale, retail trade, restaurant and hotel*	*Transport, storage and communication*	*Other activities*
Canada	2014	1.69	20.66	10.07	8.01	12.30	7.37	49.97
	2015	2.00	17.81	10.69	8.04	12.49	7.61	52.04
	2016	2.00	17.04	10.66	7.64	12.85	7.75	52.72
	2017	1.90	18.51	10.47	7.90	12.55	7.58	51.57
	2018	1.97	17.79	10.61	7.86	12.63	7.65	52.11
China	2014	8.96	36.47	30.50	7.00	11.47	4.44	31.65
	2015	8.72	34.48	29.51	6.80	11.42	4.44	34.14
	2016	8.44	33.49	28.96	6.72	11.44	4.47	35.45
	2017	7.88	33.91	28.90	6.74	11.25	4.53	35.69
	2018	7.50	33.90	29.07	6.87	11.13	4.50	36.10
France	2014	1.74	14.08	11.47	5.71	12.93	9.45	56.09
	2015	1.79	14.27	11.66	5.48	13.11	9.59	55.75
	2016	1.61	14.08	11.51	5.43	13.15	9.71	56.03
	2017	1.74	13.70	11.22	5.62	13.28	9.81	55.84
	2018	1.83	13.40	10.92	5.62	13.29	9.85	56.02
Germany	2014	1.00	25.47	22.47	4.54	11.15	9.20	48.64
	2015	0.76	25.51	22.65	4.58	11.30	9.18	48.68
	2016	0.78	25.84	23.04	4.70	11.48	9.02	48.19
	2017	0.92	25.76	22.83	4.71	11.61	8.97	48.03
	2018	0.85	25.42	22.65	5.07	11.62	9.02	48.02
Japan	2014	1.06	22.32	19.88	5.58	16.83	10.36	43.84
	2015	1.12	23.63	20.93	5.56	16.41	10.20	43.09

(continued)

Table 6.1 (continued)

Country name	*Year*	*Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing*	*Mining, utilities*	*Manufacturing*	*Construction*	*Wholesale, retail trade, restaurant and hotel*	*Transport, storage and communication*	*Other activities*
	2016	1.22	23.46	20.79	5.61	16.45	10.10	43.17
	2017	1.20	23.53	20.84	5.78	16.55	10.03	42.92
	2018	1.14	22.94	20.40	5.58	16.71	10.18	43.45
South Korea	2014	2.24	32.10	29.46	5.04	10.64	8.20	41.78
	2015	2.18	31.89	29.00	5.34	10.54	8.44	41.61
	2016	2.03	31.73	28.80	5.75	10.62	8.37	41.50
	2017	2.02	31.98	29.46	6.03	10.43	8.04	41.50
	2018	2.00	31.42	29.16	5.92	10.44	7.88	42.35
UK	2014	0.75	14.63	10.52	5.96	13.23	10.57	54.86
	2015	0.70	14.13	10.43	6.21	13.21	10.62	55.13
	2016	0.68	13.64	10.21	6.09	13.41	10.62	55.55
	2017	0.73	13.54	10.07	6.16	13.48	10.76	55.33
	2018	0.71	13.56	9.92	6.08	13.66	10.90	55.11
USA	2014	1.15	16.04	11.70	3.63	14.63	9.58	54.97
	2015	0.99	15.00	11.67	3.82	14.89	9.90	55.40
	2016	0.88	14.25	11.23	3.98	14.77	10.17	55.94
	2017	0.89	14.55	11.19	4.05	14.60	10.23	55.67
	2018	0.81	14.82	11.28	4.08	14.44	10.39	55.46

Note Value added means the net output of one specific sector after adding up all outputs and then subtracting intermediate inputs. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or depletion and degradation of natural resources
Source National Accounts Main Aggregates Database, the United Nation's Statistics Division

Table 6.2 2016 global manufacturing competitiveness: Index ranking by country

Rank (2016)	*Country name*	*Rank (2020)*	*Country name*
1	China	1	USA
2	USA	2	China
3	Germany	3	Germany
4	Japan	4	Japan
5	South Korea	5	India
6	UK	6	South Korea
7	Taiwan	7	Mexico
8	Mexico	8	UK
9	Canada	9	Taiwan
10	Singapore	10	Canada

Source 2016 Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index, Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited and US Council on Competitiveness

Reflecting this situation, team leaders need to be authentic. As authentic people are passionate and motivated, they are more likely to have newer and creative ideas (Amabile & Pratt, 2016; Averill, 1999). Furthermore, their strong drive toward self-verification (Swann, 1987) ensures that others see this innovative self through their efforts to convey their unique perspectives and make sure that they are understandable to others.

Basically, authentic leadership comes from a leader's thoughts and actions, as well as their values, morals, and knowledge of subordinates. Shamir and Eilam (2005) indicated that authenticity leaders have sincerity. Rather than pursuing status, reputation, or other personal interests, they are motivated by their personal faith on behaviors. Authentic leaders respect each individual's personality and identify personal talents to develop into strengths.

According to Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008), authentic leadership is defined as "a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development" (p. 94). There are four key points of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective.

1. Self-awareness is necessary to recognize one's own strengths and weaknesses, and to gain insights into the self through exposure to others. Self-awareness is realizing and clearly perceiving a leader's values, identity, and purposes. This is a concept that includes acting toward a true self based on the perception that one must know oneself and understand their shared vision and belief. Self-awareness changes your world and your situation by giving meaning to the way you see yourself.
2. Relational transparency refers to one's sincere self. The act of relational transparency is committed to minimizing the expression of inappropriate feelings, as well as encouraging trust by expressing sincere thoughts and feelings. Relational transparency and balanced information processing between a leader and team members are viewed as constructs of authentic leadership. Relational transparency indicates that the leader can honestly show their ego to others, including their team members. In other words, the leader can openly talk about and reveal their negative aspects and shortcomings in addition to their positive aspects. Also, relational transparency also allows for "a pattern of transparent and ethical leader behavior" (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009, p. 423), that encourages the disclosure of information-sharing necessary for decision-making.
3. Balanced processing stresses objective analysis and various perspectives regardless of position. Within balanced processing, all relevant data are considered when making decisions, and asking for the opinions of others is regarded highly.
4. Internalized moral perspective refers to the implications of self-regulation. Self-regulation means conducting certain behaviors and regulating such behaviors to minimize the gap between the ideal self and the real ego as established through self-awareness This follows internal moral standards and values over external pressure. Internalized morality acts in accordance with internal moral standards and values at their workplaces.

According to Avolio and Gardner (2005), authentic leaders must be honest and sincere to serve their subordinates best. They demonstrate true affection as they motivate their subordinates to pursue constant changes. An authentic leader leads through their perspectives and thoughts, and may have their own moral standards and methods of self-regulation, but does not pursue only their own values and beliefs.

However, their behaviors and actions can be influenced by their internal values. As a leader's personal traits can be influential to the overall performance and outcomes of a company (Araujo-Cabrera, Suarez-Acosta, & Aguiar-Quintana, 2016), their morality and self-regulation are quite important.

In addition, authentic leadership can affect employees' attitudes, behaviors, and performances. Authentic leaders could understand the passion and affection to their subordinates. In this way, authentic leadership is not only an individual's self-consciousness and relational transparency, but also the positive influence to assimilate changes for organizational development into the team members' own development. Since authentic leadership can contribute to a company's organizational change, it is expected to play a role as an influence variable of change commitment (Zubair & Kamal, 2015).

Traditionally, East Asian countries including South Korea have more paternalistic leadership style which is consisted of fatherly authority, concern, and discipline (Westwood, 1997). Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, and Bautista (1997) also indicated that South Korea has a collectivism dimension influenced more by Confucianism stressing group harmony. However, a new business environment and global economy trend requires a different leadership styles out of paternalistic and group-oriented thinking now. The new global business environment requires more transparent and trustworthy leaders.

Different from transformative leadership and other leadership theories, authentic leadership has a unique characteristic. For an example, both authentic leadership and transformational leadership motivate subordinates to go beyond their self-interest for the purpose of achieving their aims and goals. Authentic leadership stresses the internal qualities of leaders while transformational leadership addresses the way of leaders' interaction with subordinates when achieving the goals of companies. Compared to ethical leadership, authentic leadership focuses more on self-awareness regarding moral values of leaders. However, ethical leadership emphasizes more ethical standards of subordinates. Authentic leadership focuses on increasing subordinates' personal, psychological strength, positive through emotions and job attitudes.

The relationship between leaders and team members is achieved in a balance of social exchange relations. The authentic leader shares their values with team members through positive and high ethical standards. The authenticity of authentic leadership constitutes organizational change because it increases the trust of the leaders and the fairness in the organization.

Agility, Agile Organization, and Global Manufacturing Companies

The increasing intensity of sources of dynamic change in the current business environment brought the growing salience of agility, which measures how companies respond and adjust to external opportunities and challenges (Weber & Tarba, 2014). Intensive globalization, fast technological change, deregulation, and the globalization and mass-customization of both production and consumption have resulted in business environments in which competitive advantages are temporary (D'Aveni, Dagnino, & Smith, 2010).

Global pandemics provide new and distinctive challenges simultaneously, by rearranging the organizational system and its strategy according to environmental changes in a responsive manner (Shin, Lee, Kim, & Rhim, 2015). Providing agility necessitates gathering and implementing newer information and responding to market demands quickly (Kumkale, 2016). Therefore, agility can advance the quality of a company's competitive activity, and relevant responses to changes can improve a company's performance.

Agility is a critical component of organizational development and change (Keister, 2014), and is useful when companies handle their environment and respond to market changes in order to overcome unprecedented threats. Agility can also be viewed as an observable organization performance outcome, which can aid an organization's managers in implementing strategic actions (Doz, 2020). The benefits of workforce agility at global manufacturing companies have not yet been adequately emphasized in research (Holstein & Berry, 1972).

Agile employees have flexibility and responsiveness, which can be helpful for managing and motivating subordinates (Eisenhardt, 1989). Agility includes flexible expertise and resilience in the face of stress and a changing environment, and it remains effective despite the failure of an applied strategy.

Agility also refers to one's ability to function and can help foster positivity for new ideas, skills, attitudes, and uncertain and unexpected circumstances. This will reduce resistances to differences and help with enduring and coping with the many challenges of a dynamic business environment. Agility can create opportunities by reassigning or redefining skills in order to overcome obstacles. According to Alavi (2016), agility can be useful for promoting new products, a combination of products, and proper production as it improves the company's flexibility. Therefore, agility can be beneficial for individual and organizational levels.

According to Tseng and Lin (2011), companies that stress the importance of agility regard changes highly when they face an uncertain business environment. At its core, the concept of agility has four components: (1) responsiveness, or the ability to see/identify changes, to respond quickly, reactively or proactively, and to recover; (2) competency, or the efficiency and effectiveness of an enterprise in reaching its goals; (3) adaptability/flexibility, or the ability to implement various processes and get different goals with the same facilities; and (4) speed/quickness, or the ability to finish an activity within a short time. Sherehiy, Karwowski, and Layer (2007) indicated that agile organizations have adaptability and flexibility, responsiveness, speed, low complexity and integration, mobilization of core competences, and highly qualified and customized products, as well as culture of change. Therefore, these organizations can be more competitive and can be constantly developing.

According to Van Hoek, Harrison, and Christopher (2001), a company's agility can show how quickly the company can respond to changes and requirements, thus demonstrating the core competency for the company's future. Furthermore, according to Yusuf, Sarhadi, and Gunasekaran (1999), agility means special ability of the manufacturing system to fit well to the rapidly changing demands and necessity of their competitive market. At global manufacturing companies, agility can prompt responsiveness in facilities, technologies, strategies, and business processes. Thus, global manufacturing companies should have flexibility to meet customers' needs quickly.

The act of developing and promoting agility would combine all the resources of the agile organization needed to face a changing environment and to create and promote a company's business values within their market (Tseng & Lin, 2011). In this sense, team leaders are asked to maximize their agility for their company's strategy and competitiveness. They need to transform the market requirements based on their agility capabilities.

The study of Lee, Lee, Kim and Lee (2017) indicates that Korean companies stress faster response to their business environment and agility has played a significant role for the overall performance of companies in

South Korea. As agility is related to an ability to find opportunities faster than other rivals, agility is necessary to overcome challenges arising from rapidly changing environments.

What Is Change-Oriented Behavior?

In today's competitive work environment, change-oriented behavior which can enhance innovation becomes more important as the success of global manufacturing company should face dynamic contexts and provide innovative products. These will help to meet the expectations of consumers better as well (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010). The behaviors of leaders can facilitate companies' innovation: Therefore, change-oriented behaviors are stressed for the effectiveness of global manufacturing companies.

Campbell (2018) defined change-oriented behavior as positive collaboration and cooperation among workgroup members. Change-oriented behavior can bring creative and corrective initiatives. Change-oriented behavior is involved with proactivity and adaptivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Leaders with change-oriented behavior would adapt themselves to a new changing work environment and would voluntarily act on new challenges.

Leaders who promote change-oriented behaviors are open for new ways of working and explore undiscovered potentials of subordinate's situations. Also, they are interested in better future and try to introduce changes anticipating situations and environment will be better. There will be something to learn from those changes. All of changes need plans and process to be efficient, and effective leadership is required (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, those team leaders can make a contribution to continuous growth and development based on change-oriented behaviors.

Change-oriented behaviors are particularly more important in the context of South Korea. According to Boduroglu, Shah, and Nisbett (2009), East Asians show lower points at detecting changes than Westerners. This could be disadvantageous for global companies in South Korea which should find out changes and should be successful under dynamic business environment. As a result, companies in South Korea should pay more attention to introduce change-oriented behavior to detect business changes more intensively.

According to Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007), change-oriented behavior causes people's reactions to adapt or drive change. This can be influenced by colleagues who have similar work experiences and can help employees to share knowledge or information, understanding, and cooperation. Change-oriented behavior allows employees to be engaged and to survive from the challenges of work (Baik, Song, & Hong, 2018), and indicates employee efforts to bring innovations using their normal work routines (Bettencourt, 2004; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Research Method

Data Collection and Analysis Method

This study is based on a survey and interview conducted in a specific global manufacturing company located in Seoul, South Korea. A survey by team leaders who are directors or executive directs working at South Korea' global manufacturing company was conducted in early 2020. The intention of the survey would explore the relationship among authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior. Items of authentic leadership based on the scale of Neider and Schriesheim (2011) were transformed into the first-person narrative as team leaders will provide their own responses. The scale used for change-oriented behavior is based on Gary Yukl (1999). Agility is based on the scale of employees' agility adaptability by Alavi, Wahab, Muhamad, and Arbab (2014). All questions were measured on a 5-point scale.

Items about authentic leadership include "I request feedback from others to improve my work," "I know how others look at my abilities," and "I use my beliefs in making decisions." These items are based on Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008).

Survey items about agility include "I request feedback from others to improve my work," "I show consistency between beliefs and actions," "I ask for ideas that challenge my core values," and "I know how others look at my abilities."

Items for change-oriented behavior include "I work with a long-term view of the problems and opportunities facing the organization," "I have a clear vision of what an organization should achieve," and " I can negotiate with people from other departments to get the approval needed to implement important changes." As found in Table 6.3, all of these variables show high Cronbach alpha levels (agility = 0.093, authentic leadership = 0.96, and change-oriented behavior = 0.93).

Table 6.3 Measurement instruments

Variables	*Cronbach* α	*Items*
Agility	.93	3
Authentic leadership	.96	12
Change-oriented behavior	.93	4

Source Authors

Using STATA 14.0, correlation analysis and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were implemented to find out the relationship among authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior.

Demographic Characteristics

The conducted survey was targeted for team leaders who represented and were responsible for teams at a global manufacturing company located in Seoul, South Korea. First, we checked demographic statistics to find out the characteristics of respondents. Most (93.44%) of the surveyed team leaders were male, with female team leaders comprising only 6.56%. Regardless of their gender, all of team leaders were highly educated and 81.97% had bachelor degrees from 4-year universities. 11.48% of team leaders received master's degrees, and 6.56% had doctoral degrees. 93.44% of surveyed team leaders were married, while only 6.56% were single team. Only 3 team leaders have worked for this company for fewer than 20 years, while 36.07% of team leaders have worked for 25–30 years at the company and 27.87% of team leaders have worked for 30–35 years. Team leaders were composed of either directors (77.05%) or executive directors (22.95%). Executive directors were higher than director level and shared a smaller portion than director level. Table 6.4 shows more detailed information.

Results

The results of the correctional analysis among all three variables including authentic leadership, agility, and changed-oriented behavior were statistically significant and showed a meaningful correlation at a significance level of .05 and .01. Table 6.5 has more detailed information.

The overall fit of the structural model was identified as found in Table 6.6. The fit shows relatively acceptable x^2 $(= 33, N = 61) = 67.69$,

Table 6.4 Demographic statistics

	Frequency		*Percentage*	*Mean*	*Standard deviation*	*Minimum value*	*Maximum value*
Gender	Male	57	93.44	1.07	0.25	1	2
	Female	4	6.56				
Education	4-year university	50	81.97	3.25	0.57	3	5
	Master's degree	7	11.48				
	PhD degree	4	6.56				
Marriage	Married	57	93.44	1.07	0.25	1	2
	Single	4	6.56				
Total years of working	Below 20	3	4.92	26.38	4.22	17.75	34.33
	More than 20 below 25	19	31.15				
	More than 25 below 30	22	36.07				
	More than 30 below 35	17	27.87				
Position	Director	47	77.05	5.23	0.42	5	6
	Executive director	14	22.95				

Source Authors

Table 6.5 Correlation

Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. Agility	1	.76***	.63***
2. Authentic leadership	.76***	1	.84***
3. Change-oriented behavior	.63***	.84***	1
M	4.49	4.45	4.27
SD	.90	.66	.62

Note $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$
Source Authors

Table 6.6 Statistics for structural model

	CMIN (x^2)	*Df*	*RMSEA*	*TLI*	*CFI*
Value for structural model	67.69	33	0.14	0.93	0.95

Note CMIN = Minimum Sample Discrepancy; RMSEA = Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index
Source Author

$p < .001$, RMSEA = .01, TLI = .93, CFI = .95). Therefore, it is assumed that the three latent factors can explain the substantial variances.

Figure 6.1 indicates our research model about the relationship among authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior based on the result of our analysis. As found in Fig. 6.1, authentic leadership is positively and directly related to change-oriented behavior (B = .99, $p < .001$) and positively associated with agility (B = 1.14, $p < .001$). But agility is not statistically significant to change-oriented behavior (B = −.23, $p >$ .05) and does not have significant role in this analysis.

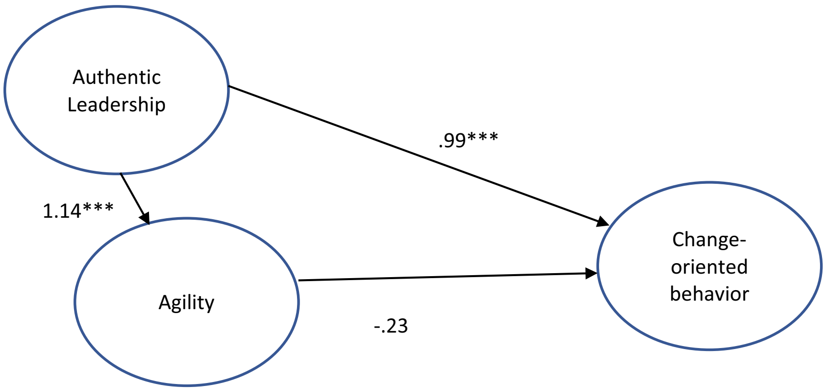

Fig. 6.1 The structural model with standardized estimates (*Note* *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. *Source* Authors)

Implication and Conclusion

When manufacturing companies in Korea focused on growth and development in quantity, leadership focusing on leaders' behavior or characteristics like charismatic leadership could be effective and make a contribution to the success of manufacturing companies' growth and performance.

Under the situation of COVID-19, global manufacturing companies in Korea need leaders with more agile and adaptive characteristics who can take the rapidly changing environment and enact flexible change. A more human-centered approach to leadership can be effective when organizations employ leaders who are willing to take on new challenges, thus leading them to become more effective as authentic leaders. Authentic leaders who have agility can fit the situation and be adaptable to a sudden seismic crisis.

Authentic leaders are constantly growing and learning from their leadership experiences. When they find themselves in entirely new situations, authentic leaders draw upon their true selves, what they have learned in past life experiences, and they learn from their new colleagues. Future studies may consider other factors influencing authentic leadership and agility and provide more elaborate understanding of the relationship among authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior.

Our study demonstrated a positive relationship between authentic leadership and change-oriented behavior, which means authentic leaders have change-oriented behaviors. At South Korea's global manufacturing company, team leaders who exert authentic leadership would pursue more changes when they perform and lead at their teams. Also, our study showed that authentic leadership positively related to agility. This indicates authentic leaders would have a tendency of agility. However, agility is not statistically significant to change-oriented behavior and does not have a meaningful role in the result of our analysis. If team leaders are authentic at South Korea's manufacturing company, they will be more agile and more change-oriented.

Results from this study highlight that emphasizing agility alone cannot be effective to elicit in change-oriented behaviors (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). They signify that team leaders must act under the same standards and values, and to do so their authenticity is essential (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). Team leaders need to behave transparently and to have confidence in their behaviors. The finding that the relationship between agility and change-oriented behavior was not significant implies that more direct intervention to link the two might be necessary. To perform more change-oriented leader actions through agility, team leaders may consider improving the culture of teams. They need to maintain the culture of teams which stresses change and innovation with their confidence (Gil, Rico, Alcover, & Barrasa, 2005).

To support these team leaders, global manufacturing companies in South Korea should possess and implement a policy to provide sufficient supports for team leaders. By establishing a solid leadership development and training system, global manufacturing companies can support and educate team leaders. When that happens, leaders would be able to serve their subordinates with sincerity and to motivate them. Furthermore, leaders should show consistency in their words and actions at their companies.

The paradigm for leadership has been changed to reflect more flexible and adaptive environmental changes. Previously, emphasis laid on the personality and behavior of leaders, but the reality of business under global crisis asks team leaders to have agility and requires to be authentic leaders who have more change-oriented behaviors.

Understanding the relationships among these factors will help global manufacturing companies' leadership development and agility interventions. The results of this study are lined with that of Gill et al. (2018) which stresses the importance of authentic leaders and their ability to adapt to the changing environment.

More discussion is needed to evaluate authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior at other levels within the global manufacturing company. Future studies may add additional factors like gender and job characteristics to studying relationships among authentic leadership, agility, and change-oriented behavior.

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CHAPTER 7

Conglomerates' Corporate Universities: Major Engine Behind the Growth and Success of HRD in South Korea

Kibum Kwon and Johyun Kim

Introduction

The tremendous success of South Korean industrialization can be explained by firms' consistent investments in human capital. South Korean firms have facilitated rapid economic advancement via effective learning processes that encourage employees and organizations to acquire and employ knowledge and skills (Rowley & Warner, 2014). Indeed, firms have developed structured learning-by-doing processes to compete with their global competitors (Bae, Rowley, & Sohn, 2001). As proposed by human capital theory and its focus on the linear relationship between learning and earning, highly skilled South Korean employees contribute to the actualization of the country's economic prosperity (Bae et al.,

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2001; Schultz, 1961). One of the characteristics that distinguishes large South Korean firms' training and development investments from those of other global firms is the operation of corporate universities such as the Samsung HRD Center and the LG Academy (Hemmert, 2012).

In this chapter, we describe the spread of these corporate universities among big conglomerates or "chaebols" in South Korea, as well as the role of the corporate universities in managing organizations' tailored HRD systems and implementing a variety of training and development interventions for branch firms (Hemmert, 2012). Moreover, we illustrate the important role that the corporate universities play as training and development platforms for addressing talent issues in a challenging business landscape. We also discuss how corporate universities' role has evolved over the years, concluding with a discussion of the changing demands and needs of corporate universities as well as important practice and research directions.

Human Capital Theory

Human capital theory emerged in the 1960s within the context of the advancement of the US economy. At that time, economists were struggling to identify the reasons behind the prosperity of the US economy, taking into account existing economic growth factors such as physical capital, labor, land, and management. The unidentified residual factor in income level was ultimately found to be human capital (Nafukho, Hairston, & Brooks, 2004; Zula & Chermack, 2007). Schultz (1961) defined human capital as "the knowledge and skills that people acquire through education and training" and subsequently suggested that "this capital is a product of deliberate investment that yields returns" (as cited in Nafukho et al., 2004, p. 11). Human capital theorists argue that employees with more education are more productive than employees with less education (Wright, Coff, & Moliterno, 2014).

Human capital theory has since been used to justify firms' human capital investments. Becker (1993) suggested breaking down human capital into two types: general human capital, which is applicable to any organizational context, and firm-specific human capital, which is only meaningful within a specific organizational context. Early instances of human capital investment for training and development purposes most often fell within the realm of general human capital, which can be acquired through company-sponsored formal training (e.g., MBA sponsorship, technical certifications, basic soft skills trainings; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Wright et al., 2014).

Firm-specific human capital is generally considered a source of sustainable growth for companies. This type of capital is optimally tailored to the work environment in which it was first cultivated such that it is difficult for competitors to replicate and cannot be perfectly acquired from labor markets (Hatch & Dyer, 2004). Firm-specific human capital, which is a firm's valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable resource, is created through a combination of formal and informal workplace learning. Hence, many organizations promote workplace learning to build and develop employees' abilities to perform critical business processes that are aligned with the organizations' core competencies (Clardy, 2008; Hamel & Prahalad, 1990). Corporate universities have become centers of workplace learning.

The Corporate University

Meister (1998) defined a corporate university as "a centralized in-house training and education facility to address the shortened shelf life of knowledge and to align training and development with business strategies" (p. 1). Allen (2002) suggested that "a corporate university is an educational entity that is a strategic tool designed to assist its parent organization in achieving its mission by conducting activities that cultivate individual and organizational learning, knowledge, and wisdom" (p. 9). Despite numerous attempts to describe corporate universities, the universities' definition and major characteristics remain ambiguous. The role of corporate universities is inevitably multifaceted and highly dependent upon a particular university's purpose and circumstances. In a reflection of their specific purposes, corporate universities adopt various titles, such as "university" (e.g., Disney University), "college" (e.g., ZTE College), "leadership institute" (e.g., Crotonville Leadership Institute), or "training center" (e.g., Lowe's University Training Center).

There are several perspectives on the roles of corporate universities (Kolo, Strack, Cavat, Torres, & Bhalla, 2013). The traditional role of corporate universities is to provide training and development interventions. This traditional role focuses on increasing essential job skills by offering structured lesson plans for all levels of employees. Some corporate universities concentrate on providing leadership development interventions for high-ranking executives, high performers, and high-potential employees after they complete formal training courses. A few others, as the strategic HRD (SHRD) literature shows, expand the role of corporate universities as a training and development platform to aim at strengthening their parent and branch firms' firm-specific human capital by connecting learning in the classroom with performance in the workplace (Clardy, 2008; Kolo et al., 2013). In order to fulfill these changing expectations, corporate universities proactively design talent strategies and implement enterprise-wide programs for talent development initiatives.

Corporate Universities in the South Korean Business Scene

South Korean business activity rapidly increased in the 1980s (average GDP growth rate of 9.8% per year), and there was high demand for qualified employees who possess standardized industrial skills. Beginning in the 1980s, many conglomerates launched corporate universities (Cho, Lim, & Park, 2015). Located primarily in rural metropolitan areas far away from the employees' physical workplaces, these universities provided a variety of training programs that had been imported from US and Japanese companies. The imported programs were modified to help employees develop the required knowledge, skills, attitude, and other characteristics (KSAOs) in accordance with job duty (e.g., sales, production), rank in the organization (e.g., new employees, managers), and management position (e.g., team leaders, executives).

While South Korean businesses in the 1980s were largely dependent on labor-intensive manufacturing industries (e.g., the shipbuilding industry) that needed a skilled workforce, in the 1990s, South Korean businesses became more technologically advanced and jumped into competitive global markets that require cutting-edge technologies (e.g., the semiconductor industry). The challenges that the businesses faced necessitated the development of more firm-specific human capital through training and development interventions tailored to each firm's work environment. Instructional systems design (ISD) and concepts related to HRD were introduced and applied to the training curriculum and program development (Cho et al., 2015). Some HRD practitioners started to study at US universities to learn instructional design and learning technologies. Benchmarking became very popular during this time, as South Korean firms looked to global firms for best practices in managing corporate universities, such as the GE Crotonville Leadership Institute.

However, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) bailout struck corporate universities heavily in 1997. There were severe layoffs in corporate universities and substantial training budget cuts over the subsequent years. Corporate universities came to the painful realization that important training interventions should be connected to corporate strategies and corporate universities should be able to prove the enhanced performance as a result of training and development investment (Kim, Kwon, & Pyun, 2008). Training evaluation models (e.g., Kirkpatrick's training evaluation, return on training investment), action learning, and human performance technologies (HPT) became popular ways of demonstrating the effectiveness of training interventions and thereby justifying the existence of corporate universities (Cho, Bong, & Kim, 2019).

Corporate universities attracted increasing support and interest starting in the mid-2000s (Cho et al., 2015). South Korean businesses became more global and performance-driven, and firms utilized their corporate universities as the primary method of promoting their core values. Corporate universities acted as hubs for defining and implementing the corporate core value initiatives across branch firms in a given conglomerate. In order to systematically manage overall organizational capabilities and align them with individuals' skills development, competency modeling and competency-based HRD systems were widely applied to various programs offered by the corporate universities. After the release of The War for Talent in 2001, talent management and high-potential (Hi-PO) programs became the signature programs of corporate universities (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001).

SWOT Analysis of Corporate Universities in South Korea

Despite the critical roles of corporate universities over the era of industrialization, the current leading global firms do not see a need for the traditional corporate university as an essential business unit that could impact corporate objectives due to rapidly changing knowledge and the emergence of digital/virtual learning environment (Rio, 2018). In order to identify the current state and future direction of corporate universities, we conducted a SWOT (strength, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis.

Strengths: Physical Facilities, E-Learning Infrastructure, HRD Practitioners, and Instructional Design Ability

South Korean firms have invested in corporate universities by establishing excellent physical facilities where instructors and HRD practitioners can devote their full attention to learning and development. Corporate universities have multiple classrooms, making them flexible and adaptable spaces that can be used for various activities that serve different learning objectives. Most corporate universities include e-learning/mobile learning infrastructure, learning/content management systems, and synchronous/asynchronous virtual classrooms. In the optimal learning environment, highly skilled and educated HRD practitioners provide thoughtful learning programs developed using standardized and structured instructional design approaches. As a result, participants trust the quality and application value of the training, workshops, and seminar programs offered.

Weakness: Physical and Psychological Distance from Business Value Chains

The corporate universities' well-appointed facilities ironically act as a double-edged sword that may hinder the HRD functions to be considered as a regular part of the day-to-day business. Phillips (1999) suggested that corporate universities should function as a "process" within a regular business value chain instead of simply a remote and peaceful physical "place" that may fail to meet urgent managerial needs for just-in-time learning. The physical and therefore psychological distance between corporate universities and business value chains promotes a negative perception of corporate universities as cost centers that do not influence firms' bottom lines. This is the principal reason that training and development investment for corporate universities can vary according to high-ranking executives' preferences and the fluctuations of the economy.

Opportunities: Talent Analytics and Retooling of Employees

Contemporary developments in the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) field present an opportunity for corporate universities. The developments in big data, machine learning, algorithmic management, and artificial intelligence are impacting human and organizational cognitive abilities to manage the design and implementation of talent analytics. Particularly, the onset of 4IR has brought high demand for retooling human capital through the process of unlearning, learning, and relearning for workforce development. However, most firms and HR-related departments have struggled to make any progress in creating new talent analytics approaches (Tambe, Cappelli, & Yakubovich, 2019). Corporate universities are urged to actively participate in the discussion on how data science-based talent analytics can guide employees in choosing among learning and development opportunities.

Threat: Workplace Learning

The current 4IR increasingly requires employees to be involved in the nonroutine tasks that require higher-order cognitive skills as well as socio-emotional skills. Workplace learning facilitates employees' acquisition of tacit knowledge for higher levels of task complexity and the development of firm-specific skills. Since the early 2010s, the Association for Talent Development (ATD) has championed the concept of workplace learning (e.g., the 70-20-10 percentage rule). Formal learning can be easily isolated from real-world practices, however, and efforts to transfer training from the corporate universities to the workplace are likely to fail in creating strong connections between the universities and the workplace. Workplace learning occurs on a continual basis and incorporates a wide variety of formal and informal activities that include not only training workshops but also on-the-job experiences, self-directed learning, and learning with leaders and colleagues. The advent of workplace learning has challenged the overall systems of corporate universities, which typically require employees to spend a significant amount of time away from work. Particularly, the recent and rapid growth in employees' use of alternative learning resources such as social media (e.g., YouTube) could be negatively impacting the employees' interest and participation in corporate universities' company-sponsored programs.

Unevenly Distributed Future of Corporate Universities

To leverage the existing strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of corporate universities, it is crucial to understand how the future of corporate universities is already actualized but not evenly distributed.

Corporate Universities as Innovation Laboratories

Contemporary South Korean firms require agile organization systems to cope with the challenges caused by environmental turbulence and ambiguity. An agile organization system favors small-scale actions that produce prompt feedback based on the success and failure of fast strategic executions. These executions necessitate a lean organizational structure that is able to generate quick wins and incremental steps within a short time window, rather than a hierarchical organizational structure that demands well-calculated strategic initiatives requiring multiple levels of approval. In this context, by using their strength in instructional design, corporate universities can act as innovation laboratories where employees can engage in thought experiments and knowledge/feedback exchanges by working through scenarios in a psychologically safe classroom or digital learning environment. These experiences help generate innovative ideas and reveal unforeseen risks from diverse perspectives, thereby enabling firms to cope with rapidly evolving business uncertainty.

Corporate Universities as Strategic Knowledge Management Tools

Although there has been a surge in knowledge created within and outside an organization, group boundaries have made it challenging for a single individual or team to cherry-pick, assimilate, and process all the knowledge aligned with corporate-level strategies and project initiatives. To be effective, more than a few employees need to play the role of knowledge gatekeepers and boundary spanners, filling structural holes in the organization. In a large organization, it is particularly hard for individual employees to access the tacit knowledge, expertise, and emotional or cognitive support needed for novelty tasks. Corporate universities can act as networked learning communities that use task-expertise-person-organization linkages to connect experts, groups, and organizations for intra- and inter-firm learning. To do so, however, the universities' physical resources will need to be either migrated or better integrated with an online environment where on-demand resources can be created, shared, curated, and disseminated more rapidly.

Corporate Universities as Artificial Intelligence for Self-Directed Learning

Competency modeling, a practice that has been widely adopted in South Korean firms, encourages employees to create individual development plans (IDP) on a regular basis along with their yearly performance and competency assessments. Even though programs and resources that help employees to become increasingly self-directed and engaged in professional development are available, more sophisticated and intelligent ways to facilitate employees' learning and development are required. By leveraging emerging artificial intelligence technologies, corporate universities can suggest needs-specific and usage-based resources to improve employees' competency development.

Corporate Universities as In-House Consultancies

Despite the multifaceted role that they have played over time, corporate universities generally focus on the realm of individual development, primarily relying on training interventions in the classroom setting. Given the longstanding emphasis placed on workplace learning, it is time for corporate universities and their experts to bring in-house organization development (OD) consulting to the workplace. OD consulting can be a shared service used to address socio-emotional problems such as poor communication, dysfunctional conflicts, and inefficient workgroup processes that are present in workgroups and organizations.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed how corporate universities have evolved to become firms' main sources of improving their human capital through formal training and development programs. It also considered how changing environments call for a better integration of formal and informal learning and the use of modern data-analytic technologies. Today's employees need to utilize their expertise and knowledge in well-connected and resource-rich environments, and corporate universities should provide not only the physical but also the digital space for coordinated learning. We believe that although structured training and development programs are not likely to go away, the use of innovative learning experiences, knowledge management, talent analytics, and OD consulting will become increasingly common in modern society. The corporate university has an important role to play in designing and implementing optimal workplace learning and performance solutions.

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CHAPTER 8

A New Government-Private Sector Collaboration Model of HRD in Korea: A Work and Learning Dual System Model for Talent Development

Dae Seok Chai, Sehoon Kim, and Minjung Kim

Introduction

The sudden downturn of the market under fluctuations in the global economy such as economic crisis under COVID-19 has put youth unemployment at serious risk (O'Mara, 2020), which can damage a national economy in the long run (Perugini & Signorelli, 2010). Although job

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creation may be the principal issue from a macro-perspective, a micro-perspective highlights the need to develop workforce competency and reduce the skill mismatch between job seekers and the market (Yaldiz, Fraccaroli, & Truxillo, 2017). Talent development (TD) has played a critical role in employment of younger generations.

The economy of South Korea (hereafter Korea) has rapidly developed by planning and investing in TD at the national level through workforce education (Cho & McLean, 2017). Koreans' enthusiasm for education, represented by a high matriculation rate (72%) into higher education, has also contributed to the national economic growth by securing a quality workforce (Lee & Park, 2014). Government-driven workforce education allows younger generations to gain general knowledge and job competencies (Yoon, Hong, & Bae, 2017). However, with recent global economic fluctuations, technology advancement, and low growth of its national economy, government-driven workforce education has led to several challenging issues at the national, organizational, and individual levels.

At the national level, the Korean workforce education has not timely reflected the needs of private enterprises and of younger generations. The workforce education curriculum has not been updated quickly enough to meet the needs of skilled production workers and professionals in high-tech industries, which led to a skill mismatch between prospective employees and the market (Na, 2012). Another challenge is that younger generations delay entering the labor market due to the high matriculation rate, making them over-qualified in formal education but under-qualified in practical competencies (Yoon et al., 2017). This labor supply shortage and the resources spent on over-qualified education have yielded an opportunity cost of US $19 billion per year (Yoon et al., 2017). From an organizational perspective, Korean enterprises have had difficulties to recruit employees who can work immediately due to a skill mismatch; they have spent US $13 billion per year to retrain new employees (Na, 2012). In addition, small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), which accounts for 99.9% of all enterprises and 87.9% of all employees in Korea, have had a difficult time recruiting young employees who tend to avoid working for SMEs. From an individual perspective, families are burdened with the high cost of private education.

To address these issues at various levels, the Korean government and private enterprises have recently created a government-private sector collaboration model called the work and learning dual system (WLDS).

Based on WLDS, the government funds an enterprise to train prospective employees who can eventually obtain a government certification and are employed by the enterprise. The current study aimed to explore how the government-private sector collaboration model, WLDS, operates in the workplace and influences individual learning and organizational performance outcomes. WLDS may provide important implications not only for research on human resource development (HRD) but also on HRD practices through public-private partnerships.

Overview of WLDS

WLDS in Korea has been enforced since 2014 to solve the employment issues at various levels, particularly to the unemployment of younger generations. Therefore, the target population of WLDS is primarily, but not limited to youth (ages 18–24). The general operation process of WLDS has nine stages, as shown in Fig. 8.1. HRD Korea, which is a public organization under Korean Ministry of Employment and Labor, is responsible for selection, supervision, analysis, and rectification of the program (Yoon et al., 2017).

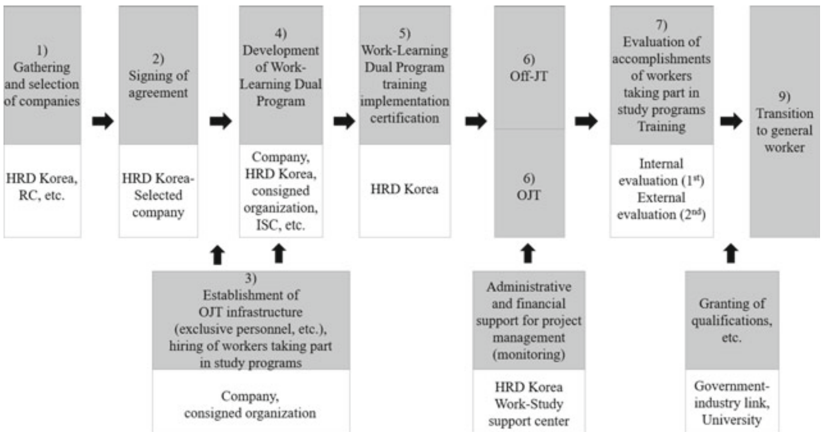

Fig. 8.1 The operation process of WLDS (*Source* Authors)

Selecting Participating Companies

For the selection and continuity for WLDS, a participating company must meet all of the following criteria. The participating company, which must have at least 50 employees, should possess cutting-edge skills in a relevant field, which may require long-term skill development. Depending on the required competencies for a specific job, the time period for WLDS varies from six months to four years with 300 to 1000 hours of training every year (Na, 2013). Employers should also plan to develop their employees, and the company must possess on-site instructors, HRD practitioners, and a partnership with educational institutions to provide both theoretical and practical training. During the training period of prospective employees, the company must provide more than minimum wage to the participants. Last, the company should not be in a bad financial state or numerous industrial accidents.

Development and Certification

The company is responsible to design its WLDS based on the qualifications set up by Korean National Competency Standards (NCS) with support from related professional institutes or experts (Na, 2013). If the NCS-based qualifications have not been developed yet, WLDS must be designed based on the NCS qualifications related to the specific technique (Yoon et al., 2017). Once the program is developed, the certification/credits are determined by HRD Korea.

Evaluation and Employment

The participants are evaluated after training is mostly completed in two steps: internal and external. The participants are internally evaluated after completing over 80% of the program (Yoon et al., 2017). The evaluation methods and time are determined by the company or the partner educational institution. If the participants pass the internal evaluation, WLDS certification is granted (Na, 2013). Then, the participants can apply for an external evaluation consisting of all essential competencies suggested by NCS. The external evaluation has two steps: (1) a written exam with descriptive problems (40 points) and (2) job performance and interview (60 points). Participants with more than 60 points pass the evaluation and acquire a governmental certification (Yoon et al., 2017). After completing WLDS, the participating company must hire the participants.

Current Status

By March 2019, 14,360 companies were selected for WLDS and 81,998 individuals participated in WLDS (Kang & Park, 2019). Most selected companies were SMEs with fewer than 300 employees. The participants consist of students or graduates of vocational high schools (34.1%), graduates from universities (30.0%), college students (18.7%), general high school students (14.7%), and others (2.5%) (Yoon et al., 2017). The majority were in their teens (31.7%) and 20s (44.4%).

Literature Review

To explore and interpret the literature related to WLDS, we define the scope of workplace learning and TD. Garavan, Carbery, and Rock's (2012) key issues in TD were used for a conceptual framework.

Workplace Learning

Workplace learning can be described as a process of acquiring and assimilating competencies that lead individuals to their fundamental behavioral change within specific organizational contexts (Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle, & McGuire, 2002). Learning activities could be distinguished by their locus of control including formal, informal, and incidental. Individuals generally earn degrees, certificates, or credits through formal learning in educational institutions, local communities, or cultural organizations (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Learning from everyday life experiences is considered informal learning, and incidental learning refers to an accidental and unintentional outcome when individuals are aware that learning has occurred (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). In this study, we expect to identify various types of learning activities through WLDS.

Talent Development

Garavan et al. (2012) categorized the limited number of definitions of talent or TD into three approaches: exclusive, inclusive, and hybrid.

From an exclusive perspective, an organization selectively chooses high-potential employees and invests in them to accomplish its vision and drive performance. From an inclusive perspective, an organization plans, selects, and implements development strategies and activities for its entire talent pool to ensure the current and future talent supply accomplish its strategic objectives. A hybrid approach is a mix of the two approaches.

Garavan et al. (2012) found that research has predominantly relied on the exclusive perspective and the meaning of talent and approaches to TD differ on a case-by-case basis. Thus, more studies about TD with the other inclusive or hybrid approaches are needed, which may be in line with the disciplinary values of HRD (Mehdiabadi & Li, 2016). The current study adopted an inclusive approach as well as Garavan et al.'s (2012) key framework, which covers various aspects of a TD initiative and provides specific probing questions to help understand WLDS.

Five Issues in Talent Development

According to Garavan et al. (2012), five key issues must be considered in TD (see Table 8.1). When TD approaches are designed or reviewed, it is important to (1) define the talent for each approach; (2) clarify objectives; (3) identify who plays a key role in each approach; (4) determine the TD process; and (5) establish an effective structure and activities given the conditions. Since the scope of TD may vary by organizational context (Mehdiabadi & Li, 2016), considering multifaceted concepts and constitutions of the approaches may help us understand WLDS practices in this study.

Research Methods

To explore how WLDS works and its influence on learning and performance outcomes at various levels, we used a qualitative research design that aims to understand people's experiences (Merriam, 2009). We conducted interviews as the primary data collection method and collected documents from HRD Korea, responsible for the implementation of WLDS.

Table 8.1 Key issues of talent development

Dimension	*Description*
Definition of talent	Organizations or program managers should define who are included in the pool of talent for a particular talent development approach. The definition can be exclusive or inclusive
Purposes of TD	Why the TD approach is needed should be clarified. The purpose can be to increase technical skills or generic abilities
The subject of needs and responsibility	The TD approach requires clear identification of whose demands and responsibilities are important. The main subject can be employees, employers, or both
Pace of approach	Organizations or program managers should make a plan for how the TD approach will be proceeded. The pace can be accelerated which can achieve the outcome in a short time or traditional which usually takes several years
The architecture	The structure and detailed activities included in the talent development approach. This may include how to incorporate various needs for TD, how to design activities (e.g., formal, informal), customization, and timing

Source Adapted from Garavan et al. (2012)

Data Collection

According to Campbell and Lambright (2016), it is critical to identify and incorporate various constituencies in data collection. TD programs are likely to involve numerous relationships with stakeholders, who may have distinct interests and perspectives. To better understand WLDS, we collected data from various stakeholders of WLDS: participants, employers, on-site instructors, HRD practitioners, and staff from HRD Korea. These stakeholders may have different viewpoints about WLDS, experience, and expected outcomes from WLDS.

A criterion sampling was used for richness and quality assurance of data (Merriam, 2009) using the following criteria. First, we selected private enterprises that had implemented WLDS for more than two years, so the interviewees had adequate opportunities to experience WLDS. The participants must have engaged in WLDS for more than six months. After

Table 8.2 Interview questions

Eight main interview questions
• What were the reasons to participate in WLDS work-learning ? • How was your overall experience in the WLDS program? • What were the positive and negative outcomes of the WLDS program? • Were you satisfied with the outcomes? Why or why not? • How can WLDS be improved? Why? • What types of learning have you experienced? • How has WLDS benefited the stakeholders? • Do you have anything to share regarding your WLDS experience?

Source Authors

contacting more than 10 organizations, three agreed to participate in this study: one service and two manufacturing companies. One company had less than 100 employees, another had 100–1000, and the third had 1000–5000. The companies' HR practitioners recruited and introduced interview candidates to us. Before each interview, we sent an email with the interview questions, which are listed in Table 8.2.

A total of twelve people were interviewed for an hour to two: seven participants, two instructors, two HRD practitioners, and one employer. Nine were male and three were female. Follow-up questions were asked to ensure that the critical aspects of their experiences were well articulated. All interviews were transcribed in Korean first and only key codes illustrated as themes and direct quotes were translated into English later. Documents related to WLDS were also acquired from HRD Korea since documents can be a great source of data (Merriam, 2009).

Data Analysis

After the interviews were transcribed, the themes were extracted using a qualitative content analysis approach (Merriam, 2009). For this approach, we carefully read the participants' narratives and constructed categories using "open coding" (Merriam, 2009, p. 178). After working through the twelve transcripts in this manner, we examined our marginal notes and codes/categories and grouped them. Finally, we examined how each code was associated with our framework that involved Garavan et al.'s (2012) TD key issues. For verification, we jointly conducted the coding procedures and reconciled any discrepancies through discussion until consensus was reached. For quality assurance, a member check (Patton, 2015) was conducted to determine whether the themes from the interview transcripts were identical to what the interviewees shared. For any inaccuracy, the transcripts were revisited and revised. Investigator triangulation (Patton, 2015) was also implemented. Initially, the respective analyses of the derived codes were conducted by one author and then confirmed by the other authors. When there were disagreements, they were discussed until consensus was reached.

Findings

The findings are structured according to Garavan et al.'s (2012) key issues of the TD program (see Table 8.1).

Definition of Talent in WLDS

One of the criteria for the selection of a participating company in WLDS was that the employer should have an overall employee development plan. In addition, since a majority of the participating companies were SMEs that had difficulty securing and retaining skillful talent, WLDS satisfied the participating companies' strategic HR planning; the WLDS participants were future employees of the participating companies. The on-site instructors were high-potential employees and experts in specific skills, and were personally able to reflect, learn, and develop while transferring their tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge as they taught. All of the activities and approaches matched the inclusive TD definition. One of the instructors described his experience:

> Since I should teach what I have done, I had to reflect on my experience and skills, and explore relevant academic knowledge. It was a great opportunity for me to develop and conceptualize my knowledge and skills.

Purposes of WLDS

WLDS emphasizes developing technical competencies of talents while it aims to provide prospective employees with systematic training and development sessions to raise their job-related competencies and soft skills required in the workplace. However, several instructors shared that WLDS also gave them an opportunity to develop their leadership, coaching, and communication skills; instructors must take sequential courses regarding leadership, coaching, and communication. As they transfer their experience and competencies, they also implement what they learn. In this sense, WLDS offers both the participants and on-site instructors an opportunity to develop their technical competencies and soft skills.

Needs and Responsibilities

Although WLDS was designed to solve unemployment and skill mismatch issues at various levels in Korea, it was also primarily designed to meet the needs of the participating companies. For example, on-site training program is driven by the needs of the company rather than of the participants. WLDS satisfies needs from SMEs: securing and retaining skillful younger talent. The interviewed employer described the following benefits:

> After implementing WLDS, our company could reduce the high costs for recruitment, selection, and retraining. The retention rate of the new recruits has also improved significantly by 75%. Our company was also able to redesign our TD or HRD plan systematically. Above all, both productivity and the total sales have increased by 25%.

The employer's resource-based view justified the company's investment in TD to potentially capitalize on business opportunities and facilitate expansion (Garavan et al., 2012). It was from an organizational perspective on WLDS as a potential source of competitive advantage since it was connected with positive outputs. WLDS also meets the individual needs. Almost all WLDS participants in this study indicated that WLDS was a great opportunity to develop their competencies as well as careers. Since they were employed in the participating companies, WLDS satisfied the need for career management and employability of the younger generations.

Pace

WLDS can be categorized as an accelerated approach. Traditional TD approaches are passive, slow (i.e., 5–7 years), and emphasize experiential learning whereas accelerated TD approaches emphasize the talent's competency for performance and reduce the learning time with intensive and structured learning experiences (Garavan et al., 2012). Almost all participants could develop their competencies within two years. They interacted with the on-site instructors and other employees, broadened their network in the company, and learned about the company.

Architecture

A TD program should be structured based on the needs of TD, developmental pathways, effective HR systems, and blended developmental strategies (Garavan et al., 2012).

Needs of TD
All of the participating companies faced training issues such as competency mismatch and required additional resource investment for new employees, so they had a clear need to recruit and develop talent. Each company developed its own competency model based on the qualifications from Korean NCS and utilized a specific competency model to articulate its talent needs and evaluate its WLDS. The companies could also develop and motivate experienced and skillful employees as instructors through WLDS. The interviewed employer shared, "My company recognized the instructors in front of other employees and compensated them for the time they spent on WLDS."

Developmental Pathways
TD pathways include developmental experience, exposure, and challenges (Garavan et al., 2012). The WLDS participants had various experiences. One of the participants described his experience:

> By acquiring necessary skills and knowledge, I could interact with my instructor and other employees. Since I was the youngest, they described the do's and don'ts and tips to adjust to the company culture quickly. Before WLDS was completed, I knew everyone in the company already.

The participant understood the organizational culture, developed a broader perspective, enhanced cultural awareness, and built relationships to enhance networking skills, which Garavan et al. (2012) described as the experience dimension of the developmental pathways. As prospective employees, the participants were exposed to diverse contexts and situations. One participant shared his experience:

> I couldn't understand the job description, characteristics, and environment before participating in WLDS. After learning from the instructor and practicing with real tools and facilities, I could apply what I learned in various contexts.

Finally, since the participants learned new skills and worked in the participating company during WLDS, all tasks were challenging. The participants learned from mistakes and failures, dealt with stressful situations, and recognized personal limitations.

Effective HR Systems

In cooperation with HRD Korea, the participating companies established their HR systems to support WLDS. To be selected, the companies should have a talent development plan. Once the program was completed, the companies and HRD Korea evaluated the participants' competencies and provided certification or credits, and the companies were committed to employing the participants. Without aligning the HR practices with their business strategies, the companies would not be selected for or would fail to continue WLDS. This regulation allowed WLDS to integrate an advanced level of talent. In practice, however, several HRD practitioners shared that it was quite difficult to design their WLDS to align with Korean NCS because some NCS-based qualifications had not been developed. They also had difficulty maintaining WLDS because its regulations and policies have been revised several times.

Programs to Enable TD

The instructors, HRD practitioners in the company, professors in educational institutions, and experts of NCS in HRD Korea collaborated to design the WLDS program. Therefore, each program had several formal learning elements, including lectures. Since the participants learned and practiced specific job-related skills for the first time, the participants increased their job scope, implemented change, and developed new practices. Interactions with on-site instructors and other employees could be considered relationship-based TD interventions. One of the participants described it as follows:

> Since I had a mentor in the company as a part of WLDS, I interacted with him, not only for the skill acquisition, but also for the comprehension of the organizational culture and the development of my vision in this company. Through WLDS, I was able to shorten my learning and working time with better productivity and adjust to the company quickly.

Finally, several participants and instructors shared their informal learning opportunities. They learned job-related skills that were originally not planned in WLDS while working with the instructor and dealing with various situations and variables. One of the participants described this advantage:

> The advantage of WLDS I had was immediate feedback. The on-site instructor immediately answered questions and provided feedback when I had difficulties in certain tasks. When the instructor had never thought about the issue, we solved the issue together. So, I was able to develop technical agility to deal with various situations.

For teaching, the instructors recognized their own tacit knowledge to teach some unplanned content. They had to adapt to the circumstances and extemporaneously prepare the curriculum and teach the participants.

Outcomes

In addition to the findings of the current study based on the key dimensions of TD, we identified several WLDS outcomes from the perspectives of multiple stakeholders. From the participants' perspective, they could become employed. Most job seekers in Korea spend a long time acquiring unnecessary qualifications after graduating from high school or a university. However, the WLDS participants received TD training in a company and jobs for which they were responsible. By being employed early, the participants could also achieve economic independence.

From an organization's perspective, SMEs could hire talented youth who had qualifications through WLDS approved by the government and further develop them to become core talent for the companies. Furthermore, it is expected that the new recruits with necessary skills and knowledge would have higher levels of organizational commitment and retention. Due to the relevant OJT, the mismatch issue between employers' needs and employees' capabilities was also resolved by WLDS. The interviewed employer described this trend:

> Securing skillful employees was one of the most critical issues. We had younger employees who just graduated from universities, but we should retrain them. Due to WLDS, we can secure skillful employees, save resources, and reinvest in them through a TD system for other employees.

The participating companies could also significantly reduce the expenses of retraining new employees. Once a company was selected for WLDS, the Korean government agencies provided funds and support for the necessary training expenses for the participants. On the negative side, several instructors and HRD practitioners shared that they dealt with the increased teaching and managing workload in addition to their original jobs due to WLDS. In addition, some NCS qualifications did not match the needed competencies for SMEs. More importantly, one of the HRD practitioners shared some negative outcomes:

> My employer was initially uncomfortable allowing the participants to learn and work at the same time because we should pay them. Other employees who should take care of the participants' tasks for their educational sessions complained about their additional tasks. We also dealt with complaints from current employees who did not have developmental opportunities. Above all, those participants who completed WLDS often got a job in one of our competitors' companies or quit for their mandatory military service. Since we spent time and effort to develop them, it became our huge loss.

From the Korean government's perspective, WLDS addressed several social issues. By creating a soft transition from a high school or university to a stable job, WLDS could improve the youth employment rate and create a more stable job market. Ultimately, it is expected that competency-based education, evaluation, certification, employment, and HR systems will pave the way to establish a competency-based society from the current social atmosphere that considers one's educational background as more important than job training. One participant shared her impression.

> Through WLDS, the company has recognized me as a critical future talent and provided opportunities of early promotion and an excellence award. WLDS is the way to move toward a competency-based society and I was very proud of myself.

Discussion

Economic and social issues have called for a new approach to developing talent at the individual, organizational, and national levels. To address these issues, a new government, private sector collaboration model was designed and implemented in Korea. Our study explored WLDS and its influence on learning and performance outcomes at various levels through interviews with multiple stakeholders and documents from relevant agencies. The findings were presented within the key dimensions of TD by Garavan et al. (2012), and the outcomes were described from multiple stakeholders.

We found several advantages of WLDS. Employers expected to hire qualified employees and develop their competencies that are crucial for organizational performance and sustainability. Partnerships with the government, employers, educators, on-site instructors, and HRD practitioners may be effective to address major issues in the Korean labor market. Employers' active involvement helped design practical and effective programs. The participants could develop their abilities and learn about their jobs and organizations. WLDS and support provided by the government may also contribute to national HRD (NHRD) that involves workforce, economic, and social development at the national level (Alagaraja, Kotamraju, & Kim, 2014).

Our study also revealed challenges for WLDS. Many participating organizations struggled to secure on-site instructors due to a lack of qualified candidates and difficulty finding temporary replacements for employees who took on the instructor role. When these employees become part-time WLDS training participants, an increased workload may not be avoidable. The limited resources from participating SMEs should be significantly considered when preparing WLDS (Nolan & Garavan, 2016). As a new initiative, WLDS still faces challenges and often makes mistakes that cause confusion and complications. In particular, the one-size-fits-all approach tends to confuse SMEs or non-manufacturing organizations due to the mismatch between NCS qualifications and the required competencies. Hence, the match between the organizations' demands and the governmental plan should be an ongoing focus (Alagaraja et al., 2014).

Theoretical Implications

We explored various voices related to WLDS considering multiple constituencies (Campbell & Lambright, 2016). From an individual perspective, we found that various types of workplace learning take place for WLDS. Marsick and Watkins (1990) included all experiences and learning activities as part of workplace learning and categorized learning as formal, informal, and incidental learning. The participants engaged in all three types of learning as they observed what the instructor did, learned conceptual knowledge from the professors in educational institutions, practiced what they learned in the companies.

According to Ellstrom (2001), five factors are related to these types of learning. First, tasks related to learning should be complex, different/new, and important to learners. The competencies the participants learned were cutting edge (complex and new), and the participants had never practiced with tools and facilities (new and different) before WLDS. They were also employed and able to immediately use the learned competencies (importance). The instructors also learned as they prepared the lessons and interacted with the participants. Second, opportunities for feedback, evaluation, and reflection on the outcomes are critical for participants to learn (Ellstrom, 2001). These factors were included when WLDS was initially designed for each company, and several of the participants shared that they had these opportunities in practice. Ellstrom (2001) also emphasized the formalized work process. Since the participating companies, the educational institutions, and HRD Korea jointly designed their WLDS, they formalized the competencies through WLDS. This practice is also aligned with the trend of workplace learning, as WLDS was customized (Garavan et al., 2012). As the participants learned, worked, and reflected while interacting with the instructor, both the participants and the instructor customized the learning process. Fourth, as the participants practiced what they learned by themselves, they were confronted with problems that they had not yet learned. For this process, they learned how to handle problems and developed their own work processes. Several participants shared that they could develop technical agility to deal with new situations. The last factor is the learning resources that were provided from multiple sources including instructors, HRD practitioners, and professors. In conclusion, WLDS integrates learning and work thoroughly, which helps the participants and instructors experience diverse types of learning.

On-site instructors experienced knowledge creation processes (Nonaka, von Krogh, & Voelpel, 2006). As the instructors designed OJT, they reflected on their own experience and practice (e.g., tacit knowledge). Through this process, the tacit knowledge of the instructors was captured as explicit knowledge (Nonaka et al., 2006). The informal and self-directed learning of the instructors took place through personal reflection as they became active agents who controlled the learning processes with a full locus of control (Garavan et al., 2002).

The participating companies (mostly SMEs) benefitted the most from WLDS. Overcoming size-related issues is quite strategic because they cannot continue their businesses without skilled talent. Based on the findings, the participating organizations could (a) recruit skilled talent, (b) retain them, (c) increase job satisfaction of the talent, and (d) enhance their performance and productivity. According to Fenwick (2008), when individuals recognize their own work-related knowledge and skills and an organization values them, they develop a sense of identity in the organization, which is positively related to adjustment in a different culture and increases other positive outcomes (Gresham & Clayton, 2011).

Positive organizational outcomes from WLDS have been supported by several empirical studies. Ritter, Matthews, Ford, & Henderson (2016) argued that employees' job satisfaction increases when they understand their jobs before employment. The WLDS participants learned their jobs before they were fully employed. Curran and Prottas (2017) suggested that employees who understand the job description and characteristics are more engaged in their work. WLDS is also significantly related to positive outcomes from the government's perspective because it increases youth employment rates, lowers the employment age, and establishes a competency-based society.

Practical Implications

The findings offer several practical insights for multiple stakeholders. First, WLDS could be a tool to handle the issue of a skill mismatch and youth unemployment. By developing early job entry conditions for youth through WLDS, SMEs can address the talent shortage. Continuous and systematic support after WLDS also enhances the capabilities and retention of the newly hired talent who participate in WLDS. This beneficial cycle strengthens the competitiveness of individuals and companies, which may lead to national economic development. To maintain and increase the outcomes, HRD practitioners and employers should strategically and systematically improve their TD programs and cooperate with relevant governmental agencies.

Since several instructors and HRD practitioners take on more WLDS tasks in addition to their current tasks, systematic interventions must be designed and implemented. The Korean government could maintain and develop WLDS further and even establish a long-term vocational training system to further enhance these positive outcomes and eventually solve the ongoing social issues. Therefore, government agencies may revise the current WLDS policies and procedures to support multiple stakeholders and manage participating companies to ensure that they continue to follow the policies and procedures. These improvements can be incorporated when the benefits of WLDS are advertised broadly. For this strategic and marketing reason, active participation from large companies can lead to increased awareness from the public and can substantially increase the number of youth employees. WLDS could develop a coexisting model that includes not only SMEs, but also encourages large and high-potential companies to actively participate.

Regarding the operation of WLDS, the paradigm should shift from process management to performance-based support. Since the current WLDS operation is primarily funded by the government, intensive management and supervision are necessary. From a long-term perspective, administrative supervision and assessment should be reduced, and the positive outcomes from WLDS and the achievement of learning objectives should be used as criteria for further support.

Since over 75% of the participants in WLDS fall into two age groups, teens and 20s, training this group helps lower the youth unemployment rate. Prospective employees in the middle and older years (about 24%) can also easily adapt to new job-related skills and knowledge through WLDS. Thus, WLDS may significantly help make the Korean labor market more flexible.

WLDS also benefits individual participants' career development. By participating in WLDS, young employees can experience work-related tasks, explore what they pursue, and to plan their career path. The organization may suggest possible career options for the young workforce, so they can envision themselves in the organization. Instructors can also use WLDS to develop their leadership skills such as coaching, mentoring, communication skills, and performance evaluation. WLDS may be more effective if organizations select instructors from the manager candidate pool to develop their leadership skills and experience.

Finally, in addition to saving training expenses and developing talented young employees and future leaders, the organization can take advantage of WLDS as it promotes knowledge management. Through WLDS, critical knowledge and skills are shared and transferred from instructors to young novices. Knowledge management can take place formally or informally, but if there is an organized and structured system, WLDS will be a strong resource to manage knowledge within the organization.

Future research can include larger samples for generalization using a quantitative approach to measure the effectiveness of WLDS. In addition, future research focusing on experiences of a particular party in a certain WLDS process may add thorough and rich knowledge about WLDS. If a similar program to WLDS is launched in other countries, it would be interesting to explore the cultural, structural, and administrative differences in terms of processes, policies, and learning and performance outcomes. Last, future research may consider collecting longitudinal data that involve the advantages, challenges, and problems for multiple consecutive years to better understand WLDS and more precisely assess its effectiveness.

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PART III

Contemporary Issues and Trends

CHAPTER 9

Human Resource Analytics in South Korea: Transforming the Organization and Industry

Seung Won Yoon, Chungil Chae, Sungjun Kim, Joonghak Lee, and Youngchan Jo

Introduction

The era of digital transformation in the workplace is here, and from here on out, will only intensify further. Organizational leaders are increasingly accepting that organizations can survive and expand only at their innovative capacity. To innovate continuously, these firms need to attract and retain their best talents. A company's best talents are those who can

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deliver expected results repeatedly, continuously learn, and most importantly, create synergistic effects when working with others. However, these talents do not come cheap. Attracting, evaluating, and rewarding these talents requires capital, time, and development investments, and organizations need to become more data savvy when hiring them.

Behind fast-paced changes in the business and work environments of the modern world are powerful new technologies, such as cloud computing, mobile applications, social media, and IoT (Internet of Things), a system of connected devices that allows the transfer of data without human interaction. Leaders have always been on the lookout to increase work innovation by leveraging technologies to enhance the quality and productivity of work while reducing cost. Within and for HR, leaders are recognizing that data for identifying, developing, and managing talents is growing inside as well as outside of the organization.

In HR, before the age of the Internet, technology played major roles in areas of e-learning, human resource information systems (HRIS), and knowledge management. More recently, social media and collaboration tools were added to the suite of influential HR technologies (Waddill & Marquardt, 2011). The problem is, each of these technologies has been led by different work groups, for instance, e-Learning by HRD, HRIS by HRM, and business and work collaboration applications by IT, which has resulted in a disconnected implementation of learning and information systems (Ardichvili & Yoon, 2009). Although vendors tout more integrated systems of work and sharing, standalone systems are still prevalent and the demand for more system integration is high. HR holds the key for successful use of technologies by addressing issues of organizational readiness, culture, and regulatory and legal issues (Waddill & Marquardt, 2011). The latest addition to the growing toolbox of powerful technologies includes data analytics (Yoon, 2018).

The current landscape of business and workplace environments described above shows that HR needs to deliver value to the organization by improving the learning, development, and performance of employees, and to do so, the interests in and use of data analytical approaches are rapidly growing. Various names are used to describe data analytical approaches including HR-, talent-, workforce, and people analytics. The data science literature has established several models and frameworks well accepted for analyzing data. For instance, Wickham and Grolemund's (2016) model consisting of data importing, wrangling, comprehending (through iterative cycles of data transformation, visualization, and modeling), and communicating is widely accepted among data scientists. The Cross Industry Standard Process for Data Mining (CRISP-DM, Shearer, 2000 cited in Provost & Fawcett, 2013) is another example. Lastly, the continuum of descriptive, diagnostic, predictive, and prescribed analytics represents the maturity of HR analytics (Dearborn & Swanson, 2017).

However, our diagnosis of where and how HR is practicing data analytical approaches indicates that both awareness and adoption must improve. Although more HR and organizational leaders acknowledge the growing importance of data analytical approaches, common and desirable practices are not well-known. At the same time, success stories of innovative HR data analytical approaches are mostly anecdotal with a very narrow scope, such as the cost reduction in resume processing through the use of artificial intelligence. In these backdrops, this chapter presents common challenges and issues in implementing HR analytics followed by two exemplary practices, one for the leader and talent development, and the other for integrating informal learning with work. Two additional topics of (a) major methods and algorithms, and (b) organizational considerations for successful HR analytics were added to form the following research questions.

1. What are common challenges and issues experienced when HR analytics are implemented in organizations?
2. Which approaches and techniques are common and important for HR analytics?
3. Through two cases of common HR analytics, one for leader and talent development, and the other for learning, what can we learn?
4. What are organizational issues (e.g., policy, governance, culture) to successfully implement and diffuse data analytical HR?

Research Methods

In examining these research questions, we combined elements of case study, phenomenology, literature review, and documents and artifacts analyses. Although bracketing (efforts to remove the authors from the contexts) in phenomenology was not addressed, questions were formed focusing on lived experiences of all contributors performing the role of data analyst, HR practitioner, and analytics project leader. Through three video conferences, the most illustrative cases were identified and examined for scope, clarity, effectiveness, impacts, challenges, and lessons learned. The initial meeting identified topics of common analytics techniques, exemplary cases, and organizational issues for the chapter, and the order and scope of questions was revised through later meetings—starting with common experiences associated with HR analytics, an overview of popular and promising techniques, illustrative examples experienced by the team, and finally our collective discussion of what to consider for successful organization-wide implementation and diffusion.

Common Challenges and Issues

Common Misunderstanding

It is important to start this section by discussing the most common misunderstanding related to HR analytics and how HR analytics has become prominently important. The prominence of data analytical HR can find its root from three traditions. First was the growing popularity of evidence-based management (EBM) in the mid-2000s (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006; Rousseau, 2006). Adopting EBM's principles, Google's People Operation team started analyzing HR data in 2008 to make promotion and succession planning (Bock, 2015). Secondly, the term "big data" became extremely popular after 2010s (Bughin, Chui, & Manyika, 2010), and analyzing both the internal and the external data together came to be recognized as critical for finding business opportunities and insights (King, 2016). Most recently, the explosive growth of machine learning and artificial intelligence has made HR analytics even more popular as seen in the hiring scene (Upadhyay & Khandelwal, 2018).

These backdrops about the birth and growth of HR analytics driven by trends of big data, machine learning, and AI seem to have caused many leaders and HR professionals to mistakenly believe that HR analytics has to involve large amounts of data. For instance, we frequently encounter statements, such as… "Well, our survey only had about two to three hundred responses… can we still call this analytics?" or "There are only about fifty people in the entire organization… do we even need HR analytics?" Most importantly, leading scholars emphasize that the fundamental principle of data analytical HR is evidence-based management (Marler & Boudreau, 2017). In contrast to the common belief about the efficacy of big or quantitative data, small yet relevant data (Ducey et al., 2015) or qualitative data can be even more powerful and effective (Bodie, Cherry, McCormick, & Tang, 2017; Briner, Denyer, & Rousseau, 2009).

Common Barriers: Silos, (Mis)Trust, and Access

HR work has been traditionally performed under organizational silos due to the critical concern about confidentiality (English, Manton, & Walker, 2007). Common HR functions, such as reviewing applicants' information (Harris, Van Hoye, & Lievens, 2003), utilizing personnel evaluation data (Wimer & Nowack, 1998), implementing succession planning (Rothwell, 2011), and downsizing (Mishra, Spreitzer, & Mishra, 1998) treated confidentiality as the most important factor in HR work. HRD interventions, such as mentoring and coaching, were no different. Such programs commonly required a confidentiality contract among program participants and the HR unit (Veale & Wachtel, 1996).

The tradition and convention of respecting confidentiality within each own entity is working as a major barrier toward implementing HR data analytics (Davenport, Harris, & Shapiro, 2010; Rasmussen & Ulrich, 2015). Our experiences from company A support this observation. In this company, several units operated under the chief human resource officer (CHRO) and the chief learning officer (CLO). These two divisions did not work well together because their unit leaders were competing with each other. When the CEO emphasized digital transformation as the corporate core strategy, both leaders implemented a data integration project on a cloud HR system, but denied access privilege to the other unit.

One HRD department at company B developed a leadership assessment tool for its about one hundred managers. They collected data from the managers, their peers, supervisors, and supervisees, and at the end of the year they attempted to connect the analysis results to the managers' key performance indicators (KPIs). However, they were told that KPI data are confidential and cannot be distributed outside the business unit. This limitation to the actual performance data is contrasting to that in Google where the people analytics team could examine the linkage between the leaders' behaviors and attitudes with their actual performance (Bock, 2015).

In another case, a large global company C that has about thirty enterprises implemented HR analytics training for thirty top performers out of more than six hundred HR professionals. This ambitious project with a strategic goal to improve the competency of HR professionals' data analytical skills was designed as a 10-day workshop program. Needs analysis was also performed to identify important HR issues and related data sources in each business unit. However, request to obtaining data was rejected because of the following particular reasons: privacy, restricted data, and not wanting others to find their Achilles' heels.

Standalone Analytics Team

Organizations that run an HR analytics team consisting of cross-functional members are rare. Most companies create a central people analytics team, and this team frequently runs into an unintended conflicting situation with HR functions in other business units. During 2014–2016, many large conglomerates in South Korea created a people analytics team in the headquarter, and many of them started with projects analyzing corporate internal data that were accumulated for a long time. Submitted resumes among applicants were the most common dataset. People analytics teams acquired data from the recruiting team and examined what characteristics are noticeable among the finalists as well as high performers. In doing so, they also validated selection tools, such as personality and aptitude tests, interviews, and in-basket exercises, and reported recommendations to the CHRO and the recruitment team. However, the recruitment team became very defensive and considered the analytics team's work as imposing. Eventually, the report was buried.

Although the analytics team's work rarely intends to reveal weaknesses of other units, the very nature of their work plays the role of monitoring and evaluative functions. Our experiences tell us that one effective approach to addressing resistance from business units or their HR unit is to hand them over the ownership of any HR analytics project. The central HR analytics team indeed analyzes data, but the business unit owns the data and what to do with recommendations from the HR analytics team. The central analytics team or analyst must understand that his or her role is to assist with the needs of the business unit, and the analytics project is a process of collaborative problem-solving. To do so, close communication and collaboration from the beginning of the project until the end is important. More specifically, the analyst or the analytics team must discuss and agree together on issues spanning appropriate research design, relevant data sources, proper analyses, practical meaning of findings, and application points.

Application Perspectives on HR Analytics

The last challenge we commonly experience is a blind-sided trust about what data informs. We believe that using evidence-based decisions is most effective when people make informed decisions using data. One good example is the prediction model for promotion at Google (Ratanjee, 2019). The company used to bring senior engineers all over the world to the headquarters in California twice a year and have them evaluate the promotion candidates for several days. In order to reduce the opportunity cost, they created a decision model, which showed over 90% prediction accuracy. However, the leadership team stopped using the model advocating that people should make promotion decisions (D'Onfro, 2014).

Large conglomerate "A" in Korea had a similar experience. The company created a performance and promotion prediction model, but after intensive reviewing, they abolished it. They concluded that any prediction model is based on past records, but C-level leaders' performances are greatly influenced by new and changing environments (Hambrick, Finkelstein, & Mooney, 2005). They concluded that promotion decisions are made similarly in view of competencies aligned with expected changes and strategies, which is rarely reflected in a prediction model. Even though these models were never put into use, the analytics work was not wasted. The company applied findings from the analytic work to modify the contents of leader competencies and related training programs. More importantly, the culture of using HR analytics to support managerial decisions became a normal routine within the company.

In another case, company C developed a coaching program for its over five hundred managers. Because of the substantive investment, the HRD department wanted to show evidence to the top management and requested help from the people analytics team. The HRD department and the analytics team discussed research design, measurement, and applications together, and the result was very successful. They concluded that the primary success factor was the HRD departments' taking ownership of the project and saw the supporting and contributing role of the analytics team clearly.

Major Approaches and Techniques

Marler and Boudreau (2017) defined HR analytics as an HR practice that uses integrated information technology, particularly descriptive, visual, and statistical analysis for data-driven decision-making on HR-related business questions and issues. The word analytics finds its origin from Latin and Greek, which implies dissecting and separating the whole into parts. With the development in methodology and increasing computing power, more diverse methods than traditional inferential statistics are available, such as machine learning, text mining, social network analysis, and mixed-method approaches. Indeed, many examples of empirical studies and cases of analytics research can be found as the following examples show: hiring sources and organizational performance outcomes (Bidwell, 2011), managerial competencies and individual- or site-level performance (Levenson, Van der Stede, & Cohen, 2006), socioeconomic characteristics and turnover (Madariaga, Oller, & Martori, 2018), and unit level service climate and unit effectiveness (Ployhart, Weekley, & Ramsey, 2009). Figure 9.1 shows how various types of data are used for descriptive or predictive purposes.

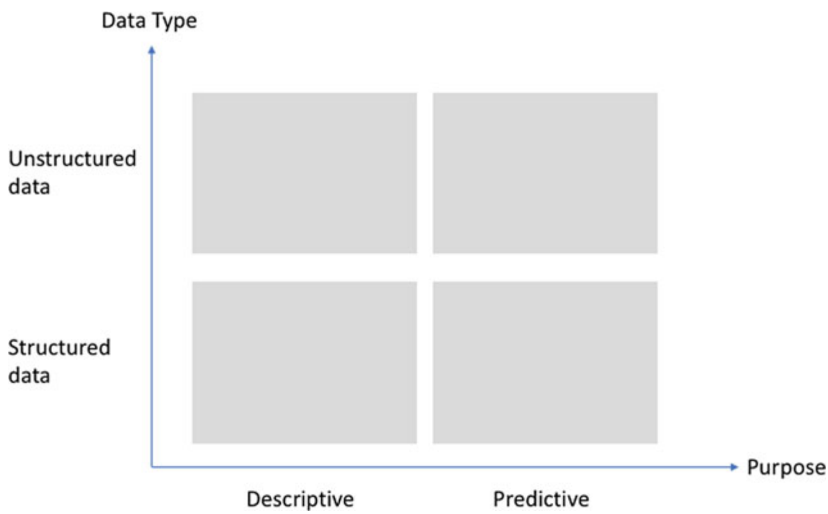

Fig. 9.1 Purposes of HR analytics and used data types (*Source* Authors)

Because topics of machine learning, social network analyses, and social computing are very broad yet directly relevant to our discussion, we will present the core of text mining, social network analysis, and machine learning briefly here. We assume that many readers of this chapter are probably familiar with descriptive and inferential statistics. Tutorials for using software, such as Excel or IBM SPSS, are many on the Web or YouTube, and for conceptual foundations for statistics, interested readers can look up popular and easy-to-follow books (Urdan, 2011; Wheelan, 2013). Considering a large volume and types of data, these approaches and various techniques within each approach would be very useful for (a) analyzing unstructured or interdependent data (text mining, social network analysis), (b) applying new analytic approach to past or streamed data (machine learning), and (c) applying new and traditional analysis on newly generated data by joining and manipulating combined data (mixed method).

Text Mining

Text mining is defined as "the process of distilling actionable insights from the text" (Kwartler, 2017, p. 1) and the "methodology used to extract information, classify data, and identify patterns within textual datasets" (Pilny & Poole, 2017, p. 93). Previously, text data in HR was largely neglected, or limitedly to labor-intensive manual coding. Since many text data are produced from HR activities, such as program evaluation, recruiting, and performance feedback, applying a proper method and analysis on a large volume of text can help find frequent terms, sentiments, or groupings of related keywords promptly. For example, text mining can help understand employees' perceptions of the organization climate or find matching candidates for a position based on resume or collaboration records.

Text mining includes a diverse set of analyses and algorithms. Along with the development of machine learning algorithms and natural language processing, more diverse techniques were brought to bear. For example, word network analysis reveals a semantic structure by an association between words or co-occurrence of words. Words network analysis can be applied for the single individual's cognitive structure or collective semantic structure. By connecting more co-occurring words on the same document or in the dataset, a meaningful semantic structure can be found. Since the network structure can be quantified and analyzed by graph theory, we can extract more precise quantitative information rather than subjective grouping. As an application, we can use word network analysis to compare how two groups' perceptions (e.g., ideal leadership characteristics between frontline employees and managers) are semantically and structurally different by comparing word associations.

Topic modeling is a set of analyses to extract themes from large amounts of text data (Blei, 2012). Among multiple topic modeling options, Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) is a probabilistic technique that extracts numbers of topics and topic-exclusive keywords that represent latent topics in a set of documents. Investigators (human) label the topics' names by reviewing the set of keywords list. LDA topic modeling has the advantage of dealing with a broad set of text data. For the HR-related activity, it can be used for investigating organizational climate from a large volume of text produced by employees. Schmiedel, Muller, and Brocke (2019) provided procedural steps for applying LDA topic modeling in organizational research. These authors identified the climate of numerous organizations using employee comments on the Glassdoor, an online company review site. They showed how work climates differ across industries based on themes identified from topic modeling.

Social Network Analysis

Social network analysis has a relatively long history compared to other methods introduced above. Social network analysis is performed to investigate a network structure that is socially constructed, such as friendship, knowledge sharing, or partnership, and many others. The basic assumption of social network analysis is that an individual's opportunity, preference, and behaviors are influenced by the social structure where they are embedded (Marsden & Friedkin, 1993), and the network structure is formed by individuals' selection and preference (Robins, Elliott, & Pattison, 2001). Objects in a social network are depicted by nodes (actors or inanimate objects) and edges (connection, interaction, or relationships), and by extending connection between nodes, a social network structure evolves.

Quantitative metrics of a network can be calculated by graph theory. With the increase in computing power, a more sophisticated analysis of complicated network structures and their changes is available. For the HR department, social network analysis can help see various formal and informal relationships, interactions, and work collaborations among organizational members. Since the current workplace requires more effective collaboration and communication, it is important to know how a social structure in an organization is formed, and who are key individuals within the structure, as a broker or most widely connected, why social selection and influence effect has occurred between employees, and how to adjust support and resources among network participants. Although quantitative analysis is the dominant approach to interpreting SNA results, qualitative analyses can be also applied to designing or analyzing the social network.

Designing social network analysis projects requires more careful planning because few standardized instruments or processes exist. This is understandable because the important scope of a network and types of relationships will differ across organizations. However, the body of knowledge regarding social capital and organizational psychology is rich and can be used as a sound guide for selecting and examining the type of organizational networks and member interactions (Borgatti, Everett, & Johnson, 2018; Kadushin, 2012). Distinctive benefits, such as empirical assessment of participant interdependency, structural patterns, and reciprocal influence between individuals and the system, are notable strengths of SNA.

Machine Learning

Machine learning is a field of scientific study that focuses on developing and enhancing the performance of algorithms and statistical models for enabling a machine to learn using the pattern from data without instructions to perform a specific task (Michie, Spiegelhalter, & Taylor, 1994). Machine learning is classified into a prediction, classification, and generative model. Additionally, depending on how learning is applied (by human intervention such as labeling or no intervention for searching optimal values), algorithms are classified as supervised learning or unsupervised learning. Machine learning includes a wide range of analyses, and new algorithms and analyses are frequently added to the list.

As an analysis, machine learning is largely used for classification, prediction, or both. For instance, one machine learning analysis called the decision tree has been successfully used in diverse fields for classification purposes. A decision tree is a supervised learning method that helps to understand the complex decision-making process by breaking down into a collection of more straightforward simple decisions (Safavian &

Landgrebe, 1991). Often, retention or turnover in an organization is a critical issue for an HR department. Vévoda, Vévodová, Bubeníková, Kisvetrová, and Ivanová (2016) used a decision tree model to successfully predict nurses' turnover based on various work environment features, particularly motivational and job satisfaction factors. As another example, Sharma and Srivastava (2017) used a decision tree model to identify variables affecting group performance. They showed how group-level metrics could be understood by individual-level metrics using a dataset from a game-based testbed called SABRE.

Traditionally, data analysis in HR depended upon examining correlations or regression coefficients to understand the influence of selected variables, but this approach had limited generalizability beyond the convenience sample. Techniques such as using a decision tree do not replace the traditional approach completely. Instead, its focus on model accuracy based on a larger dataset can complement the traditional approach by enabling the analyst to examine the model accuracy and generalizability together. When machine learning is applied, comparing results from multiple algorithms and different techniques are recommended.

Two Exemplary Cases of HR Analytics

Case 1. Developing Director and Team Leader Competencies Through Text Mining

Lotte Academy is the central HRD function of the Lotte Group, a global conglomerate in consumer goods and retail. The academy has been using the Assessment Center (AC, also called internally as Development Center, DC) to develop newly promoted directors and team leaders. AC is widely used to evaluate and develop senior-level leaders in South Korea, and it incorporates multiple assessment techniques including various work simulation tools (Thornton & Rupp, 2004). At Lotte, DC is a 3-day annual program. Through a series of workshops multiple assessors evaluate participants on a set of leadership competencies using methods, such as presentation, in-basket, role play, and more (Joiner, 2000). The program was recently extended to include newly promoted leader groups.

The major artifact of the DC program is developmental feedback summarized on the individual development plan (IDP) contributed by multiple evaluators, who are also facilitators of the DC workshop. IDP has four components: (1) leading self, (2) leading business, (3) leading organization, and (4) leading people. Each participant is also rated on a Likert scale for his/her performance on those four leadership dimensions. Although quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed in the past to reveal participants' strengths and areas to improve, both participants and HRD staff raised questions about "application points." Particularly challenging was to synthesize different facilitators' terms used to describe the program participants.

In response, the HRD unit decided to conduct text analysis on feedback between leader candidate and leader groups focusing on behavioral strengths. Analysis included procedures, such as tokenization, word frequency and keyword network analyses using R and Gephi. These analyses revealed important similarities and differences between the leaders and leader candidate groups. Similarities were found in the area of leading business where both groups were strong in planning strategies and goals, while marked differences were found in implementing changes. Notably, the leader candidate's group showed a lower level of engagement in communicating with members and developing them. The result from keyword network analysis also showed that leaders could be more effective in planning and executing strategies because of balanced connections to many others, unlike the central position of directors surrounded by direct reports only. Consequently, a plan is underway to modify the 2020 workshop for new directors and team leaders to leverage distributed resources. If successful, those interpersonal characteristics of leaders will be promoted through the entire organization.

Case 2. Talent Management Through a Digital Learning Platform

Recently, many large companies in Korea started investing into a new type of Learning Management System (LMS), which attempts to incorporate informal learning and social interactions into work routines. This trend has been driven by the recognition and growing demands of employee reskilling and upskilling. More executives and managers in large companies are admitting the growing importance of the Z-generation as customers, trendsetters, and workforce. They also see that video content, particularly YouTube, is being used more as the main source of learning and knowledge acquisition over company-created resources.

Content platforms such as YouTube recommend content based on usage data, but companies' traditional LMS does not. According to YouTube, more than 400 hours of new video are uploaded per minute as of 2019. Using advanced analytics, YouTube identifies users' interests and tastes, and recommends the most suitable contents. To do so, YouTube analyzes data, such as user profiles, viewing times, access locations, and click streams. HR leaders in large Korean companies are heavily pressured to create an effective talent management (TM) system, and the Digital Learning Platform (DLP) is a TM system aimed at data-driven individualized and customized learning.

Starting with personalization, DLP recommends contents based on data related to employee experiences, interests, learning history, and competency assessments. Machine learning is used for content recommendation. A typical example is the KNN (K-nearest neighbors algorithm), which is used for classification purposes and measures the similarity in terms of measured distance between two data points. Unsupervised learning, such as clustering, is also actively used to identify similar user groups. Employees can also make their own learning lists and recommend them to colleagues. In addition, learning history and changes in the level of expertise are constantly updated on employee profiles.

Secondly, social learning in terms of connection and collaboration is heavily utilized in the DLP. The system allows employees to look up each other based on task experiences, career goals, and interests. Connected employees can create a community that can help each other. Analyzing social networks formed among employees provides new information to the HRD department. Social network analysis allows organizations to identify who plays or occupies a central position in the network and how employees interact with each other. The HRD department can use this information to facilitate learning. Electronic communications and collaboration to solve a problem together leave digital trails for others to see as well. Lastly, almost all features and functionalities of the system can be accessed on a smartphone or portable devices. This allows employees to have immediate access to learning resources, peers, and experts just in time and anywhere.

To implement the DLP, one can choose either an On-Premise, a standalone solution or SaaS (Software as a Service). The SaaS option has the advantage of low initial implementation costs, easy access to services, and no cost for version updates, but there is a disadvantage of paying a subscription fee and the Internet connection. Companies that are reluctant to upload data to the cloud are cautious about using SaaS. To make an informed selection, HRD departments should also analyze desirable user experiences (UX) and user interfaces (UI), and create many prototype artifacts to evaluate the DLP.

Whether it is a traditional LMS or a more modern-day DLP, our experiences tell us that the success of the DLP is determined more after implementation. The first thing to do is to promote voluntary participation by employees. It is very difficult to activate user participation, no matter how feature-rich a platform is. Platforms with a small number of users produce data less than useful. Drawing users into the platform requires support from business units, and the HRD department should make every effort to make the DLP as the primary source of finding answers to employees' learning and problem-solving needs. Accumulating, analyzing, and utilizing data directly impacts the value of the DLP, and analytics methods such as machine learning and social network analysis are running behind the DLP to truly distinguish the solution from an LMS.

Discussion

These three preceding sections attempted to capture the landscape of HR analytics in South Korea. To do so, through the first three research questions we examined common issues experienced at multiple organizations, reviewed major analytic approaches and techniques, and looked at two specific cases: one for leader development applying text mining, and the other for the implementation of a digital learning platform for organizational talent management. What they clearly show is that the primary success factor of organizational HR analytics is neither technologies nor data. Two presented cases and other project experiences appeared in common issues such as silo culture, distributed and unorganized data, tendency to be cautious about sensitive people data, and the importance of project ownership on the part of business units tell us that to be successful and impactful HR analytics projects require close collaboration between the HRD department and the business units, and a very strategic and well laid-out plan that addresses relevant organizational issues, particularly data policy, governance, and culture is necessary.

Those two cases illustrate that the scope of HR analytics can be broad to target the entire organization as seen in the implementation of DLP, or more specific and narrow groups as in the case of leader and Hi-Pos development. Whether the project context is turnover, hiring, promotion, work collaboration, or something else, our analysis clearly shows that HR analytics are performed to collect, analyze, and leverage proper data (structured and unstructured, or internal and external) for making evidence-based decisions on critical organizational performance issues. In doing that, this chapter explained that one can perform HR analytics for descriptive or predictive purposes using various structured and unstructured data assisted by data visualization, machine learning, text mining, social network analysis, and the list keeps expanding. Two presented cases showed how these analysis techniques were applied to find and recommend useful behaviors and resources.

Data policy, governance, and culture should be addressed together if organizations want to become more analytics- and data savvy. Each domain will influence the others, and will become more effective when cyclical evaluation and feedback are incorporated into analytics project work. To begin with, data policy must clarify what can and cannot be shared related to people's data, who can access, modify, or execute data. For user participation, support, and utilization, Davenport (1997) emphasizes that empowering knowledge workers with access to necessary data is key. Our earlier discussion of data access challenges experienced by a HR analytics team highlights the importance of having the business unit leader who has to be the supporter and promoter of HR analytics be present in the data and analytics governance team. We like to emphasize that HR cannot be naïve about people who will be supporting HR analytics with open arms. The diffusion of innovation and adoption literature clearly shows that spectators, obstructionists, and supporters will coexist for new initiatives (Lundblad, 2003), and this is particularly important for HR analytics that require cross-functional sharing. Gaining executives and sponsor support is critical. Governance entails the overall decision managing processes and management of HR analytics as well as data. For effective processes to be established, effective communication and collaboration patterns between the HR analytics team and project-related business unit leaders will need to be identified.

Our discussion regarding the role of organizational culture led us to see that most organizations do not explicitly align any culture assessments or related messages with HR analytics initiatives because the latter is rather nascent and new to most business unit leaders. However, supportive norms and culture across multiple levels are essential for HR analytics project success, and some approaches we tested seem to be more effective than others as in the following.

To begin with, data analysts and the people analytics team must understand that frequent and explicit support of analytics approaches from executive leaders are most critical, and the team has to deliver findings and insights to those leaders so that they can initiate organizational changes. In many cases, results from analytics tend to reveal discrepancies or inaccuracy related to previous decision-making practices. Unless such findings are shared in ways for decision makers to add further evidence for their actions, animosity and fear are unavoidable. Although more decision-making power has been distributed to lower-level positions, major important decisions are still made by high-level position leaders.

The case of company "D" represents what many other large companies are doing in order to establish data analytic approaches as business decision norms. To enhance the data literacy among team leaders and facilitate the data-valuing culture, the company created a series of training programs and assessed their data utilization competencies. It is not uncommon for top executives to be coached about digital transformation as well. Our experiences also confirm that such executive and team leaders are more supportive of data analytical approaches to complement experience-based decisions.

Last but not least, more open and proactive approaches on the part of the HR team are also imperative. Resistance and concerns from business leaders are frequently found as illustrated above. One of the authors performed HR analytics work in the 2000s before the term people analytics was born. At first, business unit leaders expressed mistrust and critiqued analysis results. He concluded that creating a trusting relationship with them would be most important and decided to provide them with frequent smaller bites of business insights than big and "surprise" findings. He paid particular attention to assist them with using data to support their intuition. Such efforts lasted for about two years, and the management became more open to other findings and suggestions as well. In this regard, projects of a narrower scope and quick success can help improve trust toward data analytic approaches. To do so, publishing the procedure of collecting and analyzing data and disseminating results is important. When people can ask questions and access analytics results to improve their work, transparency and support improve.

The subculture within the HR team is also important. Data and analytics are nothing more than means to ends. The fundamental role of HR or people analytics is to improve the work of us as HR professionals, and ultimately contribute to the entire organization. For that goal, HR members' attitude toward seeking for "better" solutions is a prerequisite before analyzing data. Such perspectives will originate from diligently seeing things around to find areas to improve and move forward with raising our voice. When leaders and organizational members see that our work and requests are trustworthy and helpful, analytics-supportive culture will emerge.

Suggestions and Conclusion

For our readers located globally, we like to conclude this chapter by reminding you of the history of technology transfer research. Research on adoption and innovation supported that one direction transfer model from one country or national culture to another does not work well (Glass & Saggy, 1996); the key is the integration of the proposed model into the local context. We are not certain if the frame of technology transfer is even appropriate when hardware and software tools and human resources are almost a level playing field in the open communities of the data science and HR analytics world. Analytics communities are many on social sharing sites, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and GitHub. These communities have members from all over the world and they help with each other for troubleshooting, knowledge sharing, and advancing methods. Having access to useful resources and talents implies that organizations have no reason to delay the adoption and diffusion of HR analytics, which finds its root in Western business practices.

Also, our experiences shared here indicate that challenges, processes, and needs associated with HR analytics are quite similar between companies in South Korea and developed countries (Dearborn & Swanson, 2017). In spite of these similarities, we see that most organizations, even those that have a HR analytics team, have few processes and mechanisms to initiate, implement, and evaluate people analytics projects, and compare the effectiveness of frameworks across companies, industries, or countries. We hope this work can invite more practitioner scholars and researchers to engage in examining and sharing effective processes and outcomes associated with HR and people analytics in organizations.

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CHAPTER 10

Korean Women Leaders' Resistance to Their Token Status in the Organization

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Introduction

Why has South Korea's (Korea's) remarkable economic success failed to translate into women's corresponding status? This driving question has led our research team to conduct research on women leaders in Korea since 2014 (Cho & McLean, 2018; Cho, Han et al., 2020; Cho, Park, Han, & Ho, 2019; Cho, Park et al., 2020; Cho et al., 2015, 2016, 2017; Han, Kim, Kim, Cho, & Chae, 2018).

In conducting interviews with more than 150 women leaders in the past years, we explored the challenges they faced in the workplace where organizational constraints and traditional values coexist. Women leaders in Korea are tokens (Kanter, 1977) because there are only a few women

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taking leadership positions in almost all sectors. We found that due to their token status in the organization, many of them attempted to assimilate to meet men's norms and expectations (Cho et al., accepted). However, we also found that a few women leaders managed to resist their token status in the organization in their own way. Women leaders' resistance to their token status in the workplace, therefore, is a uniquely Korean phenomenon, which has not been captured in research on women leaders in western contexts (Badura, Grijalva, Newman, Yan, & Jeon, 2018; Joshi, Neely, Emrich, Griffiths, & George, 2015; Madsen & Scribner, 2017).

In this chapter, we pay particular attention to women leaders' resistance to their token status through rejecting dominant norms and practice, going their own way, and creating new norms, by reanalyzing 111 women leaders' narratives collected from research on women leaders in the business sector in the past several years. To that end, after reviewing the literature on tokenism theory and resistance as theoretical backgrounds, we show how women leaders use resistance as a coping strategy to create opportunities as leaders in the organization and role models for women in the leadership pipeline. Based on the study findings, we provide implications for HRD research and practice.

Literature Review

The theoretical backgrounds of Kanter's tokenism theory and resistance are useful to understand Korean women leaders' resistance to their token status in the organization.

Kanter's Tokenism Theory

The term token, first coined by Kanter (1977), describes individuals who belong to a social type that represents less than 15% of the entire group composition in the organization. Tokenism theory (Kanter, 1977) posits that a proportional rarity influences tokens to have different experiences from the dominant group, resulting in three perceived tendencies: visibility, contrast, and assimilation.

First, in regard to visibility, tokens are likely to be visible and receive attention because they stand out due to rarity (Gustafson, 2008). Kanter (1977) argued that high visibility results in tokens perceiving a high level of scrutiny in the workplace, which leads to performance pressures.

Contrast occurs when the dominant group exaggerates their differences from tokens, which makes tokens feel a sense of social isolation and disconnect from the dominant group (King, Hebl, George, & Matusik, 2010). Lastly, assimilation involves the use of stereotypes and familiar generalizations about a token's social type, resulting in the token's "role entrapment" (Kanter, 1977, p. 980). A dominant group is likely to distort the characteristics of a token to fit their own shared stereotypes and generalizations of them (Gustafson, 2008). As a result, tokens play limited and caricatured roles such as mother, seductress, pet, and iron maiden in the system (Kanter, 1977; Watkins, Simmons, & Umphress, 2019). Although tokens are aware that their assimilation is undesirable, their token role encapsulation occurs since no other choice is possible (Lewis & Simpson, 2012).

Resistance as a Coping Strategy

Since Kanter (1977) presented tokenism theory, the major stream of tokenism theory research has focused on identifying underrepresented groups' token status and its effects in diverse, western contexts. A majority of the previous studies reported that tokens, involving gender and race, have the same negative experiences as suggested by tokenism theory (King et al., 2010). However, some studies demonstrated different effects of tokens in organizations. Yoder and Sinnett (1985), for instance, found that male tokens did not face the negative consequences of visibility, contrast, or assimilation as a result of their underrepresentation, as female tokens did. Elstad and Ladegard's (2012) study on women on boards in Norway revealed that participants were not negatively influenced by their visibility and interacted socially with other board members. These study findings suggest that not all tokens experience negative consequences in relation to visibility, contrast, and assimilation.

In line with different effects of token status, research indicates that individual and contextual factors may influence individuals to respond to their token status in different ways. Watkins et al. (2019) argued that individual factors (e.g., self-efficacy) and contextual factors (e.g., national or organizational culture) can influence the determination of how people react to their token status. People with high coping efficacy would better manage stressful circumstances and sustain efforts in their work (Watkins et al., 2019). High social status of token women can also play an important role in reducing negative consequences predicted by tokenism (McDonald, Toussaint, & Schweiger, 2004). Shifting identity, elevating the social status, and creating new social and organizational norms in the workplace (Buchanan & Settles, 2019; Dickens, Womack, & Dimes, 2019) are used by token women to minimize negative reactions from a dominant group and navigate the workplace well.

Secondary Analysis of Qualitative Data

Previously we conducted research on women leaders using secondary analysis of qualitative data to reanalyze 107 narratives collected from the five qualitative studies on women leaders in Korea in diverse sectors (Cho et al., accepted). Secondary analysis of qualitative data involves an investigation of data collected for a previous study that is analyzed by the same or different researchers to explore new questions that were not part of the primary analysis (Ruggiano & Perry, 2019). In reanalysis of the large amount of qualitative data (107 narratives) to address a new question about the token status of women leaders in Korea through the lens of Kanter's tokenism theory (1977), we identified five global themes: culture, visibility, contrast, assimilation, and resistance (Cho et al., accepted). By revealing a dynamic interplay of factors influencing women leaders' experiences from the lens of tokenism theory and culture, we found that a majority of women leaders assimilated to meet men's expectations but a few managed to resist in their own way. They resisted the male-dominated norms and expectations through rejecting dominant norms and practices (e.g., encouraging paternal leaves), going their own way (e.g., not joining in social gatherings with heavy drinking), and creating new norms (e.g., positioning junior women in uncharted fields) (Cho et al., accepted).

Based on previous research on women leaders' responses to their token status, in this book chapter, we pay particular attention to their resistance as a coping strategy because it opens up many opportunities for women in the leadership pipeline and because it brings in real change in organizational culture. To that end, we chose the six original studies conducted in the business sector to reanalyze because we know the research context well based on our work experience in Korea and because our focus on a single sector will entail more focused and meaningful findings and implications for HRD research and practice. Table 10.1 shows the six original studies on women leaders in the business sector that we collected in our reanalysis.

Table 10.1 Original studies and women leaders in the business sector

	Study 1 (2015)	*Study 2 (2016)*	*Study 3 (2017)*	*Study 4 (2019)*	*Study 5 (2020)*	*Study 6 (in press)*
Research purpose	To explore Korean women leaders' challenges and opportunities that they face in the process of balancing work and family and developing leadership	To investigate the lived experience of women leaders in Korean companies who manage their work and life and develop their leadership	To compare Korean female executives' definitions of career success with those of male executives and to identify their career development strategies for success	To explore how multinational corporations' (MNCs') women leaders in Korea have overcome career challenges in the process of becoming CEOs	To conduct a case study of three Korean women entrepreneurs in the IT industry	To investigate women entrepreneurs' motivations, challenges, and career success
Women leaders in business	11	50	13	14	(3)[a]	23

Note [a]We interviewed three participants again to conduct a case study as a follow-up study
Source Authors

In the original studies, we conducted semi-structured interviews using purposeful and snowballing sampling techniques. Interviews took approximately one hour each and were audio-recorded with participants' permission, and we transcribed the recordings verbatim and did member-checking by sending transcripts to interview participants to ensure validity. Table 10.2 shows participating women leaders' organizations, positions, and marital status.

By adding our recent research on women entrepreneurs, we were able to collect women leaders' narratives from differently sized firms and from top women leaders. Most women leaders were married with children.

Table 10.2 Participants' organizations, positions, and marital status

	Type	*Number*	*Percentage (%)*
Organization	Large	34	43.6
	SME	26	33.3
	MNC	18	23.1
Position	CEO	2	1.8
	President	41	36.9
	Senior manager	35	31.5
	Manager	33	29.7
Marital status	Married with children	84	75.7
	Never married	18	16.2
	Divorced	6	5.4
	Widowed	3	2.7

Source Authors

Findings: Women Leaders' Resistance

We reanalyzed a total of 111 narratives of women leaders in the business sector using NVivo 12, particularly focusing on how they resisted their token status and what factors influenced their resistance. In the process, we developed two categories, five sub-categories, and 18 codes as shown in Table 10.3. Each of four major themes (rejecting stereotypes, going one's own way, creating new norms, and external factors) is explained in detail below.

Rejecting Stereotypes

Women leaders stated that men had gender stereotypes that women are obedient, not work-oriented, and less ambitious in organizations. Women were asked to dress up and wear make-up "like a flower." Some women leaders, however, did not follow men's stereotypical expectations, as a woman leader stated:

> My male colleagues used to say that women are flowers in the office and should take care of their appearances. When I heard them in my first year, I stated: "Am I a fashion model? I came here to work. I do not agree with you."

Table 10.3 Categories, sub-categories, and codes related to women leaders' resistance

Category	*Sub-category*	*Code*	*Verbatim statement*	*Frequency*
Resistance	Rejecting stereotypes	Rejecting femininity	I do not use make up or wear a skirt. I felt very uncomfortable with how people see women	10
		Resisting covert discrimination	Men say: "It'll be too tough for you, so I will let you not do it." It's not a favor, but a discrimination	2
		Resisting overt discrimination	He told me I was the best, but I got the worst evaluation	13
		Resignation	I thought it was unfair, so I quit the job	6
	Going one's own way	Focusing on strength	I could not join their network, so I had to do my work very hard	5
		Overcoming limited roles	I asked my supervisor to let me do the job. I was the first woman who did it in my bank	6
		Not joining in male-dominated Networks	I do not play a golf for networking because I do not want to do it	9

(continued)

Table 10.3 (continued)

Category	*Sub-category*	*Code*	*Verbatim statement*	*Frequency*
		Pioneering new jobs	I created Cyber Academy, which resulted in good performance. People asked: "Did she make it? Who permitted her to do it?"	8
	Creating new norms	Support for women's employment	I think that it's my destiny to support the women workforce	6
		Support for work-life balance	Let's make a comfortable workplace for women: I created a *flexible work hour* policy in my organization	9
		Creating a new organizational climate	I have been trying to change organizational culture because it is still hierarchical	11
		Supporting women in the next generation	If I am asked to do a lecture or to mentor women, I'd do it	4
External factors	Organizations	Organizational Policy	Daycare programs, maternity leaves, parental leaves, these are the best in the organization	23
		Organizational Climate	Culture changed. Our company supports maternity leaves	33

(continued)

Table 10.3 (continued)

Category	*Sub-category*	*Code*	*Verbatim statement*	*Frequency*
		Supervisor support	My supervisor let me go on a business trip abroad. I came to know that he had to be held accountable for my trip because I am a woman	15
	Society	Government policy	The government emphasizes the women-friendly company policy, and we are a leading company	4
		Social awareness	The presence of a woman president gave me a great opportunity	15

Source Authors

When faced with overt discrimination in promotion, performance evaluations, and job opportunities, some women leaders chose to quit or changed jobs. A woman leader spoke of "covert discrimination": Men sometimes exclude women from an important job or network, saying that doing it is a favor for her because she is a woman. She advised other junior women that it is important to recognize such covert discriminations and refuse.

Going Their Own Way

A few women leaders attempted to go their own way instead of being assimilated to male-dominated networks and men's norms and expectations. Several women leaders, for instance, stated that they do not drink or play golf to join male-dominated networks, while many women leaders mentioned that drinking and golfing are important in networking.

Women leaders are committed to their work and roles in the workplace. They attempted to overcome limited roles and responsibilities by performing challenging and male-dominated jobs. In the process, women leaders pioneered new jobs that would make huge contributions, as a woman leader stated: "I asked my supervisor to let me do the job. I was the first woman who did the job in my bank." These pioneering efforts helped women to be recognized and promoted to leadership positions.

Creating New Norms

After taking leadership positions, a few women leaders attempted to create a women-friendly workplace for other women in the organization: They supported women's employment, diverse organizational culture, and programs for work-life balance, as a woman CEO stated:

> What I wanted to do was to create a workplace where women feel comfortable. I thought I, as CEO, can help women get more engaged in their work and careers. To that end, I created a flexible work hour policy.

Women CEOs participated in women's networks beyond their own organizations. These women were willing to help other women CEOs overcome the challenges women face by providing mentoring opportunities and sharing their stories, as a woman CEO stated: "I became Chair of the Women Corporate Directors Korea. Increasing the number of women board members in Korean companies is my goal."

External Factors

A few women leaders resisted a male-dominated culture and attempted to overcome their token status in the organization. External factors in relation to organizations and society helped to make women leaders' resistance possible. Recent changes in organizational climate and policies helped women overcome gendered stereotypes and succeed in their careers in organizations. Particularly, women-friendly policies and programs such as daycare programs, maternity leaves, parental leaves, and flexible work hours encourage women not to give up their careers and jobs. Particularly, women leaders were able to take leadership positions and to overcome challenges and discriminations with the support of their supervisors who were willing to provide them with ample opportunities for their career development, as a woman leader stated:

> When my daughter struggled in high school, I told my supervisor I am going to resign. He said that the problem I have would go away and asked me to be a team leader. I was so thankful for his support because I had never expected it.

Women leaders also spoke of social changes that helped their resistance. Social awareness about gender equality and work-life/family balance is gaining attention as opposed to traditional norms and values where women are considered as primary caregivers. The presence of a woman president, for instance, facilitated organizations to promote women to take leadership positions. As the government policy becomes more active enacting women-friendly policies and programs through the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family (Kang, Jeong, & Ko, 2018), it seems that organizations become more supportive of women's leadership and their resistance to their token status in the organization.

Implications for HRD Research and Practice

Our reanalysis of 111 women leaders' narratives collected from the original six qualitative studies using tokenism theory revealed that most women leaders work in the male-dominated workplace and experience their token status because of the consequences of visibility, contrast, and assimilation in the organization. As a result of visibility and contrast, most women leaders assimilate to the male-dominated norms and expectations. However, we also found that a few women leaders resisted to their token status, so we pay particular attention to a new theme, resistance. A few women leaders rejected gender stereotypes, went their own way, and created new norms in a way that can change the male-dominated organizational culture in the long run. Based on this unique study finding that research on tokenism theory in western contexts did not capture, our study contributes to HRD research and practice in several ways.

First, the study findings about women leaders' resistance to their token status can expand the explanatory power of Kanter's tokenism theory by expanding on the new theme, resistance. Research on tokenism theory in western contexts has concentrated on the negative effects of the three concepts on women's token status in the organization. In our study, we found that a few women leaders resisted men's traditional norms and expectations and attempted to create new norms and culture in the organization. Instead of confirming the negativity and harmfulness of tokenism on women leaders, our study paid more attention to women leaders' resistance as a coping strategy that would open up many opportunities for women in the leadership pipeline. As the theme, resistance, is novel, which was discovered by women leaders in a Korean context, more in-depth investigations are called for on women leaders' resistance as a coping strategy by comparing and contrasting cases in diverse cultural contexts.

Second, given the study findings on positive external factors, such as supervisors supporting women leaders, women leaders were able to go their own way in the workplace. This result is consistent with the literature (e.g., Farh et al., 2020) suggesting that team leaders possessing more favorable beliefs about women's capabilities are critical for team success. As the literature suggests (e.g., Yoder, 1991), overcoming numerical scarcity might not be a sole solution that helps token women tackle challenges in organizations. On the contrary, changing the current, challenging organizational norms and practices is more important for women to overcome their token status (Buchanan & Settles, 2019) because the psychological climate of gender inequality in policies and procedures of the organization is closely related to negative consequences of tokenism dynamics (King et al., 2010). Future research, therefore, is needed to further explore psychological factors and external conditions that facilitate or alleviate women's resistance.

The study findings also have practical implications for HRD practice. First, we found that token women leaders resisted their token status after they took leadership positions in the organization, indicating that it might be difficult for women to reject gendered stereotypes and resist their token status without achieving outstanding performance and acquiring positions of power. In addition to reaching a numerical proportion of 15% by hiring more women, therefore, positioning more women leaders would help organizations lesson gender inequality issues and encourage token women's voice in the organization. HRD practitioners should help to scrutinize the existence of unequal systems, polices, and procedures as well as organizational culture that prevent women from succeeding in their work and careers.

Our findings about the contributing factors for resistance (e.g., supervisor support, women-friendly organizational polices and culture) indicate the importance of support for changes in gendered organizational norms and culture. To that end, HRD practitioners need to offer gender diversity programs to managers, which can improve the level of sensitivity to gender diversity in the organization and educate the importance of leadership in creating a more equal and diverse organizational culture. Additionally, instituting mentoring programs to enrich social networks of women can help women in the leadership pipeline overcome challenges and obstacles that they face in their career development (Dashper, 2019).

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CHAPTER 11

Positive Organizational Behavior: What's in It for HRD in South Korea?

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Psychology has been identified as one of the three theoretical foundations of human resource development (HRD). Swanson (1995) explained HRD through the three-legged stool: core theory domains of psychology, economics, and system theory. Economic theory is recognized as a primary driver and survival metric of organizations; psychological theory acknowledges human beings as brokers of productivity and renewal along with the cultural and behavioral nuances; and system theory recognizes purpose, pieces, and relationships that can maximize or strangle systems and subsystems (Swanson, 1995).

Among the vast spectrum of psychology, HRD is specifically indebted to industrial/organizational (I-O) psychology that is mostly based on Gestalt psychology, behavioral psychology, and cognitive psychology, and

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social psychology (Swanson & Holton, 2001). Learning theories, motivation, and information processing are particularly relevant to HRD. A core presumption of HRD is that employees have intrinsic motivations to grow, viewing human as self-actualizing, self-directing beings. It is one of the roots for much of adult learning theory (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998). In addition, organization development (OD) is focused on elements of the social systems such as organizational culture, power and politics, group dynamics, intergroup communication, and how these social systems change (Cummings & Worley, 2005). Social psychology, the study of behavior, thoughts, and feelings of an individual or interacting individuals and their relationships with larger social units, reflects the needs to focus on interaction between person and environment. HRD is all about learning and development in individual employees and organization (Joo & McLean, 2006). While the impact of psychology on employees and organizations is immense, the field of HRD has yet to capitalize fully on its psychology leverage to improve performance as well as well-being.

Positive psychology has recently been emerged as a repercussion of traditional psychology that has focused almost exclusively on human pathology, or on what is wrong with and lacking in individuals (Seligman, 2011). Assuming that human beings are inherently fragile and flawed, the traditional psychology has produced a set of theories and practices that described and explained remedies for specific human problems. In contrast, the positive psychology focuses on strengths and on building the best in life, supplementing the existing field. The basic assumption is that goodness and excellence are not illusions but are authentic states and modes of being that can be analyzed and achieved (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). This growing literature has begun to capture the attention of both scholars and the media (Seligman, 2002; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Derived from positive psychology, positive organizational scholarship (Cameron et al., 2003; Cameron & Caza, 2004) and positive organizational behavior (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) came into being. There has been an increasing number of studies in management and organizational psychology for the last two decades. In South Korea, POB is one of the popular topics in educational and healthcare settings for the last 10 years. However, more attention on POB from HRD researchers are recommended.

The purposes of this study are twofolds: (a) to examine the link between HRD and positive psychology; (b) to suggest potential POB constructs for future research in the field of HRD. This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part provides a summary and distinction of positive psychology, POS, and POB. The second part suggests reframing the scope of HRD in organizations, reflecting POB on HRD. The third part examines the potential constructs of POB for HRD research from the review of existing research.

Emergence of Positive Psychology

Decades of relentless research on negatively oriented perspectives and problems in psychological foundation to organizational behavior and human resources did not result in a better understanding of human strengths, flourishing, and optimal functioning. Unfortunately, this negativity has also penetrated the organizational behavior (OB) and human resources (HR) fields and accompanied the war perspective. This negativity exposes individuals and organizations to the danger of shifting to a *fight-or-flight mode*, where scarce time, energy, and resources are only invested in basic *tried-and-true survival* mechanisms (Luthans et al., 2007). A negative approach focuses on minimizing what is wrong or a deficit reduction model of human and organizational development. Traditional organization development (OD) practices begin with diagnosis to identify and solve the potential problems in the client organization. Richer, more positive alternatives with potentially higher returns are shunned as too risky, too soft, or too time consuming considering the critical nature of the situation at hand.

Positive Psychology

The field of psychology is a case in point. Prior to World War II, psychologists were charged with a three-pronged mission: (a) healing mental illness, (b) helping healthy people become happier and more productive, and (c) actualizing human potential (Seligman, 2011). However, as the war concluded, tremendous needs existed for reparative psychological treatment, and substantial resources were allocated to damage-control and weakness-fixing mechanisms at the expense of other two missions of psychology. As a result of this real war model, until the turn of the century, little attention was devoted to human strengths.

Under the leadership of psychologist Martin Seligman, the positive psychology movement emerged from a reaction to the almost exclusive preoccupation that psychology had given to the negative, pathological aspects of human functioning and behaving (Luthans, 2011). This new branch of psychology that studies mental health rather than illness, seeking to learn how normal life can be more fulfilling, and to identify the practices that individuals and communities can use to foster greater happiness and well-being (Seligman, 2011). The distinction between the world of negativity and positivity is summarized in Table 11.1.

The aim of positive psychology is to use scientific methodology to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals, groups, organizations, and communities to thrive. It is concerned with optimal human functioning instead of pathological human functioning (Seligman, 2002). Positive psychology has three points of focus: (a) positive experience such as fulfillment, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow, joy, well-being, and happiness (in the present); (b) positive individual traits such as the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, interests, and wisdom, and (c) positive civic virtues and the institutions that

Table 11.1 The contrast of world view between negativity and positivity

World of negativity	*World view*	*World of positivity*
Greed, selfishness, manipulation, secrecy, and a single-minded focus on winning	Typical characteristics	Appreciation, collaboration, virtuousness, vitality, and meaningfulness
Wealth creation	Key indicator of success	Creating abundance and human well-being
Distrust, anxiety, self-absorption, fear, burnout, and feelings of abuse	Members' characteristics	Trustworthiness, resilience, wisdom, humility, and high levels of positive energy
Conflict, lawsuits, contract breaking, retribution, and disrespect	Social relationships and interactions	Compassion, loyalty, honesty, respect, forgiveness, and what makes life worth living
Problem-solving, reciprocity and justice, managing uncertainty, overcoming resistance, achieving profitability, and competing successfully against others	Research focus	Excellence, transcendence, positive deviance, extraordinary performance, and positive spirals of flourishing

Source Adapted from Cameron, K. S., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. E. (2003). Foundations of positive organizational scholarship. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* (pp. 3–13). San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler move individuals toward better citizenship, such as responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic (Luthans, 2011; Seligman, 2011).

POS and POB

Since the early 2000's, organizational theory and behavior scholars have recognized the untapped potential of a science-based, positively oriented approach, which has resulted in two major parallel and complementary movements. These are referred to as POS, initiated by a research group at the University of Michigan (Cameron et al., 2003), and POB that arises from the University of Nebraska's Gallup Leadership Institute (Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). According to Dutton, Glynn, and Spreitzer (2006), POS contributes to human strengths and virtues, resilience and healing, vitality and thriving, and the cultivation of extraordinary states in individuals, groups, and organizations, focusing on the generative dynamics (i.e., life building, capability-enhancing, capacity–creating) in organizations. POS tends to concentrate more on the macro, organizational level, whereas POB has started out at the more micro, individual level (Luthans et al., 2007). It is also noted that POS deals with constructs such as compassion and virtuousness that may or may not be open to development and/or relate to performance impact (Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004; Cameron & Caza, 2004), while to be included in POB the construct must meet the criteria of being state-like, and thus open to development, and related to performance outcomes (Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Luthans et al., 2007). Therefore, the relationship between positive psychology, POS and POB can be conceptually depicted as in Fig. 11.1.

The term POB was coined and defined by Luthans (2002), as "the study and application of positive oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (p. 59). Thus, for a psychological strength or capacity to be included in the conception of POB, it must be positive and relatively unique to the field of organizational behavior, but most importantly, it must meet the scientific criteria of being theory- and research-based, measurable, state-like or developmental, and related to work performance outcomes (Luthans et al., 2007).

Fig. 11.1 The relationship between the three concepts (*Source* Author)

In POB, only positive psychological capacities are included. Being state-like (rather than trait-like), these positive capacities are open to development and improvement using relatively brief training programs, on-the-job activities, and short, highly focused micro-interventions (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). This state-like criterion of POB is perhaps the biggest differentiator from positive psychology and POS, which tend to be more dominated by dispositional trait-like constructs. By emphasizing states rather than traits, POB creates new opportunities and dimensions for HRD.

POB and HRD

HRD has been known as training until McLagan (1989) defined HRD as training and development (T&D), career development (CD), and organization development (OD). Later, Swanson (1995) defined HRD as a process of developing and unleashing human expertise through organization development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance. While traditional HRD has mainly focused on individual training, HRD has enlarged its territory to individual development and organizational learning and development (Joo & McLean, 2006). In addition to training for basic skills of individuals, HRD practitioners have paid more attention to employee development programs, such as on-the-job experience, coaching, mentoring, management development, and career development. Also, greater emphasis is needed on organizational learning and development in terms of organizational transformation, corporate visioning, organizational culture, and change management (Ruona & Gibson, 2004).

Reframing the Scope of HRD

The purposes and values of traditional HRD include learning, development, growth, change, effectiveness, and performance improvement. Over time, corporate social responsibility, sustainability, creativity, and innovation capacity are emerging as other values of HRD. As most HRD researchers and practitioners would agree, the scope of HRD has been enlarged over the last two decades (Garavan, McGuire, & Lee, 2015; Kuchinke, 2014). Researchers and practitioners in HRD need to reframe the scope of HRD accordingly to keep abreast the changing trends in the field. In this vein, HRD can be redefined as any process, program, or practice of learning and development for the purpose of improving performance and well-being of individual and organization. As illustrated in Fig. 11.2, HRD constitutes individual learning (IL), individual development (ID), organizational learning (OL), and organization development

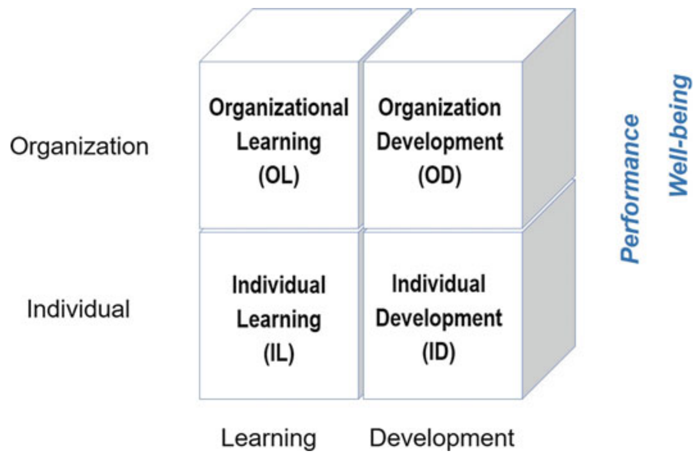

Fig. 11.2 The scope of HRD in organizations (*Source* Author)

(OD). In addition to the traditional goals of HRD such as performance, efficiency, and effectiveness, this definition includes the notion of well-being for employee and organization, which is well aligned with the POB trend.

Traditional HRD has based on IL that includes basic skills training and on-the-job learning training at the individual level. Since employability over employment has become more important not only for employees but also for organization, the concept of development has emerged as a central and important process for enhancing individual potential and effectiveness (Garavan et al., 2015; Kuchinke, 2014). ID has become a critical component of an organization's efforts to improve quality, to retain key employees, to meet the challenges of global competition and social change, and to incorporate technological advances and changes in work design (Noe, 2017). ID includes formal education, assessment, job experience, and interpersonal relationships such as mentoring and supervisory coaching has been added to the domain of HRD.

In organizational level, OL has emerged as an important research field as team learning, organizational learning, learning organization, and knowledge management has been increasingly emphasized. Interest in culture transformation to support individual and organizational effectiveness has been increasing for the last three decades. OD was founded on a set of techniques and strategies for changing, developing, and enhancing the functioning of organizations—especially the internal human features of the organization (Cameron et al., 2003). It is noted that the humanistic, optimistic, and democratic values of traditional OD (French & Bell, 1999) fit well with POB. In OD, a movement of appreciative inquiry has received a substantial amount of attention among consultants and change agents (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2000). Appreciative inquiry focuses on searching for the best in people, their organizations, and the relevant world around them rather than finding potential problems to fix. Appreciative inquiry refers to a composite of change practices based on the assumption that organizations have a positive core that, if revealed and tapped, unleashes positive energy and positive improvement (Cameron et al., 2003).

Potential POB Constructs for Positive HRD

The values of positive psychology and POB fit well with HRD. This new framework of HRD can embrace the notion of POB that has to do with research of positive oriented human resource strengths that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in the workplace. POB focuses only on positive psychological capacities that are state-like versus trait-like, open to development and improvement using training programs, on-the-job activities, and interpersonal relationships such as coaching and mentoring (Luthans, Luthans, & Palmer, 2016). As POB research that is focused on more state-like and malleable aspects of human resources and organization can support HRD research, it can definitely help not only traditional HRD, but also the new scope of HRD filed. Figure 11.3 illustrates the potential POB constructs which are relevant to HRD, using the Input–Process–Output (IPO) model. Several POB constructs for future HRD research were proposed. The suggested constructs could play a role as an antecedent or consequence of different POB constructs. Due to the limit of the

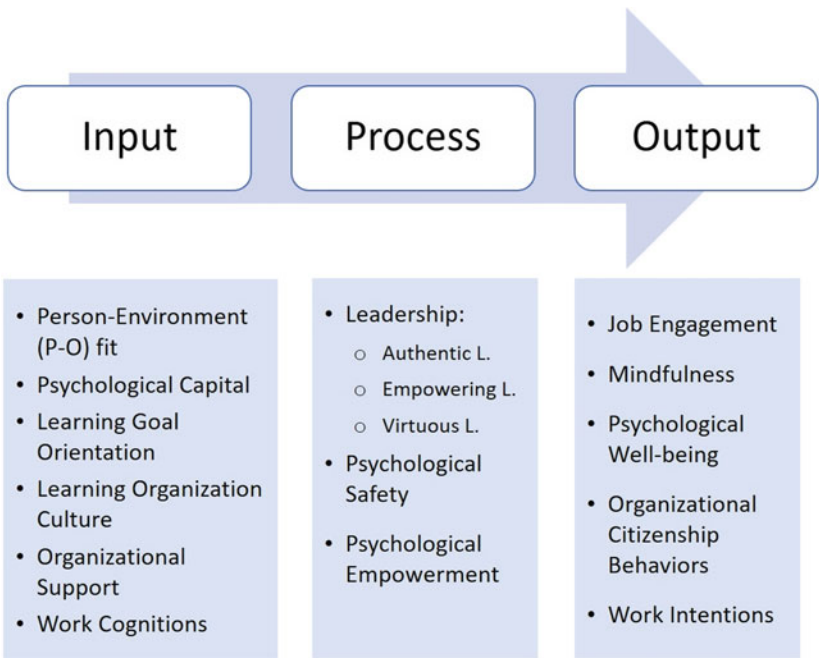

Fig. 11.3 A framework of POB relevant to HRD: The Input–Process–Output (IPO) Model (*Source* Author)

paper, some suggested predictors and outcome variables could not be elaborated.

Input

Key constructs for input include: P-E fit theory (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007), psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007), proactivity (Bateman & Crant, 1993), learning goal orientation (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996), learning organization culture (Watkins & Marsick, 1997), perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), and work cognitions (Nimon, Zigarmi, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2011). The basic premise of PE fit theory is that when characteristics of people and the work environment (or contextual factors) are aligned or fit together, positive outcomes for individuals such as satisfaction, commitment, lower turnover intentions, performance, and creativity will be enhanced.

Personal characteristics such as psychological capital, proactivity, and learning goal orientation are relevant to POB as well as HRD. Psychological capital is defined as a higher-order positive construct comprised of the four dimensions: self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resiliency (Luthans et al., 2007). Psychological capital is relevant to the POB research because, unlike other core constructs such as self-evaluation that is more trait-like (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Psychological capital has been empirically demonstrated to be state-like (Luthans et al., 2007) and open to development (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008).

In an organizational level, learning organization culture, perceived organizational support, and work cognitions can be the antecedents of POB. A learning organization involves an environment in which organizational learning in organization is structured so that teamwork, collaboration, creativity, and knowledge processes have a collective meaning and value (Confessore & Kops, 1998). Watkins and Marsick's (1997) framework for a learning organization has served as a theoretical base for this study. Their instrumentation of Dimensions of Learning Organization Questionnaire (DLOQ) includes positive nature and cultural aspects of supportive learning organizations that encourage a dynamic organizational learning culture.

Work cognitions are formed as the result of appraisal of work environmental factors. Positive cognitive perceptions of work environment can be identified as the result of appraisal of three factors: organizational support, job characteristics, and relationship with others in the workplace. Nimon et al. (2011) developed a set of scales to measure work cognition as a higher-order construct that includes perceptions of job experience (i.e., autonomy, feedback, meaningful work), organizational experience (i.e., collaboration, distributive fairness, growth), and people experience (i.e., connectedness with colleagues, connectedness with leaders).

Process

The POB constructs for process that can mediate and/or moderate the relationships between the inputs and the outputs include authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), empowering leadership (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005), virtuous leadership (Joo, 2020), psychological safety (Edmondson, 2019), and psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

Authentic leadership is defined as "a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development" (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 94). Authentic leadership has four dimensions of behaviors: transparency, moral/ethical perspective, balanced processing, and self-awareness.

Psychological safety is defined as "people's perceptions of the consequences of taking interpersonal risks in a particular context such as a workplace" (Edmondson, 1999, p. 353). Psychological safety exists when employees, without fear of being punished or embarrassed, feel they can speak up, suggest ideas, and ask questions in their workplace (Edmondson, 2019). With higher levels of engagement, in a hyper-connected world, employees need to feel comfortable, psychologically safe, in organizational cultures that breed and encourage risk-taking, respect, and trust. In their meta-analytic study of psychological safety, Frazier, Fainshmidt, Klinger, Pezeshkan, and Vracheva (2017) concluded that there is a myriad of factors that may facilitate the emergence of psychological safety with some (e.g., work design and leadership) being relatively more important than others (e.g., personality).

Psychological empowerment in the workplace has emerged since the 1980s as jobs become more complex and work designs include more autonomy (Oldham & Cummings, 1996), and as organizations increasingly require employees who can quickly and flexibly adapt in rapidly changing business environments (Drucker, 1988). Psychological empowerment is defined as "intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: competence, impact, meaning, and self-determination" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443).

Output

As for output, there are a variety of POB constructs: job engagement (Kahn, 1990; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010), mindfulness (Brown & Ryan, 2003), psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989), organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988), and work intentions (Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009). Employee engagement (Kahn, 1990, 1992), psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989), organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988), and work intention (Zigarmi et al., 2009) could be the examples of criterion variable.

Kahn, who first conceptualized engagement, defined engagement as "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active, full performances" (1990, p. 700). For the last decade, interest on employee engagement has drastically gained popularity in the HRD field (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck, 2011; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Zigarmi et al., 2009).

Work intention is defined as "a set of goal representations or schema, and means representations or schema, formed as a result of the appraisal process that is designed to meet the needs or wants stemming from a sense of, or lack of, employee well-being" (Zigarmi & Nimon, 2011, p. 450). The substance of work passion includes intention to act in a consistent manner employing constructive behaviors that achieve both organizational and individual outcomes (Zigarmi & Nimon, 2011). The five work intentions include: intent to endorse, intent to stay, intent to use discretionary effort, intent to perform, and intent to use OCBs (Zigarmi & Nimon, 2011). OCB refers to employee behaviors that are discretionary, beyond the call of duty, and not rewarded in the context of an organization's formal reward structure (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

Organ (1988) identified the following five categories of OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue.

POB Research Trend (2001–2020 First Half)

To figure out the changing trend of POB research for the last 20 years, the researcher conducted a frequency analysis of the published articles. Six POB constructs most relevant to HRD such as authentic leadership, psychological capital, psychological safety, psychological empowerment, job/work engagement, and psychological well-being were selected for this trend analysis. Searching each keyword in English and in Korean through Google Scholar, the number of articles published between 2001 and June 30, 2020, was identified.

As illustrated in Table 11.2, for each construct, the number of articles in both languages was compared by three time periods (2001–2010, 2011–2015, and 2016–2020). The increases between 2001–2010 and 2011–2020 and between 2011–2015 and 2016–2020 were identified. It is noted that articles in English include all journal articles in any language, as long as they have an abstract in English. Apparently, the articles in Korean were conducted by Korean researchers.

The majority of the research on POB has been published within the last 10 years, compared to 2001–2010. The increase rate of research on psychological empowerment was only modest, because this construct was developed in the mid-1990. Conversely, although research on psychological safety as a newly emerging construct is still less noticeable, it is expected to be increased in the future. While an overall trend for both languages is similar, it is noted that the rate of increase was much higher for Korean articles (10 times) than the articles in English (5 times).

As shown in Fig. 11.4, the constructs most researched for the last decade were psychological capital (12.5 times) and job/work engagement (9.1 times). One of the reasons for the higher number of psychological well-being is due to the increasing interests in this construct from diverse fields, including not only management and organizational psychology, but also clinical psychology, sociology, public health, and even political science.

Looking into the Korean data, as illustrated in Fig. 11.5, there has been an exponential surge of research on psychological capital, job/work engagement, psychological well-being, and authentic leadership in Korea

Table 11.2 POB research trend analysis between 2001 and the first half of 2020 based on Google Scholar

Articles in English	*Authentic leadership*	*Psychological capital*	*Psychological safety*	*Psychological empowerment*	*Job/Work Engagement*	*Psychological well-being*	*Sum*
2001–2010 (E)	388	300	156	486	749	4101	6180
2011–2015 (F)	761	1380	361	909	2186	4530	10,127
2016–2020 (G)	1150	2070	597	986	3894	5850	14,547
2011–2020 (H: F + G)	2299	3750	1114	2381	6829	14,481	30,854
Total (E + F+G)	1911	3450	958	1895	6080	10,380	24,674
Increase % (H/E)	593%	1250%	714%	490%	912%	353%	499%
Increase % (G/F)	151%	150%	165%	108%	178%	129%	144%
Articles in Korean							
2001–2010 (A)	1	4	2	82	16	81	186
2011–2015 (B)	115	171	2	111	107	140	646
2016–2020 (C)	201	369	20	94	300	270	1254
2011–2020 (D: B + C)	316	540	22	205	407	410	1900
Total (A + B+C)	317	544	24	287	423	491	2086
Increase % (D/A)	31,600%	13,500%	1100%	250%	2544%	506%	1022%
Increase % (C/B)	175%	216%	1000%	85%	280%	193%	194%

Source Author

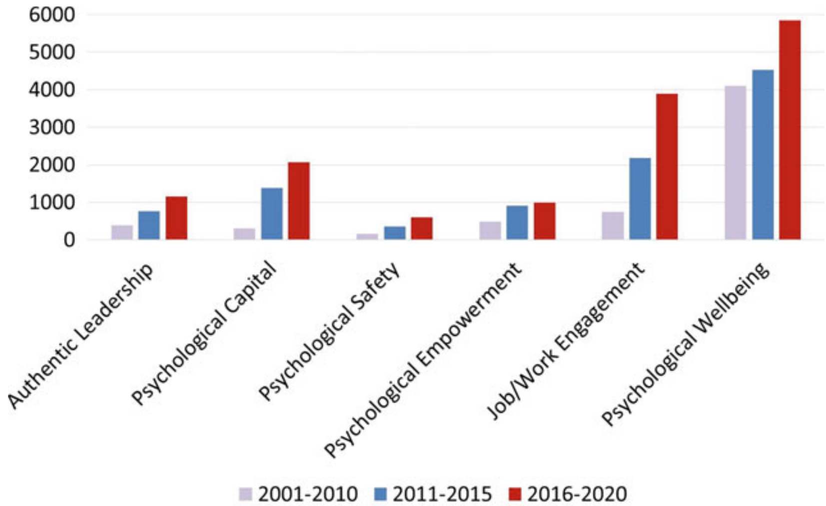

Fig. 11.4 POB Research Trend: Articles in English (2001–2020 First Half) (*Source* Author)

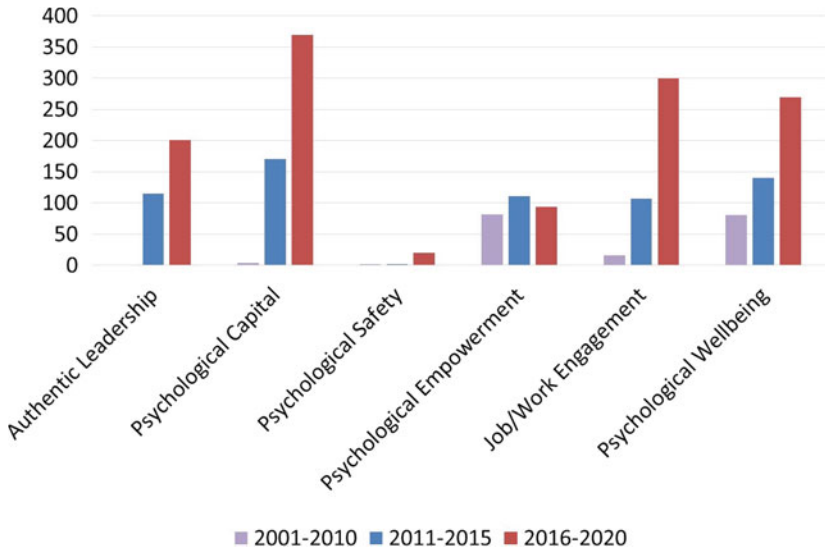

Fig. 11.5 POB Research Trend: Articles in Korean (2001–2020 First Half) (*Source* Author)

for the last two decades. Conversely, research on psychological empowerment is slightly decreasing because it has been relatively longer. Although the notion of psychological safety is still new for Korean researchers, it will definitely draw more attention in the future. Also, such a keen attention on psychological capital for Korean researchers is very unique. One of the reasons could be that this construct can be applicable in many disciplines such as education, career/counseling, organizational psychology, management, and HRD. Research on job/work engagement, by far, is the construct most increased in number for the last 10 years. Research on POB has been conducted in different settings in Korea: education, health care, military, public organizations, and private firms. POB is relevant to HRD. Despite a recent increase, Korean HRD researchers need to shed more light on POB research in the future.

Implications and Future Research

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of this positive psychological movement to HRD. The scope and goals of HRD in organizations were reexamined. Based on an Input–Process–Output model, the potential constructs that overlap HRD and POB research were proposed for future research. Further, an overall trend analysis of POB research for the last two decades was examined.

The significance of this study lies in its integration of the extant literature on positive psychology, POS, and POB and the development of a conceptual framework that encompasses organizational, job, social/interpersonal, and personal factors. POB shares similar values with HRD in that it emphasizes ideas of positive human potential. POB is a fresh lens, helping people look at phenomena in new ways. Positive psychology, POS, or POB are relatively less explored territory in the field of HRD. Embracing the new trend of POB, HRD should reframe its scope and modify its goals. Reflecting the emerging influences of POB on employees and organizations, a new definition of HRD was proposed, emphasizing employee and organizational well-being as an ultimate goal of any HRD effort along with performance.

Despite a brief frequency analysis, this study examined the current address of POB research in Korea, based on the trend analysis. This study found that there has been an exponential surge of research on psychological capital, job/work engagement, psychological well-being, and authentic leadership in Korea for the last two decades. It is evident that Koreans have a keen interest in POB constructs. The link between POB and HRD is clear in that POB constructs are to be state-like versus trait-like, open to developed, and relevant to performance. HRD researchers still need to shed more light on these POB topics. POB research is still in its early stage. It is hoped that the suggested conceptual model and propositions as well as the trend analysis will stimulate further research on POB among Korean HRD researchers in the future.

This study linked POB to HRD research, examining the core constructs of current POB research. This study suggested the potential POB constructs that could be used for HRD research. Although this framework encompasses organizational, job, social/interpersonal and personal factors, it is far from exhaustive. Therefore, other constructs for POB and HRD research need to be explored. Future research should continue to examine other personal factors and other contextual factors that represent the work environment.

Although the desire to improve the human condition is universal and that the capacity to do so is latent in most systems (Cameron et al., 2003), the suggested POB constructs may be stimulated or hindered by cultural values such as worldview and the value placed on tradition. Culture refers to a shared system of cognitions, behaviors, customs, values, rules, and symbols concerning the way a set of people interact with their social and physical environment (Triandis, 1996). Since POB theories and models have been developed primarily in Western cultures, more research in international and cross-cultural contexts is needed in the future especially in Korea. From the trend analysis, however, POB constructs appear to be very well-received in Korean culture, drawing an increasing attention among researchers in diverse fields.

Most POB theories and models have been developed primarily in Western cultures. HRD researchers in Korean need to look into the way to develop indigenous models and/or constructs that fit better for Korean cultural setting. For instance, Confucian culture values virtue, which is one of the key goals for positive psychology. Further, it is urged that Korean HRD researcher develops the instruments to measure the positive aspects of organizational phenomena.

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CHAPTER 12

The Changing Landscape of Action Learning Practice in South Korea

Hyeon-Cheol Bong and Yonjoo Cho

Introduction

The year 2020 marked the 27th year anniversary of the launch of action learning in Korea since LG introduced it for leadership development in 1993. Action learning has since spread widely in the business sector as an innovative, experiential leadership and management innovation tool (Cho & Bong, 2013b; Cho, Lim, & Park, 2015) and has evolved into a powerhouse for learning and development in diverse contexts (Cho, Bong, & Kim, 2019).

In this chapter, we will show how action learning practice in Korea has changed since its first launch. After presenting background information on the basics of action learning and the evolution of action learning

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practice over the past two decades, we provide three representative cases to attest to the use of action learning in diverse contexts: business, higher education, and the public sector. We then discuss what lessons we learned and what challenges we face for the future.

What Action Learning Is

To understand what action learning is, here is an action learning scenario in which we participated as external facilitators:

> A company in Korea is very successful in the food industry and eager to join the global market. The company CEO wants to know if the timing is right and what country will be most feasible for global market expansion. Human Resources in the company forms an action learning team of six executives from cross-functional divisions with a learning coach and allows the team nine months to solve the corporate strategic issue. The team meets bi-weekly and proceeds with the next steps. During the first few weeks, the team clarifies the output of the project, gets lessons for problem-solving skills, and invites area experts to gain a better understanding of the global market. China surfaces as a promising market due to cultural proximity. The team visits Beijing and Shanghai where there are factories in the industry so that they can collect data. The team analyzes the interviews and observational data collected and comes back to Korea to present what they found and recommend what the company should do to successfully enter the global market in China. The CEO and executives evaluate the team's solutions and decide either to pursue the recommendations or to stop right there. (Cho & Bong, 2013b, p. xxi)

In this typical action learning scenario, participants work through a learning process to solve a corporate strategic issue and obtain help from the learning team and a learning coach through the exchange of ideas about the issues at work. A learning coach plays an important role of helping the action learning teamwork through the problem-solving process and encouraging participants critically reflect on the learning process so as to result in learning and performance outcomes. In the process, participants learn problem-solving skills and become true "comrades in adversity" (Revans, 1982, p. 720) in the founding father of action learning Reginald Revan's own words. As such, action learning is a learning approach to developing participants' competencies in content knowledge and process skills by solving real, difficult workplace issues using teams (Cho & Bong, 2013a).

Two Types of Action Learning

Action learning practice in Korea is diverse (Bong & Cho, 2017; Cho & Bong, 2013b). Organizations use two types of action learning at the program level: action learning for leadership development (e.g., Yoon, Cho, & Bong, 2012) that is used to develop select, high-potential leaders who are called on to solve strategic issues and action learning for organization development (e.g., Cho & Bong, 2011) that is used to promote management innovation and learning organizations through the team's problem-solving of workplace issues.

Organizations use two types of action learning at the team level: team-project and individual-project action learning. In the team-project action learning that many organizations use, participants work on solving a single project in teams, whereas in individual-project action learning, participants bring in their own projects to solve problems at work with the help of the project team members. Table 12.1 presents two types of action learning at the program and team levels (Cho & Bong, 2013b, p. 24).

Table 12.1 Two types of action learning at the program and team levels

		Program level	
		Action learning for leadership development	*Action learning for organization development*
Team level	Individual project team	Daehan life insurance's action CEP program	Handok Pharmaceutical's learning coach development program
	Team project team	Samsung Heavy Industries' action learning	• Hyundai Oilbank's Let's Program • Daelim Industrial's Action Learning for Learning Organization

Source Authors

Action learning is also used for different groups of people (e.g., executives, senior managers) based on organizations' strategic and developmental foci. Despite the differences in action learning, there are common elements in action learning practice in Korea: real issues at work, a team of four to six participants, and a learning coach's facilitation, and in the action learning process, a balance of learning and action through reflection is emphasized (Cho & Bong, 2013b).

Historical Background

Revans used the term "action learning" (Boshyk & Dilworth, 2010, p. 147) for the first time in published form in 1972 after having tried initial forms of action learning in mines and hospitals in the UK. Revans's classical principles (Pedler, Burgoyne, & Brook, 2005) include:

- Action as the basis for learning;
- Personal development resulting from reflection upon action;
- Working with problems (assuming no right answers);
- Problems being aimed at organizational and personal development;
- Teams of peers to support and challenge each other;
- Questions (Q) take primacy over knowledge (P) (L = P + Q).

What was emphasized in his classical principles (Revans, 2011) are: the key is to learn with and from each other; the role is to search out the meaning of the unseen; the essence is learning by posing fresh questions (i.e., What are we trying to do? What is stopping us from doing it? What might we be able to do about it?); and managers are those who are anxious to be effective in doing what is necessary.

Brook, Pedler, Abbott, and Burgoyne (2012) argued about the persistent problem of defining action learning because Revans never defined what action learning is. Pedler (2011), however, defined action learning as broadly as "an idea, a philosophy, a discipline and also a method" (p. xxi) and emphasized the changing nature of action learning that there are wide variations in its practice. Pedler (2011) also argued that different practice communities have developed their own variations of action learning (e.g., critical action learning), and one of the most far-reaching debates in the literature on action learning concerns the value of incorporating criticality into action learning practice (Brook et al., 2016).

Evolution of Action Learning in South Korea

Cho and Bong (2013b) presented three milestones of action learning practice in Korea: introduction (before 2000), implementation (between 2000 and 2005), and growth (after 2005). However, due to the Korea Action Learning Association's (KALA) significant role since its establishment in 2005, the development of action learning practice in Korea is divided into three milestones in the following chronological order.

Before the KALA's Establishment

Since action learning's first introduction, it has expanded to large companies that were looking for innovative leadership/management development programs. A Company's Overseas Program for Change Agents in 2000, for instance, was among the most impactful action learning programs in its early years, resulting in outstanding improvement in quality, cost reduction, and delivery of many products between 2001 and 2009. A total of 250 high-potential managers participated in the program, went overseas to observe what world-class organizations were doing, and delivered ideas for improving manufacturing processes, marketing, and production support (Kim & Bong, 2004).

Establishment of the KALA

The purpose of the KALA (Cho & Bong, 2013b) is to: (a) train learning coaches to work for the expansion of action learning; (b) provide consulting services to provide help for the design and development of action learning in diverse organizations; and (c) support research activities to deliver evidence for action learning practice. As of May 2020, the KALA retains 5032 individual members and has certified 184 learning coaches. KALA provides training at different levels (beginning and advanced) of learning coaches, monthly discussion forums to study action learning cases, and annual conferences to showcase diverse action learning practices.

After the KALA's Establishment

While action learning has slowed in its use in the business sector due to changes in the management environment and competing management

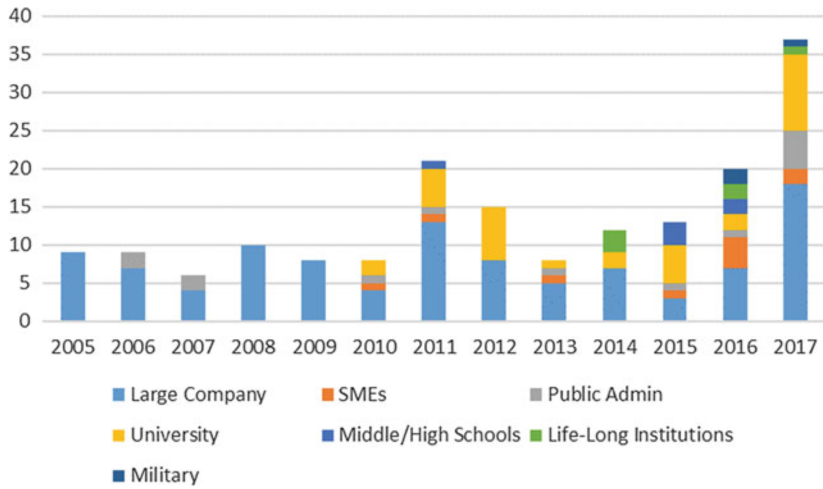

Fig. 12.1 Presentations on action learning at annual conferences 2005–2017 (*Source* Authors)

innovation techniques, the public sector has become more interested in action learning for leadership development, and universities began to use action learning as an alternative, innovative teaching method. With the KALA's active involvement in the dissemination of action learning in diverse organizations, action learning practice has noticeably been diversified into diverse organizations. Figure 12.1 and Table 12.2 (Cho et al., 2019, p. 12) show an increased number of presentations on action learning practice in diverse organizations at annual action learning conferences.

Three Action Learning Cases

Based on background information on the evolution of action learning practice in Korea, we present three action learning cases that represent the changed landscape of action learning in diverse contexts (business, higher education, and the public sector): a corporate R&D Center's Consulting Learning Program, a business school's Human Relations and Communication course, and a Civic Education Program in the Gyeonggi-do

Table 12.2 Presentations on action learning at annual conferences 2005–2017

Year	*Large company*	*SME*	*Public admin*	*University*	*Middle/High school*	*Lifelong learning center*	*Military*	*Total*
2005	9							9
2006	7		2					9
2007	4		2					6
2008	10							10
2009	8							8
2010	4	1	1	2				8
2011	13	1	1	5	1			21
2012	8			7				15
2013	5	1	1	1				8
2014	7			2		3		12
2015	3	1	1	5	3			13
2016	7	4	1	2	2	2	2	20
2017	18	2	5	10		1	1	37
Total	103	10	14	34	6	6	3	176

Note SMEs: small-medium enterprises; Public Admin: public administrations
Source Authors

province as a regional government, all of which are implemented based on action learning. The three cases were chosen because they were:

- The most recent action learning practice in Korea;
- Success cases that achieved program goals from the sponsors and participants perspective; and
- Considered distinctive from the lens of program goals, managing units, participants, program duration, and process.

Consulting Learning Program in a Corporate R&D Center

A corporate R&D Center developed a program called Consulting Learning Program using action learning in 2019 to emphasize the importance of learning in the problem-solving process on urgent issues in the electronics company (e.g., an improvement of functions of Robot Cleaner, and idea generation for new project development) by forming teams of three to seven members with the support of external experts. The purpose of the program was to learn external experts' ideas and technological expertise fast enough to apply what they learned to solve the issues at work, given the company's electronics basis needing fast and timely acquisition of advanced technologies and the corresponding competencies. As the company's other R&D center has successfully implemented the program since 2016, the current center has recently adopted it with the center director's suggestions in learning topics, team selection, and budgets covering all expenses for program management.

When learning teams were formed, human resources (HR) helped participants set up learning goals and outputs, assigned competences needed to be developed, and found external experts in the area who would support learning teams to complete their tasks. With the help of external experts, HR designed the entire learning process that required six to ten sessions with one session taking two to three hours. Experts supported learning teams by examining the feasibility of the ideas for teams' problem-solving and providing advice on new product development and technology, which were necessary for the improvement of the current products. Given no restrictions on locations, learning teams visited experts' offices, laboratories, and work stations to maximize the effectiveness of learning.

The center has since developed new technologies in a swift way at low costs and has delivered outstanding performance in the problem-solving process that was considered difficult before the project launch. Key success factors of the program (Bong & Kim, 2019) include:

- Problem selection: Learning teams and internal experts (e.g., the center director) selected problems at work that they must solve, so participant's commitment was exceptionally high.
- HR support: HR played an instrumental role in identifying external experts, managing budgets, selecting the locations for learning inside and outside of the company, defining participants' competencies to be developed, learning and outcome goals, and sharing outcomes, all of which made participants stay in the project process.
- Participants' satisfaction: Participants took the program as extra work at first, but with external experts' professional help, they solved issues at work, so soon they became greatly involved and satisfied at the end. High re-participation rates show evidence of their high satisfaction.

- An optimum level of the program process: Learning teams and external experts worked through two to three hours versus six to 10 times versus one to three stages with flexibility, leading to high goal achievements.

  However, there are also areas for improvement in the action learning program:
- The process necessary for learning teams' learning outcomes needs to be shared and internalized in the organization.
- As learning teams' implementation and performance depend on team leaders' goals, leadership, and understanding of the program, systematic trainings of team leaders are required.
- The current center director is not interested in the ROI of the program but in the development of participants' learning and competencies. To continue under any new center director's sponsorship, quantitative assessment of the program is called for to see how much it contributes to the problem-solving of the business issues.

A Human Relations and Communication Course in Higher Education

A student in a business school in a southwestern university recovered her estranged relationship with her father that she has had since her middle school years with the help of a human relations and communication course in the fall semester of 2019. With her action learning team's recommendations, she attempted to make continued efforts to be near to her father wherever possible, make side dishes for his lunches, and make hot stews to relieve his hangover after heavy drinking, which resulted in her becoming a friend with him. Another student helped her mom who got divorced and separated from her for some time get treated for her alcohol addiction and completed their plan to take a trip to Busan, the second largest city in Korea, about which they dreamed so long. In an action learning project aiming at improving her relationship with her sister who has been staying at home since she dropped out of a middle school, another student finally succeeded in having a conversation with her sister, scoring a new record that they have not argued over three weeks.

The business course called Human Relations and Communication enrolled 40 students consisting of 20% of other majors and 10% of Asian students from China, Mongol, and Vietnam. The course's goal was to enhance all students' relations, communications, and self-efficacy in the action learning process. To meet the goal, the instructor used an individual project team-based action learning (Table 12.1). To that end, he formed teams of diverse students reflecting gender, nationality, major, and student level in school and assigned them to complete an action learning project aiming at improving their relationships with significant others. Students worked through an action learning process (e.g., planning) and helped to keep each other motivated by sharing information and probing questions, and learning by reflections.

The instructor taught diverse tools and techniques such as active listening and questioning skills in class and encouraged students to discuss challenges they faced in the process of applying what they learned in class to their problems. To tackle the issue of freeriding in team project-based learning, he asked teams to: (a) set up ground rules in the beginning; (b) decide who is doing what, with all being leaders in different areas; and (c) use tools and techniques for the involvement of all team members. In the process, he monitored if teams were meeting the requirements; if problems occurred, he swiftly resolved those problems.

Key success factors of the program include:

- Students' motivation: Students were asked to improve their relationships with significant others in the action learning project, which made them highly motivated.
- Team-building in the beginning: Students were asked to form teams, assign their roles, set up ground rules to prevent free-riders and were assessed on their teamwork.
- Trust between the instructor and students: The instructor respected students' privacy, listened to their struggles, and shared information based on his personal experience.
- Teams' comradeship: Through active listening and questioning skills, students learned how to work through the action learning process, helped each other in the process, and formed comradeship at the end.

Civic Education Program in the Public Sector

The Lifelong Learning Center at the Gyeonggi-do province successfully implemented a civic education program using action learning in 2019 and plan to disseminate the success of the program to 31 cities, towns, and villages in the near future. The purpose of the program was to develop the competencies required as democratic citizens on a daily basis and to have a space for discussion on civic education. In the process of solving issues in community development, participants were asked to become problem-solvers, which consisted of five steps:

- Be aware of community issues;
- Search for real issues in the community;
- Explore alternatives;
- Examine the feasibility of the alternatives;
- Assess the possibility of the application.

People in a small village near the DMZ called Ogori completed the action learning project in which they developed ways to work toward the recovery of the contaminated small river. Ogori used to be a village attracting tourists due to its historic relics and a clean river. However, as barns and factories were built, the river has been contaminated, resulting in damaged crops. People have appealed for help, but the officials had no power to recover the contaminated river, so people decided to do an action learning program. As the first step, they went to see the river, conducted in-depth interviews with people involved, collected first-hand witnesses concerning how they were impacted by the contaminated river, and found that the main cause of the contamination came from the 160 barns and the factory complex nearby, as well as from private homes. As soon as participants came up with an idea of using microbes to clean the contaminated river, they acted on it: they put microbes into the river sample. After witnessing it would be improved by colors and smell, they knew that they finally discovered a way to solve the contamination issue and recommended to officials and related companies to use the method.

Although participants met only four times for action learning, they spent time to visit to see the contaminated river and delivered a solution. In the process, they turned out to be not passive in asking for help but active in solving the issue by themselves. Participants were highly satisfied with the program in which they were able to see the contamination issue from a different perspective and presented a solution and the process they learned how to communicate with each other, as a participant aptly stated:

> I learned how to resolve conflicts in family and friends without getting angry at and not hurting others. The biggest learning has to do with how to do so.

Key success factors of this program include:

- By choosing the project topic that people desired to solve in their daily lives, they were highly motivated to participate in the program.
- The selection of an experienced facilitator made inexperienced participants' discussion and decision-making processes possible to effectively express their ideas and generate the power of collective wisdom.
- The facilitator visited the site, conducted interviews with main stakeholders, and motivated participants to deliver and implement an alternative, instead of preaching action learning theories and principles to participants.
- The facilitator also encouraged participants to reflect on their teamwork in every step of the problem-solving process.

Lessons Learned

The three cases proved to be a success in the use of action learning in diverse contexts, but the key success factor had to do with participants' high motivation. In the corporate R&D center's program, project topics that participants need were chosen, and the learning process was managed by HR with flexibility so as to meet their needs and motivations, which resulted in participants' high satisfaction and program success. In the business school's course, the goal was to improve students' relationships with their significant others; to fulfill this purpose, therefore, students performed team-building, built trust with the instructor, and maintained their motivations to learn with the instructor's guidance on the team meeting process and techniques. In the Gyeonggi-do providence's program, the goal was to solve issues in community development, which was helped by an experienced facilitator who guided participants to work through the problem-solving process and to encourage reflections on each step of the process so that participants were highly motivated and attempted to make it a success.

To assist action learning sponsors in diverse organizations who are asked to make final decisions on whether they should invest human and physical resources for action learning, and practitioners who need to work through the action learning process to encourage participants' motivations to learn, we provide the following questions for research and practice based on the lessons learned from the three cases:

- What are the factors influencing participants' motivations to learn?
- What contextual factors (i.e., context, goals, participants' demographics, sponsors) need to be factored into influence participants' motivations, the selection of the project, HR support, a facilitator's experience, frequencies and the quality of reflections?
- What design and development aspects should be considered to make action learning practice successful in diverse contexts?
- What are organizational supports (e.g., HR) that need to be aligned with participants' motivations to learn?
- What are the role of learning coaches (or facilitators) for participants' motivations to learn?

Discussion and Conclusion

The KALA was listed among the active regional networks and communities of practice in the world (Boshyk & Dilworth, 2010). According to Boshyk's (2016) 27 varieties of action learning approaches, action learning practice in Korea was labeled as learning-coach-led action learning due to its heavy reliance on learning coaches.

No one argues that Korea's collectivist culture that encourages teamwork and the easy formation of team spirit has been instrumental in making action learning practice vital in diverse contexts in Korea (Bong & Cho, 2017; Cho et al., 2019). To that end, learning coaches have played a crucial, facilitating role in the action learning process by teaching participants problem-solving skills, forming a positive atmosphere, encouraging an inquiry process and collective decision-making, and assisting in conflict management. Although the strong presence of learning coaches in Korea counterbalances Revans's emphasis on the limited role of facilitators (Revans, 2011), due to the needs coming from cultural differences, the role of learning coaches in Korea should not be downplayed; on the contrary, the use of learning coaches in action learning practice in Korea can be considered an attempt to strike a balance between acknowledging

Revans's classical principles and their applications in a Korean context (Cho et al., 2019).

Soon faced with the 30th anniversary of action learning launch in 2023, action learning practice in Korea has evolved from management innovation (e.g., Hyundai Oilbank, Daelim Industrial) and leadership development (e.g., LG, SK, Samsung) in the business sector to competency-building in hospitals (e.g., Chonnam National University Medical Center), innovative teaching methods in higher education (e.g., Jeju University) and civic education programs in regional lifelong education centers (e.g., Gyeonggi-do province).

Side-by-side with action learning practitioners, action learning researchers have been active disseminating their study findings in action learning and HR conferences. The fact that more than 20 articles per year have been published in journals and conferences since 2013 attests to collaboration between action learning research and practice in Korea (Cho et al., 2019). Example research topics include: the unique characteristics of action learning in comparison with other learning approaches (e.g., problem-based learning) (Park, Cho, Yoon, & Han, 2013), key success factors of action learning practice (Bong & Cho, 2017), the design and development of action learning programs (Bong, Cho, & Kim, 2014), and the competency model of learning coaches (Kim & Bong, 2009).

The biggest challenge in this changed landscape of action learning practice in Korea lies in how to balance action learning practice originated in Western contexts with Revans's classical principles and the unique cultural context in Korea so as to reflect the strengths generating from the two in future applications in diverse contexts. Not only national culture but organizational culture and participants' demographic characteristics need to be considered in those future applications as well. Such efforts to make action learning grow will open doors to underrepresented contexts in action learning practice: the military, K-12 schools, technical education, small-medium enterprises, and government offices, so that action learning can be used as a powerful tool for creating learning organizations where organizations and organizational members are better equipped with necessary competencies and capabilities to make Korean society better.

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CHAPTER 13

Confirmation Bias and Irrational Decision-Making: Implications for HRD in South Korea and Other Countries

Ahlam Lee

Introduction

Individuals' personal backgrounds are shaped by their innate traits, characteristics from where and how they grew up, what they have experienced, and with whom they have interacted. These personal histories tend to shape one's beliefs (Gerber, Huber, Hoherty, & Dowling, 2010). Understanding diverse beliefs is a necessary skill in an advanced democracy society, but individuals tend to select information or evidence that supports their own beliefs. This tendency is referred to as confirmation bias and is ubiquitous around the world (Nickerson, 1998).

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In this digital age, where information can be rapidly found online, individuals can select information sources that agree with their beliefs. This selective exposure to like-minded news is more prevalent than ever and has increased political and ideological polarization around the globe (Lelkes, Sood, & Iyengar, 2015; Min & Yun, 2018; Spohr, 2017). This polarization also exaggerates partisan homophily and hostile attitudes toward those with opposite viewpoints and jeopardizes diverse viewpoints and rational judgments (Lelkes et al., 2015; Wojcieszak, 2010). Information pertaining to business/economics and social issues also tends to be obtained in a selective, biased manner based on one's beliefs. Focusing only on one narrow perspective is called "confirmation bias" and can affect how individuals see the world and make decisions.

This chapter synthesizes the literature on confirmation bias to articulate how selective exposure to information rooted in ones' confirmation bias may contribute to making irrational decisions that result in undesirable outcomes in various domains. This chapter is structured as follows. First, an overview of confirmation bias is presented through a comparative analysis of contemporary issues associated with confirmation bias between South Korea and other countries. This synthesis of the literature reveals implications for practice in human resource development (HRD) to reduce confirmation bias (CB) training and educational contexts.

Overview of Confirmation Bias

Since Wason (1960) first coined the term "confirmation bias," considerable research has shown that individuals tend to ignore information that disconfirms their existing beliefs in the process of making decisions (Hilbert, 2012). In particular, individuals tend to evaluate limited information by overlooking or devaluing contrary factual information. They tend to perceive that their beliefs are "truth," or "just," but "truth" can be explored and "justice" can be achieved with an objective, open-minded attitude when seeking information (Baron, 2019; Chaiken, Liberman, & Eagly, 1989; Kunda, 1990). The confirmation bias phenomenon is associated with the term "boundary rationality" Simon coined in 1947. Boundary rationality refers to individuals' limited rationality in making decisions because they tend to search selectively for information that favors their beliefs. They also have limited cognitive ability to synthesize an overabundance of information from both a memory and metamemory perspective (Simon, 1978), so they tend to seek a "satisfactory" rather than an "optimal" solution (Simon, 1959).

A meta-analysis of 91 quantitative studies found that individuals are nearly two times more likely to irrationally select information that matches their preexisting beliefs rather than rationally seeking contrary information (Hart et al., 2009), which embraces Simon's notion of boundary rationality. Individuals' emotions influence their information processing, and hence, the decisions they make (Lerner, Li, Valdesolo, & Kassam, 2015). Their emotional reactions may be associated with selective exposure, which is grounded in individuals' personal backgrounds, such as culture, childhood development, and personality (American Psychological Association, 2018; Dunne, 2016), and these personal backgrounds are contributing factors that determine their beliefs (Gerber et al., 2010). Individuals are often unconscious that they engage in confirmation bias and thus tend to make decisions based on their beliefs (Sood, 2013). Taken together, confirmation bias is an unconscious cognitive bias that is based on one's preexisting beliefs, emotions, and personal backgrounds.

Confirmation bias has been well documented in the literature, but there have been few cross-country analyses of this phenomenon. Confirmation bias affects the decision-making process in various domains, including business/economic, political, and social issues (Hilbert, 2012), all of which are likely attributable to a nation's economic, political, and social development. Thus, this study compares confirmation bias as it pertains to contemporary problems in the domains of business/economics, politics, and social issues between South Korea and other countries by synthesizing studies published from 2009 to 2020. Particular focus has been paid to South Korea, which has rapidly transformed from one of the poorest countries in the world to a highly developed nation. The country has also suffered from ideological tension as a result of the political division of North and South Korea since the Korean War (1950–1953).

Although the Cold War is assumed to have ended in most countries, South Korea still faces ideological turmoil derived from South Koreans' divergent political views toward the North Korean regime (Lee 2016, 2018). From an economic standpoint, the country has kept pace with the global economic trends despite the lack of natural resources, suggesting that exporting new products into global markets largely fuels the country's economic engine. Because people mainly create new commercial products, human capital is a major source of South Korea's economic competitiveness in the global economy. Thus, promising HRD practices are imperative to ease the ideological tension among citizens who hold different perspectives, and thus enable them to build strong teamwork and strategize continuous economic growth in South Korea. However, little is documented on the cognitive aspect of HRD in South Korean contexts. This study suggests a framework to address confirmation bias and help people make more rational decisions in various domains.

Research Methods

This study searched peer-reviewed articles published from 2009 to March 2020 that included the keyword "confirmation bias" in the abstract. A total of 99 articles were identified, of which 93 were written in the context of other countries and six were based in South Korea. In the initial search process, when only the English term "confirmation bias" was used, only four articles in South Korea were found. To identify more articles based on South Korea, the Korean term for "confirmation bias" ("확증편향" in Korean) was used, which identified two additional articles. Accordingly, the six articles that focused on South Korean contexts were included in the final analysis.

These six articles were categorized into the following three domains: business/economics (two articles), social issues (three articles), and politics (one article) in the fields of social sciences and humanities. Among the 93 articles set in other countries, I selected 42 that were consistent with the same three domains (i.e., seven articles in business/economics, 20 articles in social issues, and 15 articles in politics). I excluded 51 articles that focused on exploring the concepts of confirmation bias per se but did not address contemporary issues pertaining to the three selected domains. The final analysis included 48 articles (i.e., 42 articles in other countries + six articles in South Korea).

The findings of the reviewed articles provided evidence of confirmation bias, although the findings could not be assumed to be the "truth." Specifically, in hypothesis testing, it is not appropriate to conclude that the author "accepted or did not accept the null hypothesis," but rather, the author "rejected or failed to reject the null hypothesis." This wording in the conclusion of hypothesis testing studies suggests that empirical research provides evidence based on a sample. However, the findings could be refuted using a wide range of other contexts that encompass different samples, additional or different variables, time periods, and regions. Similarly, in qualitative research, the findings researchers interpret may elucidate certain aspects, but they cannot show all aspects of the phenomenon. As such, in the data analysis process, I attempted to provide alternative perspectives or aspects that could be in opposition to the authors' evidence or interpretation.

Results

The 48 articles related to confirmation bias in this study were divided into three domains: business/economics, social issues, and politics to reveal how confirmation bias influences individuals' decision-making in each domain.

Business/Economics

The reviewed articles on business/economics shared a common pattern that confirmation bias serves as an intervening factor that affects individuals' information search behavior and decision-making in various business and economic activities. As shown in Fig. 13.1, a range of sources reinforce or mitigate individuals' existing beliefs and influence their selective exposure to information and decision-making behaviors in business/economics. For example, based on 106,045 reviews from Apple's App Store, Yin, Mitra, and Zhang (2016) found that consumers' initial beliefs about a product were grounded in the product's summary rating statistics, which tended to affect their evaluation of the product. As

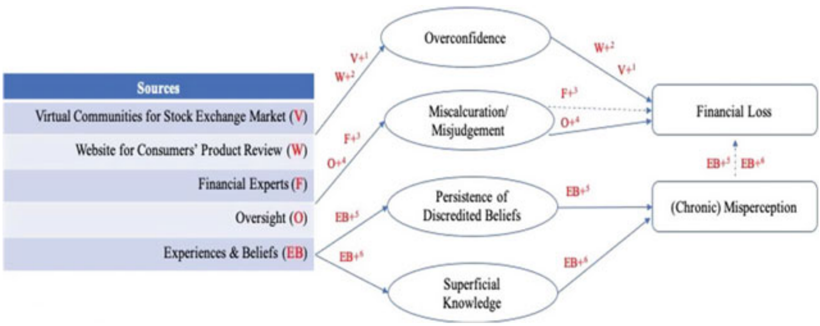

Fig. 13.1 A conceptual model of confirmation bias in business/economic activities (*Note* +Increase. *Source* Author. The dotted line indicates a potential impact. [1] Park et al. [2013] [South Korea]; [2] Yin et al. [2016] [Various countries]; [3] Cipriano and Gruca [2014] [Various countries]; Zaleskiewicz, Gasiorowska, Stasiuk, Maksymiuk, and Bar-Tal [2016] [Poland]; [4] Feldman, Goldin, and Homonoff [2018] [USA]; [5] Mandler et al. [2017] [South Korea]; Nelson [2014] [Various countries]; [6] Devlin and Billings [2018] [USA]; Misra et al. [2019] [Indonesia])

another example, in Indonesia, tax consultants who were under pressure to be more accountable tended to search for information in more depth when making their tax recommendations compared to their counterparts (Misra, Sugiri, Suwardi, & Nahartyo, 2019). This finding illustrates that pressure to be accountable can mitigate tax consultant's confirmation bias and discourage selective exposure while searching for tax information for their clients.

Of the nine articles pertaining to business/economics across countries, two investigated the confirmation bias phenomenon in the South Korean context. One study (Park, Konana, Gu, Kumar, & Raghunathan, 2013) was contextualized in stock market investment and the other (Mandler, Won, & Kim, 2017) focused on fashion brands. In a sample of 502 investors, Park et al. (2013) found that investors showed confirmation bias by selecting information from virtual communities such as stock message boards that confirmed their prior beliefs on their trading decisions and investment performance. Those with stronger confirmation bias tended to show greater overconfidence in their investment decisions and higher expectations about their trading performance, but they were more likely to have a lower return than their counterparts. The authors noted that their finding was contrary to evidence from several other studies that virtual communities provide accurate information in a timely manner allowing investors to make rational decisions and gain a better financial return. Park and colleagues' study also indicated that dominant information from virtual communities serves as a contextual factor that determines investors' strong beliefs and leads to overconfidence in their trading decisions.

Mandler et al.'s (2017) study showed that while consumers misperceived the country of origin (COO) of certain fashion brands, they were willing to correct their previous beliefs about the COO if they evaluated the COO favorably. However, consumers were less likely to adjust their brand-related beliefs if they perceived that the true COO was unfavorable. This finding suggests that there is a wide range of antecedents of consumers' beliefs about a brand's COO, including the brand name's local language or meaning (e.g., an Italian or English-sounding brand name) and consumer-related factors (e.g., age, gender, international or travel experiences, and marketplace experiences).

Social Issues

As Fig. 13.2 shows a synthesis of the 23 articles pertaining to social issues. The synthesis provides a conceptual model of how sources can serve as an

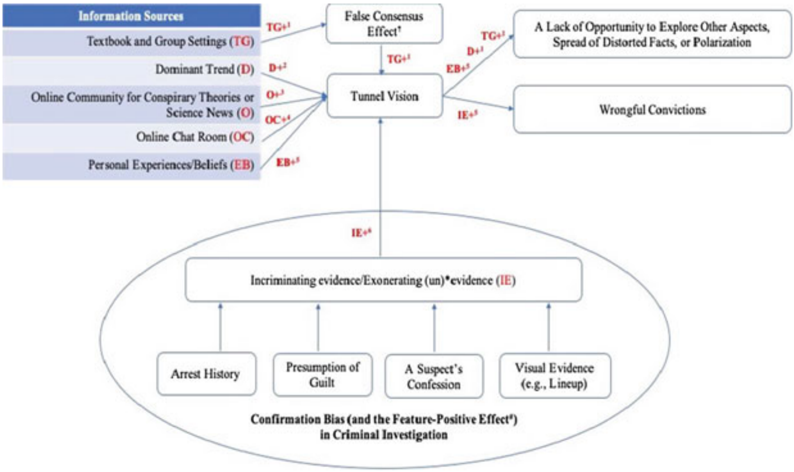

Fig. 13.2 A conceptual model of confirmation bias in social issues (*Note* †. *Source* Author. It refers to the tendency that individuals' beliefs, behaviors, and judgment are assumed to be commonly shared with others. *The absence of information. #It refers to the tendency that individuals put weight on the presence over absence of information [e.g., a single feature/expert evidence]. +Increase. [1] Allen [2015] [England]; [2] Cho and Kim [2012] [South Korea]; Roh and Kim [2019a, 2019b] [South Korea]; [3] Knobloch-Westerwick, Johnson, Silver, and Westerwick [2015b] [USA]; Peruzzi, Zollo, Schmidt, and Quattrociocchi [2018] [Italy and USA]; [4] Kim and Davis [2012] [USA]; [5] Banuri et al. [2019] [UK and USA]; Copestake [2014] [Africa, Irish, and UK]; Kwon, Shan, Lee, and Reid [2017] [Various countries]; Spratt, Devaney, and Hayes [2015]; Wroughton, McGowan, Weiss, and Cope [2013] [USA]; [6] Charman, Matuku, and Mook [2019] [USA]; Cooper and Meterko [2019] [Various countries]; Dror [2013] [Various countries]; Edmond, Tangen, Searston, and Dror [2015] [Various countries]; Eerland and Rassin [2012] [Netherlands]; Groenendaal and Helsloot [2015] [Netherlands]; de Gruijter, de Poot, & Elffers [2017] [Netherlands]; Kukucka and Kassin [2014] [USA]; Lidén, Gräns, and Juslin [2018] [Sweden]; Lidén, Gräns, and Juslin [2019] [Sweden]; Palmer, Brewer, and Weber [2012] [Australia])

intervening factor that determines the magnitude of one's confirmation bias and the direction of decision-making. Of the 23 articles, three were set in the context of South Korea's employment challenges for college graduates. As background, South Korea has the highest rate of participation in higher education among OECD countries, but there is a shortage of available jobs that meet their qualifications in South Korea's labor market (Grubb, Sweet, Gallagher, & Tuomi, 2009).

Roh and Kim's (2019a) literature review showed that in 2017, 68.9% of high school graduates attended college, but only 34.7% of college graduates obtained employment. To better understand this employment crisis, the authors investigated the relationship among 482 participants' preferred occupation type, confirmation bias, and anxiety about job insecurity. They found that participants' preferred occupation was significantly associated with their confirmation bias derived from social norms about occupations that were in demand, which increased their anxiety about job insecurity.

Another study by Roh and Kim (2019b) supplemented their previous study by exploring the role of confirmation bias in youths' career decisions before and during college using in-depth interviews with 11 college students. The authors concluded that the interviewees tended to gather information that allowed them to justify their decision to choose a specific career path that they believed was the best option for their future. However, the information was derived from others' perspectives or advice about current job market trends rather than their own reflections on their career interests or aptitude. Similarly, Cho and Kim (2012) investigated the relationship between ego identity status[1] and confirmation bias when searching for career information related to teaching jobs in a sample of 737 students in a teacher's college. They found that those with foreclosure status (i.e., who tend to adopt others' perspectives uncritically and resist looking at alternative perspectives) were more likely to show a higher level of confirmation bias. In particular, they sought career information that supported positive outlooks of teacher jobs compared to their peers that exhibited diffusion, moratorium, and achievement statuses.

[1] Erikson (1956, 1963) hypothesized that individuals experience psychosocial crisis related to ego identity and diffusion in late adolescence when they begin to be involved in several domains such as occupational choices, religion, politics, and lifestyle. As guided by Erickson's notion, Marcia (1966) classified ego identity into four types of status (i.e., foreclosure, diffusion, moratorium, and achievement).

Notably, 11 of 23 articles related to social issues shared a common concern about forensic confirmation bias in criminal investigations and judicial decision-making. These studies were all set in the USA, Australia, Netherlands, Sweden, and other undisclosed countries. These articles noted that criminal investigators tended to search for and interpret information that fit within a range of contextual factors, such as presumption of guilt, a suspect's arrest history, and his/her confession immediately after a crucial interrogation (e.g., Groenendaal & Helsloot, 2015; de Gruijter et al., 2017; Kukucka & Kassin, 2014). If these contextual factors lead to correct judgment, this approach is not a problem, but if not, innocent people suffer from being wrongly convicted. Cooper and Meterko (2019) pointed out that the 29 studies they reviewed demonstrated methodological deficiencies that might limit the ability to generalize confirmation bias in legal decision-making. However, they admitted that the studies provided evidence that forensic science practitioners or trainees tend to be susceptible to various types of cognitive bias. Groenendaal and Helsloot's (2015) literature review of mixed findings also suggested that while several studies found that legal investigators could have tunnel vision from their confirmation bias which caused them to make erroneous decisions, most of these studies focused exclusively on the negative effects of tunnel vision. They ignored cases in which tunnel vision led to an efficient investigation process (i.e., increasing the number of criminal cases solved).

Groenendaal and Helsloot's (2015) study used data drawn from 10 semi-structured group interviews with team leaders who were responsible for leading legal investigations and prosecution in serious crimes. They found that tunnel vision had failed to contribute to either the efficient or prudent investigation (prevention of errors) of a tragic child murder case in the Netherlands. Despite the mixed findings in the extant literature, confirmation bias seems to play an influential role in legal decisions, which indicates that prudent attitudes must be adopted to evaluate legal cases. Namely, it is necessary to continue to gather all available relevant information to a legal case before concluding that a suspect is guilty.

Politics

A total of 16 articles investigated confirmation bias in politics. As shown in Fig. 13.3, information sources such as social media sites, online news, and broadcasting media tend to serve as a contextual factor that reinforces

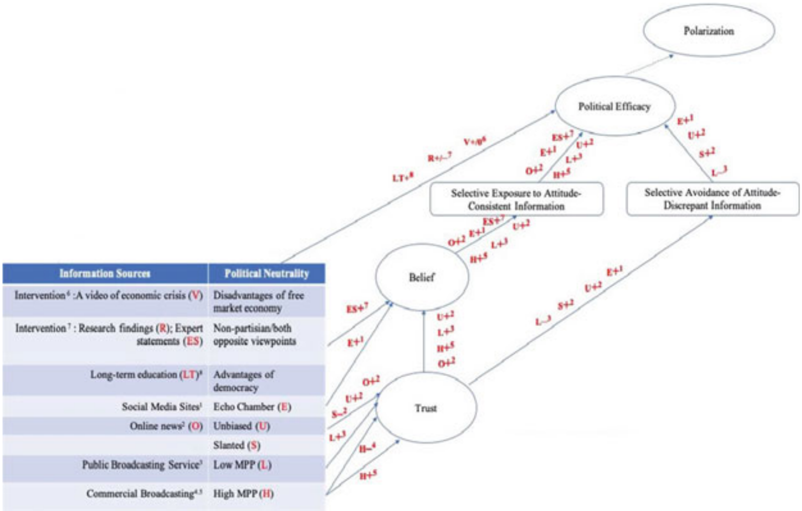

Fig. 13.3 A conceptual model of confirmation bias in politics (*Note* +Increase– Decrease. *Source* Author. +/0 Increase for opponents of free market economy [+] and weak or no change for proponents of free market economy [−/0]. +/–Tend to be moderate. The dotted line indicates a potential impact. [1] Lee [2018] [South Korea]; [2] Knobloch-Westerwick, Johnson, and Westerwick [2015a] [USA]; Knobloch-Westerwick, Mothes, Johnson, Westerwick, and Donsbach [2015c] [Germany and USA]; Knobloch-Westerwick, Mothes, and Polavin [2020] [USA]; Tremayne [2015][#] [USA]; Sude, Knobloch-Westerwick, Robinson, and Westerwick [2019] [USA]; Tsfati [2016] [Israel]; Westerwick, Johnson, and Knobloch-Westerwick [2017] [USA]; [3] Knobloch-Westerwick, Liu, Hino, Westerwick, and Johnson [2019] [Japan, Germany]; [4] Knobloch-Westerwick et al. [2019] [Japan, Germany]; [5] Knobloch-Westerwick et al. [2019] [USA]; Knobloch-Westerwick and Lavis [2017] [USA]; Yeo, Xenos, Brossard, and Scheufele [2015] [USA]; [6] Runst [2014] [USA]; [7] Anglin [2019] [USA]; Lerman and Acland [2020] [USA]; Mothes [2017] [Germany]*; [8] Cho [2014] [Various countries] [# focused on partisan media writers' attitudes; *focused on both journalists and citizens])

or mitigates ones' attitudes in either selective exposure to attitude-consistent information or selective avoidance of attitude-discrepant information, which determines the degree of individuals' confirmation bias and polarization. For example, Japanese and German citizens are more likely to view public broadcasting service (PBS) and trust this media source compared to US citizens, given evidence that Japan and German's PBS and media have relatively lower Media Party Parallelism (MPP)[2] than media in the US (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2019). The authors argued that Japan's and Germany's PBS and media with a lower MPP appears to be associated with their citizens' lower level of confirmation bias with a smaller difference between selective exposure to attitude-consistent and selective avoidance of attitude-discrepant information compared to US citizens.

Among the 16 articles in this domain, one study (Lee, 2018) was set in South Korea. Lee's study targeted a right-wing group and proposed that confirmation bias and emotions such as anger toward the opposite political group were the reasons they decided to participate in right-wing rallies against the impeachment of former President Park Geun-hye (hereinafter, Pro-Park rallies). Consistent with this hypothesis, Lee found that those who participated in Pro-Park rallies sought to find relevant information from social media sites that was consistent with their belief.[3] Min and Yun (2018) argued that, similar to other countries' citizens, South Koreans depend largely on social media sites such as Facebook and KakaoTalk[4] when searching for information in a selective or biased way, which tended to increase their selective exposure and political polarization with respect to the presidential impeachment, regardless of their political views. To supplement these findings, a follow-up study needs to focus on both political groups to determine why they engaged in such rallies. In an effort to provide a more comprehensive picture of South Korea's political

[2] MPP refers to "…the extent to which specific media outlets in a society are associated with particular parties or with political tendencies" (Knobloch-Westerwick, Liu, Hino, Westerwick, & Johnson, 2019, p. 430).

[3] The belief described in Lee's (2018) study is as follows: A considerable number of the South Korea's left-wing progressive politicians are Pro-North Korean forces, such that they attempted to impeach former President Park, who had shown antipathy toward the North Korean regime during her presidency. Those who participated in Pro-Park rallies claimed that the Pro-North Korean forces triggered South Korea's mainstream media to instigate the massive participation in candlelight rallies against former President Park. The public's sentiment against her fueled South Korea's Constitutional Court to interpret controversial evidence of her allegations as evidence of political guilt and decided to uphold the impeachment. Accordingly, Lee found that participants in Pro-Park rallies demonstrated anger against the candlelight rallies.

[4] KakaoTalk is a free instant messaging application for smartphones, similar to WhatsApp, that provides a range of free communication tools, such as texts, voice, and video calls.

climates in recent years, such a study could help articulate the psychological mechanisms of rally participants that reveal confirmation bias or other emotional factors.

Unlike Lee's study, the other 16 studies that were set in other countries did not focus exclusively on a specific political group's confirmation bias. Rather, they hypothesized that all individuals fall prey to confirmation bias regardless of their political or ideological preferences, which is consistent with the abundant evidence in the extant literature. A synthesis of these studies demonstrated that political and ideological preferences exaggerate the selective exposure derived from existing beliefs. Confirmation bias could be attenuated to some extent by being exposed to contrary evidence that refutes their existing beliefs. For example, Anglin (2019) found that regardless of political preferences, participants leaned toward evidence that favored their existing beliefs related to several controversial issues associated with US politics, such as religion, gun control, and the death penalty. However, they tended to show less biased attitudes after learning about evidence that was contrary to their preexisting beliefs.

Similarly, Runst (2014) found that individuals' attitudes changed temporarily in favor of government intervention in economic crises, although the degree of attitudinal change likely depends on their prior economic ideology. Those who favor the free market principle showed weak or no change in their attitudes compared to their counterparts who favored governmental intervention after watching a short video about housing bubbles. Taken together, all available information from various sources should be considered fully in an effort to make a more rational decision, given the overwhelming scientific evidence that selective exposure to attitude-consistent political information reinforces ones' confirmation bias and increases political polarization.

Implications for HRD Practices

Confirmation bias tends to reinforce tunnel vision and likely leads to unwanted outcomes. When making decisions related to business/economic activities designed to increase profits, individuals tend to cling to previous beliefs and limit their search for contrary information, which may result in financial loss. In social issues, when individuals give significant weight to others' dominant beliefs or popular information rather than thinking critically, they tend to make erroneous judgments and decisions.

In politics, individuals tend to assume that their political or ideological views are just and thus overlook or devalue contrary evidence that challenges their preferred political or ideological views. However, justice tends to be subjective depending on the aspects on which an individual wants to focus, which could distort the truth and impede democracy. While individuals tend to believe information that confirms opponent politicians' negative reputations, they need to make an effort to see or listen to positive aspects of their opponents' claims.

Taking into account the reviewed studies' findings, I recommend that leaders should design and implement training programs that aim to minimize employees', trainees', and students' confirmation bias. Training programs for HRD should include practical content that learners can apply to real-world situations (e.g., Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Creon & Schermuly, 2019). To do so, Baldwin and Ford's (1988) Transfer of Training Model suggests that learners' characteristics such as ability, personality, and motivation should be assessed prior to designing a training program for HRD. The training content should then be tailored to the interests of prospective learners to give learners an opportunity to use the new knowledge and skills in their daily lives.

For effective training transfer, there is a dearth of research directly related to a confirmation bias (CB) training for HRD. However, a growing body of literature has also documented emotional intelligence (EI) training for HRD which shares a common goal with CB training. A systematic review of 27 studies showed that EI training aims to develop individuals' empathetic attitudes toward others who might have a different perspective and to build interpersonal relationships with others by understanding, perceiving, and managing others' their own emotions (Farnia & Nafukho, 2016). Here, emotion is a source of confirmation bias, so EI and CB training have the same goal. Thus, it would be worthwhile to benchmark a model of successful EI training programs when designing a CB training program. Farnia and Nafukho's (2016) systematic review suggested that following an EI training course, team-based learning activities are more likely to improve EI. Accordingly, a mix of training courses and team-based learning activities is a useful structure for CB training programs as discussed in the remaining sections.

Given that confirmation bias is an unconscious cognitive bias, Kegan's Theory of the Evolution of Consciousness (TEC: 1994, 2000) can be adopted as a theoretical lens when designing a CB training program. TEC proposes five stages in the development of consciousness: (1) the

"Impulsive Mind" stage (2–6 years old), (2) the "Instrumental Mind" stage (6 years to adolescence), (3) the "Socialized Mind" stage, (4) the "Self-Authoring" stage, and (5) the "Self-Transforming" stage.

Kegan posited that before the age of forty, individuals are less likely to reach the fifth stage of consciousness until they are able to see others' ideologies beyond themselves and understand how all people nested in a societal system are interrelated. He claimed that even after the age of forty, very few adults reach the fifth stage. Until post-adolescence, individuals tend to be concerned about how others perceive them and are more interested in building interpersonal relationships with others. Individuals in the "Socialized Mind" stage tend to make decisions based on others' advice or the dominant beliefs of their peers. Individuals in this conscious stage are more vulnerable to confirmation bias because they tend to exclusively follow popular views.

Individuals in the "Self-Authoring Mind" stage have the ability to establish their internal values and take responsibility for their perspectives in making decisions, but at least half of the adult population is unlikely to reach this stage (Kegan, 1994). Based on Kegan's notion, training programs should be designed to help adolescents and adults advance their consciousness level from the Socialized Mind stage to the more advanced stages: the Self-Authoring Mind and Self-Transforming Mind stages. To do so, CB training programs should be designed to provide the bigger picture by showing all available information, which allows individuals to establish self-authored perspectives with self-reflective, self-directed, and critical-thinking abilities rather than simply relying on a dominant trend ("대세" in Korean) that many of their peers follow.

Business/Economic Activities

The reviewed studies demonstrated that individuals' overconfidence in their existing beliefs in business activities is a risk factor that contributes to making erroneous decisions. To minimize excessive reliance on one's existing beliefs, HRD experts are encouraged to develop a CB training program pertaining to business/economic activities. A CB training program should utilize both lecture-based training modules and team-based exercises (Farnia & Nafukho, 2016). The lecture-based training modules may include potential scenarios or real cases of how confirmation bias could influence individuals' decision-making and result in different outcomes. Team-based exercises could include collaborative and experimental learning activities. For example, participants could engage in a stock market simulation game where a group of learners is supposed to work together to investigate a wide range of factors that influence stock prices and coach each other to avoid confirmation bias prior to making their individual decisions on stock.

It is important for individuals to work together with their peers in gathering and synthesizing all information on influencing factors related to stock prices and providing peer coaching. However, the CB training program should also allow them to build a self-authored mindset and take responsibility for their individual decisions as suggested by Kegan's Self-Authoring stage (1994). Individuals may want to develop a rational agenda for mutual benefits between themselves and relevant stakeholders involved in business/economic activities rather than placing emotional or personal trust in a specific stakeholder, they must keep in mind that every stakeholder (e.g., buyers, sellers, financial advisors, etc.) is pursuing his/her self-interest. Such a rational agenda should be developed based on all available information from various sources, including empirical, theoretical, and anecdotal evidence that highlights both benefits and risks of relevant stakeholders.

Social Issues

As the reviewed studies demonstrated, because of uncertainty and fear about ones' future in a fiercely competitive job market, individuals tend to rely on what others advise or perceive about certain occupations when making their career decisions. While it is worthwhile to listen to others' advice and consider job market trends, individuals need to reflect on whether they are affected largely by a trend and others' dominant beliefs or if they are exploring their own career interests and aptitude. Others may inadvertently limit individuals' potential to follow a certain career path by attempting to apply a collective frame grounded in others' dominant beliefs and trends. In fitting their life into such a collective frame, individuals may try to meet the expectations of others rather than to identify their own career interests and aptitudes.

CB training program related to career development can be designed to help learners gather and synthesize labor market information from various sources, identify the gap between the information and their own career interest and aptitude, and assess the needs and resources to pursue a career path. As guided by a training course and team-based learning activities (Farnia & Nafukho, 2016), training modules may include stories of people from diverse backgrounds who are preparing for their careers, currently employed in a certain area, or pursuing another career path because they were dissatisfied with their current jobs. Those stories can give a sense of how to wisely develop a career plan. Following the training modules, peer-mentoring programs could serve as team-based learning activities to encourage and support each other in developing their career plans based on their own career interests and aptitudes rather than others' expectations.

Individuals may be afraid of planning and designing their career path themselves, because it may be unique or challenging because it has not been attempted or achieved by many others. Because of fear, they may fit their lives within a collective frame that most people follow. As mirrored by Kegan's (1994) TEC, when individuals are planning their careers, a CB training program needs to help them progress from the third stage—the "Socialized Mind"—to the fourth—the "Self-Authoring" stage. As a pioneer on a certain career path, an individual can become "an author" who creates a new career trend rather than remain a follower who pursues a dominant trend.

Politics

Political decision-making is one of the most critical human behaviors because it determines a nation's destiny. A nation's political ideology and system tend to be articulated by its leaders' and citizens' collective perspectives, which shapes the way citizens are involved in a activities related to business/economics and social issues (Barrett, 2012). Accordingly, developing a comprehensive understanding of political issues may need to be a lifelong learning goal for those who desire to uphold democracy and have freedom and opportunities to engage in personal activities. In the next section, I provide a detailed description of how CB training programs related to politics can be designed in a South Korean context.

A CB training program related to politics should be designed by experts with different political viewpoints. An ideologically balanced group can generate objective, impartial, and rational decision-making to develop learning guidelines and materials (Banuri, Dercon, & Gaurim, 2019). As framed by a mix of training courses and team-based learning activities (Farnia & Nafukho, 2016), CB training program related to politics could yield effective training transfer. Through a CB training program, individuals should learn how to demonstrate well-rounded, comprehensible, and unresentful behavior toward opposing viewpoints. Based on normative democratic theory, citizens are expected to seek diverse information, including opposing viewpoints, in the process of developing their own opinions, but, in reality, individuals resist engaging with opposing viewpoints (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2015a). Thus, promoting a CB training program that encourages individuals to explore opposing viewpoints helps develop critical thinking and empathy toward others.

With respect to necessary content for training courses related to South Korea's politics, it may be necessary to address South Korea's modern history, given the reality that recent history has shaped South Korean's political and ideological tension. South Koreans fiercely debate how history is interpreted because of Korea's and the world's interrelated modern history.[5] Korean's modern history shows that several countries were deeply interconnected with in establishing South Korea and North Korea, which has led to today's ongoing ideological conflict or cooperation among these countries together with the unending Korean War over the past seven decades. Millions of people's personal histories and that of their families and ancestors have shaped these ideological dynamics. Individuals' personal histories tend to play a critical role in determining their ideological and political attitudes toward the countries interrelated to Korea's modern history. In this sense, as team-based learning activities, sharing personal and family stories from the past to the present related to Korea's historical events could cultivate empathy for others. Online debates by stakeholders from different perspectives could reveal a larger picture of Korea's modern history and its relation to South

[5] Briefly, Korea's liberation (August 15, 1945) from Japanese colonial rule (1910–1945) occurred after the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki (August 6, 1945) and the end of World War II (September 2, 1945). The Korean War began when North Korean troops backed by former Soviet military forces invaded South Korea on June 25, 1950. The brutal war lasted until July 27, 1953, when the Korean Armistice Agreement was signed between the North Korean side consisting of China's and North Korea's military commanders, and the US-led United Nations command that had backed South Korean troops during the Korean War. However, South Korea never signed the agreement, because the first President of South Korea, Rhee Syngman, disagreed with the division between the two Koreas, and wanted to finalize the Korean reunification led by the South Korean side instead.

Korean politics. However, of significant note, debate participants may be fearful of doxing or online harassment from people who have opposite perspectives. To enable debate participants to have the courage of their conviction in addressing their perspectives, their profiles may not need to be disclosed. In addition, the online debate moderators could ensure that debate participants are experts who are well qualified to facilitate the debates.

A CB training program related to politics also needs to target South Korean young adults, because most South Korean history textbooks omit historical facts that are unfavorable to the North Korean side, or they interpret the facts in favor of North Korea and its allies. Given the reality that the divergent views of the North Korean regime signal ongoing ideological warfare, at least within South Korea, students in K-12 and higher education settings should be given the opportunity to learn how to develop a balanced, unbiased, and comprehensive view of South Korea's modern history. CB training is recommended because emotional valuations derived from any biases tend to be learned from authority figures like teachers, formal curricula, and classroom instruction (Allport, 1954). One CB training module could include various aspects of Korea's modern history. As team-based learning activities, teachers could ask students to engage in classroom discussions in an effort to develop a comprehensive view of how several historical events are associated with the past and ongoing ideological tension on the Korean Peninsula. When facilitating classroom discussions, an inclusive learning environment needs to be fostered since individuals tend to look for psychological safety because of the fear of conflict with others, appearing incompetent, or being isolated after sharing their perspectives (Creon & Schermuly, 2019). Students should be allowed to develop their own views and reach Kegan's "Self-Authoring" and "Self-Transforming mind stages. Fostering discussion will help them learn about viewpoint diversity and develop an inclusive attitude toward people who hold different political perspectives.

Another aspect of politics is diversity among academic disciplines. It would be useful for students to develop viewpoint diversity given that each academic discipline's overarching goal is based on an ideology (Duarte et al., 2015). Training modules for this aspect could include the role of each academic discipline and the interconnection among disciplines. Specifically, hard sciences (e.g., business, computer science, and engineering) pursue economic growth and effectiveness by creating new sources of capital, while soft sciences (e.g., education, sociology, and social psychology) seek equality and social justice by studying human identities and relationships. The training module could include examples demonstrating that the best interests of both hard and soft sciences are not separated, but interrelated. For example, educational and social welfare programs for marginalized populations cannot be designed and implemented without funding derived from new sources of capital that people in hard sciences develop. Concurrently, in the process of creating new sources of capital, it is imperative to build strong teamwork and mutual respect among people from different professional and personal backgrounds, including positions, socioeconomic status, gender, and ethnicity. How to collaborate with different people can be learned from the soft sciences. Following these training modules, the CB training program could include role-playing exercises as team-based learning activities. Each student could role play a working professional in the disciplines of either hard or soft sciences and interact with each other in potential scenarios to resolve a problem based on a collaborative partnership among stakeholders.

As noted above, very few adults reach the fifth stage of consciousness the "Self-Transforming Mind" stage—the highest stage in which individuals in a society understand others' ideologies and see the relationship with their own perspectives (Kegan, 1994). Individuals tend to resist accepting the flaws of their ideologies, given that their ideologies are related to their personal identities (Stanley, 2015). By implementing a CB training program, leaders in various contexts (e.g., HRD training in private and public organizations, K-12 and higher education settings) should prepare their people to become mature citizens who know how to see the interconnections between ideologies, show a rational, respectful attitude toward people whose ideologies differ, and collaborate with people from different ideological perspectives. Such efforts may prevent polarization and uphold democracy with checks and balances.

Conclusion

Individuals' personal backgrounds shape their beliefs and affect their attitudes toward confirmative and contradictory beliefs. Individuals tend to protect their cognitive world by only seeking information that supports their existing beliefs and ignoring contrary information. However, evidence shows that contextual factors such as education and the media can serve as moderators to either support or challenge their existing beliefs. CB training program designs for HRD could play a moderating role in revisiting ones' attitudes toward similar or different perspectives. This type of training can help paint a comprehensive picture of how various perspectives are interrelated, how they shape societies, and how to make more rational decisions in various domains.

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CHAPTER 14

Research Issues on HRD in South Korea: Author Profiling Analysis

Eunsol Park and Daeyeon Cho

Introduction: Overview of Intellectual Structure Analysis

Intellectual structure analysis is useful for understanding the current status of academic activities centered on researchers, academic community characteristics, researcher groups, and schools of thought (Kim, 2008). Through the analysis of the intellectual structure of the HRD field, it is possible to gain insights into logically and systematically constructed research topics, areas of interest, research subjects, and research methods (Seo & Chung, 2013). Based on this approach, it is possible to understand the current academic topography and discover research areas, research topics, research subjects, and research methods that should be of additional interest, which can help researchers to conduct further research (Lee, 2011; Riew & Eum, 2016).

A representative way to gain insight into the intellectual structure of HRD is to analyze the literature in the HRD field. Thus, some scholars in HRD fields have tried to grasp the academic characteristics of HRD

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by analyzing the meaning of HRD research fields from prior literature. These scholars' studies have contributed to the establishment of the identity of the field of HRD, but some limitations exist. First, a number of previous studies analyzing the literature of the HRD field are focused on specific topics or keywords such as coaching (Sung & Cho, 2016), national human resource development (Shin, Cho, Hyun, & Um, 2006), and technology (Oh & Huang, 2018). As such, they are not representative of the entire field of HRD, but rather limited aspects of it. In addition, some previous studies analyzed articles that applied specific research methods such as mediated research (Song & Lim, 2015; Ghosh & Jacobson, 2016) and social network analysis methods (Hyun, 2011). Thus, previous studies have failed to effectively conduct comprehensive HRD trend analyses and accurately convey the intellectual structure of HRD in Korea.

Second, some studies analyzed literature about HRD as a whole, rather than limited topics within the field, provided only a general discussion because they relied on the frequency of publication as a means of analysis (e.g., Jang, Shon, & Ha, 2013; Kim, 2004; Kim & Jeon, 2005; Ryu, 2014). Most of the previous studies were conducted by presenting the frequency of journal publication, publication year, and research subjects. This frequency-based, one-dimensional analysis has limitations in revealing the intellectual structure of scholarship.

In particular, there have been attempts to grasp the intellectual structure of the HRD field by using author co-citation analysis, but there is a limitation due to the lack of specific criteria for dividing clusters. Hyun, Cho, and Yoon (2015) analyzed the papers published from 2007 to 2014 in three representative HRD related journals in Korea to derive author clusters and themes. The results of the cluster analysis were statistically significant, and authors were divided into clusters comprised of 2, 4, 7, 13, 16, and 23 members. But in cluster analysis, there were no objective criteria for how many clusters to choose. Therefore, the number of clusters is limited to relying on the subjectivity and judgment of the researcher (Lee, 2006). In addition, in Korea's situation where a large number of papers cite foreign scholars' papers (Hyun, Park, & Yi, 2012; Lee, 2006), the analysis of intellectual structure through author co-citation has a limitation that many roles of Korea HRD researchers are missing. Also, continued citations of deceased and retired researchers, excessive self-citations, mandatory citations of articles from certain journals (Jung, 2012), articles, and citation data missing some periods of time, and articles for which Korea Citation Index (KCI) did not provide a citation index, all reduce the accuracy of the findings.

The author profiling technique is a text mining analysis method first proposed in the late 2000s. Unlike author co-citation analysis or thematic analysis, the author profiling method expresses the author through the words or indexes used in the author's published documents (Kim & Lee, 2007). Author profiling analysis can be performed immediately after publication, without waiting for the citation of the literature. As such, it enables the identification of current researchers and analysis of the latest research topics that do not appear in author co-citation analysis (Lee, 2008). Ryoo and Choi (2011), who compared the utility of author profiling analysis and author co-citation analysis, found that author profiling analysis reflects recent research trends and that the relationships between authors and themes can be clearly expressed.

Research Purpose and Question

The purpose of this study is to analyze the intellectual structure of the entire HRD field in Korea and to find out the relationships among researchers through research papers, researcher groups, research areas, and research topics. This study seeks to provide implications for the current HRD field of study and direction of future research. In order to achieve the research purpose, this study used author profiling analysis. Based on this, the following research questions were formulated.

1. What are the research areas of Korean HRD based on research groups?
2. What are the common research topics for each pair of researchers in Korean HRD?
3. What are the connections between researchers based on the research topics in Korean HRD?

Literature Review

Previous studies, which used the content analysis method, divided and categorized research areas as analysis frames and then analyzed the frequency with which they occur. Kim (2004) analyzed the research areas and characteristics of papers published in 12 journals from 1980 to 2004. He reported that the area of educational training was highest among the six research areas (educational training, organizational development, career development, national human resource development, human resource development) and organizational development showed a marked increase over that period. Also, according to the academic background of the journal, the research areas appeared differently, but this trend decreased from the 1980s to the 2000s, and the number of articles included in two or more research areas increased. For example, the Journal of Korea Business Review published the most papers in the organizational development area, and the Journal of Educational Technology published numerous papers related to the educational training area. However, the number of papers related to more than one area increased rapidly from 13 (6.3%) in the 1980s to 106 (17.5%) in the 2000s (Kim, 2004). This trend shows that as times change, researchers in the field of HRD have been gradually researching various topics, and single researchers have researched in various areas.

Jang et al. (2013) analyzed the HRD processes, research methods, and researcher affiliations of 279 papers and their authors. The papers were published in three HRD journals (The Korean Journal of Human Resource Development, The Journal of Training and Development and Journal of Learning and Performance) from 2006 to 2011. The result was similar to that of Kim (2004) and showed that the highest frequency research topic, among 5 research fields, was educational training (educational training, organization development, career development, country and community HRD, others), and that evaluation had the highest frequency among HRD process analysis methods (analysis, design and development, operation, evaluation). In addition, most of the researchers' institutions belonged to universities and the research primarily occurred in the capital area, where universities offered HRD as an academic major. In particular, Jang et al. (2013) were concerned about bias related to the selection of research topics and methods preferred by a few universities because the top six ranked universities accounted for 53% of all the research.

Some studies applied author co-citation network analysis as a way to identify research groups and research subjects through analysis of HRD research literature. Hyun et al. (2015) selected 59 major authors who were cited more than once from 232 first authors of 360 papers published in 3 Korean HRD journals from 2007 to 2014. They reported that

85.7% of the major authors were professors, followed by practitioners and researchers. This finding is in line with the findings of Jang et al. (2013) who found that the institutions which researchers were affiliated with were mainly universities.

Hyun et al. (2015) identified seven clusters among the 59 main authors and named each cluster appropriately (human competency improvement for young men and e-learning designers, system approach for training effectiveness, competency for executives and HRD-ers, HRD evaluations, HRD solutions, mentoring in career development, leadership and the role of professionals). Among them, the HRD solutions cluster represented 36 of 59 total researchers. It also included a variety of topics such as different types of learning, career development, HRD capabilities and trends, social capital, and social networks. In addition, Hyun et al. (2015) reported that the keyword "competence" appeared in every cluster and the boundary of the cluster was unclear because keywords such as training and transfer, effectiveness, program evaluation, mentoring, career development, and leadership were mixed in clusters. In other words, the researchers studied various themes so that the research group was not clearly divided according to certain themes. This finding may have indicated an academic characteristic that researchers are interested in a variety of subjects, making division into schools difficult. However, the above study excluded citation data for some periods because they used KCI citation data, and applied a threshold criterion that can be subjective for identifying optimal cluster numbers.

Methods

Author profiling analysis is a method of expressing a subject as an author. The words included in a specific author's literature are expressed as author-word (index) vectors, and then clustering and network analyses are performed based on the similarity between the vectors.

Sample/Data Collection

This study selected major authors and collected their articles published in journals for the period of 2010 to 2019. Analysis including studies older than 10 years is ineffective for current intellectual structure analysis, and the majority of previous studies that analyzed HRD research trends set the target period within 10 years of the date of writing (Hyun, Kim, & Kim, 2016; Ryu, 2014; Shin & Hyun, 2017). In addition, the analysis period of intellectual structure analysis research using a text mining method is between 4 and 19 years, and most research used journals as the data type to be analyzed (Kim, 2011).

This study aimed to analyze entire papers of the selected major authors, not specific journal papers. However, in order to select the major authors of the HRD field, four journals (Journal of Competency Development & Learning, Journal of Lifelong Education & HRD, Korean Journal of HRD, and Journal of Corporate Education & Talent Research) were selected. The four selected journals are the leading journals in the field of HRD in Korea. As of August 2019, all four journals are classified as KCI registered journals. The total number of papers analyzed from the selected journal is 837.

Data Analysis

This study applied the author profiling method and used KLT/ INDEX, Microsoft Excel, NodeXL, and WNET, which is a program written in Python. Author profiling procedures can be divided into author selection, literature collection, author profile vector creation, author-index matrix and cosine similarity matrix generation, clustering, and network analysis. The procedure and method of author profiling applied in this study is as follows (Fig. 14.1).

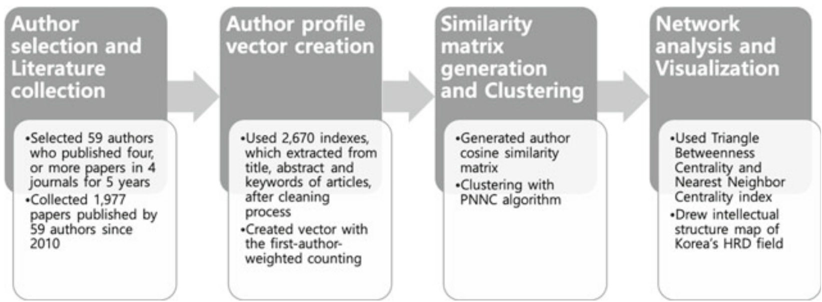

Fig. 14.1 Procedure and method of author profiling applied (*Source* Authors)

Author Selection and Literature Collection

There are 40 authors who listed four or more papers in four journals as main authors, co-authors, and corresponding authors between 2010 and 2014 and 40 authors between 2015 and 2019. Of the total 80 authors, 19 authors were included in both periods. Two authors of the same name were excluded because two authors failed to satisfy the criteria that more than 4 papers should be published in 2010–2014 or in 2015–2019. As such, a final total of 59 authors were selected. There were 534 papers published in four journals from 2010 to 2019 by 59 authors, accounting for 61% of the total number of 873 papers. The h-index is an index, proposed by Jorge E. Hirsch, indicating the research productivity and influence of the researcher, which is the maximum value of h that satisfies both criteria when h articles are cited h times. Among the 59 major authors selected in this study, 57 researchers presented h-index, and their h-index average was 8.52. This average is higher than 7.39, the average h-index of 305 researchers in the top h among those who submitted to the journals from 2010 to 2019. Therefore, the 59 selected authors were considered to be major authors in the field of HRD and suitable as subjects of this study.

Author Profile Vector

A total of 1977 papers published by 59 authors since 2010 were collected and titles, abstracts, and keywords of each paper were entered into Microsoft Excel for analysis. Then the index was extracted from the title, abstract, and keywords of each article by using KLT/INDEX, which is the Korean index word extractor. The KLT library has been researched and developed since 1989 and has been used for stemming, indexing, and spelling (Kang, 2018). A total of 28,773 indexes were extracted and reviewed through the KLT program.

Before cleaning, the index cleaning process was designed by referring to studies using word vectors such as keyword network analysis, co-expression word analysis, and profiling analysis. Expert opinion on the index cleaning process and criteria was obtained by consulting with three Ph.D. holders who have conducted several network analysis studies. The index cleaning process was conducted after verification of the process by these three researchers. The detailed index cleaning process is shown in Table 14.1.

Table 14.1 Index cleaning process

Step	*Description*	*Examples*	*Count*
1	Remove symbols, Chinese characters, and index starting with numbers	1, 2, 301, −0.133, 2015, AA, C-company, $p < 0.01$, $p = 0.037$, Q, 理想	8582
2	Remove low-frequency indexes which appear in only one author or less than two papers	Kant, cast, hanbok, ultra-wide, forest, potassium	14,616
3	Remove one-syllable indexes, stop words (verb, adverb, adjective, etc.)	That, this, as, to, very, new, yourself, more	1834
4	Remove local name and proper nouns	Korea, Seoul, Daejeon, USA, Germany, Busan, Incheon	126
5	Remove indexes which are part of research headings or common in research process	Conclusion, Implications, Methods, Results, Suggestions	62
6	Unification of the same meaning (abbreviation and fully labeled index)	NHRD = National HRD, OD = organizational development	38
7	Remove indexes which are not related to HRD research topics	bridge, acceleration, guidelines, opening, picture, miracle, bet	845

Source Authors

Finally, 2670 index terms were extracted, and author profile vectors were created by applying co-author weights to indexes based on the extracted indexes. Lee and Chung (2014) compared the six counting methods that calculated the contribution of co-authors in the research and found that the counting method has a greater influence on the intellectual structure network compared to correlation analysis or multidimensional scaling method. They also reported that first-author-weighted fractional counting is a better method in clustering and network analysis. Therefore, this study applied the "first-author-weighted counting" which assigns 1 to the first author and 1 divided by the number of authors to the corresponding authors and the other co-authors.

Similarity Matrix and Clustering

Profile similarity was derived from cosine similarity (Salton & McGill, 1983) in this study. The cosine similarity value represents the degree of similarity between the measured vectors. The maximum value is 1 when the two vectors are exactly the same, and the minimum value is −1 when the two vectors are completely opposite. This study analyzed the bibliographic data. Therefore, all pairs of authors had similarities between 0 and 1. Clustering was performed using WNET, a program written in Python, using a cosine similarity matrix as input data.

Network Analysis and Visualization

The network can be divided into a binary network and a weighted network. Binary networks express only the connectivity between nodes, while weighted networks express the degree of how strong the connections between nodes are. The network centrality measures used in most previous studies are based on binary networks. However, since the bibliographic data to be analyzed in this study is a weighted network, and given the strength of the connection between authors, network analysis was conducted using the WNET program (Lee, 2013) written for weighted network analysis. Network-centricity analysis can be divided into local centrality, which examines a node's influence in specific regions and areas from a local perspective, and global centrality, which examines a node's influence in the entire network. In other words, local centrality looks at the relationship between a particular node and adjacent nodes, while global centrality analyzes the relationship with all nodes. The Triangle Betweenness Centrality index is preferred for measuring global centrality as the index reflects the scope of the joint research and the network structure (Lee, 2014). Therefore, this study used triangular mediation, which is a measure of the ability of one author to connect other authors as an indicator of global centrality in a weighted network. The Triangle Betweenness Centrality index is characterized by a higher value for authors with broader relationships, even though they are less intense, than authors who had concentrated relationships with minorities (Lee, 2014). This study also used the Nearest Neighbor Centrality index, which is considered the closest node by other nodes as an indicator of regional centrality (Lee, 2013). After that, the result was visualized using NodeXL.

Results

59 major authors were selected for analysis of intellectual structure in the Korean HRD field, and author profiling analysis was performed by extracting index words from the titles, abstracts, and keywords of

1977 articles published by selected authors over 10 years (2010–2019). Through this analysis, a map of intellectual structure in the HRD field was created.

Researcher Group and Area

10 researcher groups were derived from clustering. The group of researchers who emerged from the results of clustering analysis can be said to be a group that studies similar research topics. Among the 10 researcher groups derived through primary clustering, Group 1 is the largest cluster, with 29 authors. Due to the size of the cluster, clearly seeing the index words for each group is difficult. Additional clustering was performed to derive the research area. In particular, H. S. Lee, who had the highest Triangle Betweenness Centrality in connection with a large number of groups and researchers, has studied a wide variety of subjects, making discernment between research groups difficult. This is because H. S. Lee was involved with a total of 103 analyzed papers, and except for in two papers, participated as a corresponding author. Therefore, additional clustering excluding H. S. Lee was performed. As a result, the previous research Group 1 was divided into 2 groups. Accordingly, a total of 11 research areas were drawn.

In order to grasp the research area of each research group, main words and discriminate words for each research area were analyzed based on the index words of the researchers. First, in order to examine main words for each study area, the weighted average value of each researcher's index words was calculated. In addition, discriminate word analysis was performed to examine the characteristic topics that each area mainly involved.

In this study, discriminate words were measured using the KL-Divergence (Kullback–Leibler Divergence) method. This is a representative method of measuring the difference between probability distributions. The KL-Divergence value represents the difference between the average value of the total researchers in each index word and the probability value in which each index word appears in each research area (Kim, Son, Lee, and Kang, 2013). In other words, a discriminate word is an index word that researchers in each research area use more frequently than researchers in other research areas. To examine the discriminate words, KL-Divergence values of each index word for each study area were calculated.

Based on the main and discriminate words derived from each area, characteristics of each area were examined in order of the highest number of papers of researchers in the area. First, Area 1, comprised of the largest number of researchers and the highest number of papers, included "organization," "behavior," "commitment/engagement," "leadership," "effect," and "performance" as both the main and discriminate words. The top discriminate words were organization, behavior, commitment/engagement, leadership, creativity, sharing, effect, performance, boss, and coaching. As an example, the sum of the upper-level discriminate words' weights for each paper was calculated to look at a representative paper. Among the papers of the researchers belonging to this area, the title of the paper with the highest weighted sum was "The influence of work engagement on organizational change readiness: Moderating effect of leadership types." Additional titles with high weighted sums included, in descending order, "The effects of mentoring, learning organization, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior," and "The impact of authentic leadership on work engagement-mediating effects of organizational learning capability." This process identified the characteristics of Area 1 that studied the effects of variables such as leadership and commitment/engagement in the organizational context.

In Area 2, "training," "occupation," "employment," and "educational training" were included as upper-level main and discriminate words. The top discriminate words were youth, policy, training, occupation, women, educational training, re-employment, employment, workers, and failure. The title of the paper with the highest sum of the upper-level discriminate words' weights among all papers of the 6 researchers was "Interventions to facilitate transfer of learning: based on stakeholder's roles and time frames." In addition, titles with the highest sums of upper discriminate word weights were "A study on the perceptions and measurement of transfer of training and transfer-enabling activities in training phases," and "An educational study on the failure process of re-employment of university graduates with resignation experience." These show that Area 2 mainly studied education and training, transfer, and employment. In addition, all of the researchers in Area 2 were either female or belonged to Women's University.

In Area 3, "evaluation," "competence," and "task" were all included as top main and discriminate words. Of these words, "evaluation" is also included in the main and discriminate words of Area 8 which shows that Area 8 and Area 3 can be linked to "evaluation." The top discriminate words in Area 3 were evaluation, competency, art, management, task, culture, stage, core values, school culture and arts education, and model. The titles of papers with the highest sums of the upper-level discriminate words' weights were, in descending order, "An exploratory study on the perceptions of policy stakeholders on attributes of art and culture education of school," "A study on competency modeling of R&D management personnel," and "An analysis on the effectiveness of evaluation education enhancing undergraduates' synthetic thinking." These results show that the study of competency and evaluation is characteristic of Area 3.

In Area 4, "multiculturalism," "learning," "lifelong," "society," "region," and "program" were included as main and discriminate words. The upper-level discriminate words were multiculturalism, learning, lifelong, society, world, community, well-being, and multicultural education. Titles of the papers with the highest sums of weights by upper-level discriminate words were, "The analysis and direction for adult multicultural education programs," and "Critical understanding for multi-cultural learning context in the discourse of lifelong learning." These results showed that Area 4 mainly includes research on multiculturalism under the influence of lifelong education. In addition, five of the six researchers belonged to Soongsil University's Department of Lifelong Education.

In Area 5, "competence," "followership," "recognition," "success," and "career" were included as main and discriminate words. Of these, "competence" was included in Area 3 and "career" was included in Area 8's main and discriminate words, so these areas can be connected easily. In addition, competence, followership, coaching, career success, follower, key competencies, recognition, success, career, and competency group were included in the high-level discriminate words. Titles with the highest sums of the upper-level discriminate words' weights were, in descending order, "Longitudinal relationship between objective career success and subjective career success of youth employees: Verification of the interdependence relationship of career success," "The identification and relative importance of analysis on followership competencies in large Korean enterprises," and "A development of integrated evaluation criteria model for measurement of career success of Korean office worker." These results show that the study of career success and followership was the main characteristic of Area 5.

In Area 6, "class," "learning," "model," "learner," and "teacher" were included as both main and discriminate words. The top discriminate words were class, action learning, learning, action, story, model, learner, instruction, teacher, and process. Titles of the papers with the highest sums of the upper-level discriminate words' weights were, in descending order, "A model of action learning program design in higher education," "Study on task selection process for action learning in a university context," and "Analysis of the research trend of action learning in school." In addition, the two researchers belonging to this area have never conducted research together, but they were both interested in educational technology. These results show that Area 6 mainly conducted research on action learning and instructional models under the influence of the educational technology field.

In Area 7, "lifelong," "learning," "lifelong education," and "adult" were included as main and discriminate words. Of these, "learning" was also included in the main and discriminate words of Area 4 and Area 8, therefore these areas can be linked to "learning." In addition, the top discriminate words were lifelong, learning, lifelong education, informal learning, adult, emotion, informal, emotional labor, literacy, and learner. Titles of papers with the highest sums of the upper-level discriminate words' weights were, in descending order, "The Harmonious Effects of Nonformal Education and Informal Learning: The Structural Relations Among the Suitability of Nonformal Education, Informal Learning, Learning Value and Learning Outcome," "Structural relationships among organizational demand, lecturer & learner's badly behavior, lifelong education practitioners' emotional labor and emotional dissonance," and "The interactive effect of economic status on the relation between lifelong learning and health." Also, the researchers belonging to Kyungpook National University are researchers in the field of lifelong education, which is characterized by conducting joint research in connection with supervisors and disciples. This result showed that Area 7 is characterized by studying lifelong learning and informal learning under the influence of the lifelong education field.

In Area 8, the indexes included in both top main and discriminate words were "learning," "career," "self-directed learning," and "evaluation." Among them, "learning" is also included in the main and discriminate words of Area 4, so Areas 8 and 4 can be connected to "learning." In addition, the top discriminate words in Area 8 were learning, career, self-directed learning, career attitude, evaluation, attitude, tools, measurement, consultant, and protean. The title of the paper with the highest sum of the upper-level discriminate words' weights among 64 papers by researchers in this area was, "Moderating Effects of

Arts and Culture Education Professional's Self-Directed Learning Ability on the Relationship Between Protean Career Attitude and Career Satisfaction." Additional titles of papers with high sums of weights included "The Mediating Effects of Self-Directed Learning on the Relationship between HRD Consultants' Positive Psychological Capital and Subjective Career Success," and "Relationship among Self-Directed Learning Ability, Career Plateau and Career Satisfaction: The Case of a Construction Management Firm." These results showed that career and self-directed learning were the main characteristics of Area 8.

In Area 9, "problem," "expertise," "specialty," "entrepreneur," "convergence," and "process" were included both in top main and discriminate words. The top discriminate words were problem, expertise, specialty, discovery, experience, entrepreneur, social entrepreneur, university professor, convergence, and process. The titles of papers with the highest sums of the upper-level discriminate words' weights were "A Study on Problem Finding Process of Professor," "A Critical Review of Expertise Research and Future Research Agenda," and "Value Orientation of Social Entrepreneurs and the Key Factors Affecting the Value." This result showed that Area 9 is characterized by research on problems, specialty/professionality, and target on social entrepreneurs and university professors. Two out of three researchers in Area 9 belonged to Seoul National University and conducted joint research as a relationship between the supervisor and the student.

In Area 10, the indexes included in both top main and discriminate words were "network," "support," "career," and "function." The top discriminate words were relationship network, development, career, function, organizational socialization, socialization, developmental network, developmental function, and organization society. The title of the paper with the highest sum of upper-level discriminate words' weights was "Analysis of the gender effect in developmental network characteristics and developmental functions for career identity and career commitment." Additional titles of papers with high sums included "The Effect of Gender and Educational Background Mediated by Developmental Network Characteristics on Developmental Functions," and "The Effects of Developmental Network Characteristics on Proximal Socialization Outcomes and Distal Socialization Outcomes in the Early Careers." This result showed that Area 10 is characterized by research on developmental and organizational socialization. In addition, several papers in which researchers conducted joint research within an advisor-advisee relationship emerged from Yonsei University.

In Area 11, "resource," "enterprise," and "type" were included in the high-level main words and discriminate words. In addition, the top discriminate words were resource, enterprise, SME, standard, type, National Competency Standards, human resource management, investment, awareness, and field training. The titles of the papers with the highest sum of the weights of discriminate words are "A Critical Review on Human Resource Development Research for Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Focusing on Scholarly Articles in Korea," "An Analysis on Recognition Type and Co-orientation between Human Resource Development and Management Practitioners about Human Resource Development Value Priority," and "Critical Understanding for Large Company-Affiliated HRD Outsourcing." This result showed that Area 11 is about human resource development for companies and SMEs, and management and recognition types.

As such, the area names were qualitatively named through the results of examining the characteristics of each area. In addition, the number of researchers belonging to each area and total number of papers are shown in Table 14.2.

Main Research Topic

Through network analysis, a pair of researchers was derived based on the research topic. All researchers were connected to the closest researchers, and 58 pairs were derived. For each researcher, researchers with the most similar research topics were connected, and with higher strength meaning higher similarity. The connection strengths were highest between H. S. Lee and A. J. Hong (0.83633), followed by Y. M. Lee and J. Y. Lim (0.82168), D. Y. Kim and E. K. Bae (0.808), and E. K. Shin and Y. S. Hyun (0.80116).

For each pair of researchers, the shared index words differentiated from other pairs of researchers were measured using the KL-Divergence method. The shared index word of a researcher pair means that each index word is used more often by a specific researcher pair when compared with other researcher pairs. There were also index words that appeared frequently, such as learning, evaluation, organization, training, job, and career, due to researchers belonging to the same research area, even among other researcher pairs. However, the number of shared

Table 14.2 Research area name and total number of papers

Area	*Research area name*	*Number of papers*	*Number of researcher*
1	Core HRD (leadership, commitment/engagement, organization)	863	24
2	Transfer/re-employment	223	6
3	Competency/evaluation	197	5
4	Region society/multiculturalism	190	5
5	Career success/followership	110	5
6	Action learning/instructional model	100	2
7	Lifelong/informal learning	77	2
8	Self-directed learning/career	64	3
9	Expertise/entrepreneurs	59	3
10	Developmental support/organizational socialization	55	2
11	SME/management-recognition type	39	2

Source Authors

index words among researchers varied for each pair of researchers. This shows that there are major research topics that are researched by each researcher pair and, at the same time, researchers are linked to similar research topics. A diverse set of detailed research topics in HRD appeared, including topics such as learning, organization, training, job, evaluation, career, career attitude, career success, competency, competency model, task, self-leadership, leadership, followership, engagement, work commitment, self-directed learning, Informal learning, reflection behavior, transfer, creativity/creativity, liberal arts education, realism, cognition, learning ability, development support network, core values, action learning, employment, learning culture, coaching, professionalism, learning experience, school culture and arts education, community well-being, intelligence, emotional intelligence, and re-employment. In particular, studies on lifelong education, instructional design, literacy, psychology, welfare, multicultural education, and human resource development policies were being conducted under the influence of adjacent academic studies. The detailed subjects of the study were small- and medium-sized enterprises, large enterprises, venture companies, organizational members, parents, women, social entrepreneurs, colleagues, teachers, managers, and overseas representatives. Also, research using methods such as demand analysis and capability analysis were carried out.

Relationship Between Researchers

In order to examine the relationship between researchers in the field of HRD in Korea, the centrality of researchers was confirmed through weighted network analysis using the WNET program. Researchers with high Triangle Betweenness Centrality to measure global centering were in the order of H. S. Lee (0.88445), J. M. Kim (0.75983), and H. D. Song (0.75136). These values mean that the researchers are researching topics that connect the researchers around them and act as bridges. On the other hand, researchers with low Triangle Betweenness Centrality were E. B. Kim (0.01996), S. H. Lee (0.02299), and H. B. Kim (0.03993). These values mean that the researchers cannot connect surrounding researchers through research topics compared to researchers with high Triangle Betweenness Centrality. Researchers with high Nearest Neighbor Centrality to measure regional centrality were H. S. Lee (0.13793), H. D. Song, A. J. Hong, C. Lee, and J. E. Kwon (0.06897). The Nearest Neighbor Centrality means that there are many nodes that are considered as the closest nodes, and there are many researchers connected to similar research topics.

Based on the researcher pair, centrality, and research area analysis results, the intellectual structure map was created. Each node is a major researcher in the HRD field and represents a pair of researchers (links) through the connection lines between the nodes. Links between nodes indicate that the connected nodes share a similar index, and the thickness of the connection line indicates the similarity strength. In addition, the size of each node represents the Triangle Betweenness Centrality, and the shape of the node (square, circle, triangle, diamond, etc.) represents the research area. The intellectual structure map of Korea's HRD field is shown in Fig. 14.2.

Discussion

The results of this study differed from those in previous studies. First, the 10 researcher groups and researchers in each group differed from the seven researcher groups derived by Hyun et al. (2015). Also, researchers belonging to each group and research topics by area appeared differently.

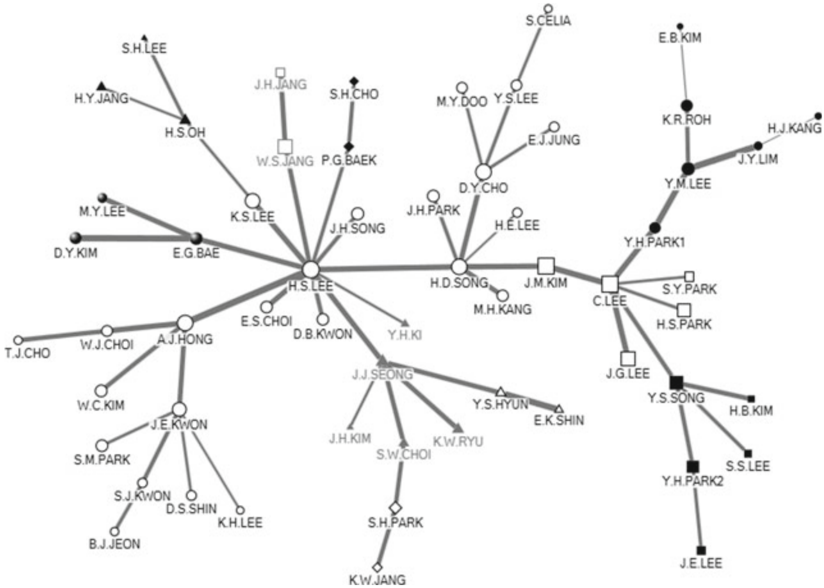

Fig. 14.2 Intellectual structure map of Korea's HRD Field (*Source* Authors)

This difference is because research methods and the timeframe analyzed are different. This study used author profiling analysis and analyzed papers published between 2010 and 2019, whereas the research of Hyun et al. (2015) used author co-citation analysis and analyzed papers published from 2007 to 2014. In particular, the results of Hyun et al. (2015) including most researchers in one researcher group were possibly due to the fact that citations were concentrated on prominent scholars in the past (Lee, 2008).

Second, the results of this study show that, aside from the 11 core research areas, research areas were different from previous studies and existing literature. The core HRD area derived from this study belongs to 24 researchers and includes topics such as commitment/engagement, leadership, and performance. This result is similar to the result of Hyun et al. (2015), which showed that the majority of 39 scholars and the subjects of career development, social capital, and social networks were included in the HRD solution cluster. The result shows that major HRD core areas exist in the research area.

The 11 research areas derived from this study were different from training and development, organizational development, and career development, which are research areas established in the studies of Kim (2004), and Jang et al. (2013). Additionally, in this study, the index of "evaluation" among HRD processes was most frequent. This result is also different from that of Jang et al. (2013), which showed that the analysis area of HRD processes (analysis, design and development, execution, evaluation) frequently appeared. These results were in line with the fact that research areas of HRD have changed over time. In particular, in the research of Kim (2004), as times changed, the number of researchers who overlapped with the three areas (educational training, organizational development, and career development) rapidly increased. Furthermore, the current research areas in the HRD field are different from the research areas previously used and the boundaries between research areas are becoming unclear due to the scope of research being expanded.

This study also found research areas formed under the influence of other fields such as lifelong education, educational technology, and administration. This result, which differs from that of Swanson and Holton (2001), suggested that economics, psychology, and systems are the theoretical foundations of HRD, which have been widely accepted. Yoon, Jeong, Cha, and Song (2017) also said that theory of education and business was mainly used in research on HRD for 10 years between 2007 and 2016 and the theoretical foundation of HRD proposed by Swanson is different from the flow of subsequent studies. In order to identify and solve various problems of individuals, teams, organizations, and communities, theories of various fields such as business, educational psychology, and educational technology can be used and according to the changes of the times and environment, increasingly diverse fields have explained the appearance of HRD.

Third, Hyun et al. (2015) said that major subject words such as competency, training, transfer, effectiveness, and program evaluation were mixed in all clusters and that learning occupied a large area in HRD. These results showed that subjects such as "learning," "competence," "leadership," "commitment/engagement," "evaluation," "organization," and "job" derived from this study are major research topics that have been studied in the Korean HRD field. In addition, the early HRD field was based on the learning theory and learning paradigm, and this "learning" showed that learning still occupies an important position in the HRD field. In particular, in the overseas HRD field, research on competency was not revealed as a major research topic (Kim & Jeon, 2005; Ryu, 2014). On the other hand, a lot of research about competency has been continuously conducted in Korea's HRD field. This is because the Korean government has emphasized competence since the mid-2000s and has accordingly pursued policies and projects. This fact also shows that the research subject of Korea's HRD field can be set according to national policy and program.

Fourth, the linkage between researchers derived from this study was different from the results of previous studies. Hyun et al. (2015) used co-citation analysis and showed that Y. M. Lee, S. Y. Park, and Y. J. Joo were top cited researchers, and researchers centered on MDS maps were T. S. Shin, Y. S. Park, and H. G. Yu. On the other hand, in this study, researchers such as J. M. Kim, A. J. Hong, D. Y. Cho, and C. Lee showed high centrality. In the case of the author co-citation analysis, there is a phenomenon of citation delay, and since the citation is concentrated on prominent researchers who were continuously cited, it seems that the centrality of researchers who were active in the past was high. On the other hand, since author profiling analysis was used in this study, it appears that researchers who have been highly active in recent years and published many papers in the HRD field have high centrality.

Implications

Based on the above findings, this study suggests some implications. First, researchers who belong to the same research group with similar subjects of interest can be easily identified to facilitate joint research between them. Furthermore, research areas and topics can be expanded through exchanges and joint research between researchers belonging to different research groups. In order to solve various problems in an increasingly complex modern society, a convergent approach between disciplines is needed. Therefore, it is necessary to actively exchange with researchers in other fields and further expand research topics by interacting with foreign scholars.

Second, it is necessary to study the HRD academic field in a situation where boundaries between academics are blurring. HRD is an applied science, and because of its interdisciplinary nature, constant discussion of academic directions and roles is required. Accordingly, researchers in the HRD field should make efforts to satisfy science and sociality as an independent discipline of HRD. Thus, attention and research are needed for academic development in the HRD field. However, no research area has been found in which an introductory discussion of HRD itself is conducted. Also, there was a significant lack of research about academic HRD. Although a lot of research has been done on detailed research topics in the HRD field and the research areas have been expanded, few studies have been conducted to look at HRD in an integrated way. Therefore, research and examination of the HRD field in an integrated way, such as the analysis of the intellectual structure of the HRD field, and discussion and research of the field as an academic discipline are necessary.

Third, research on developing and establishing theories in the HRD field and suggesting and applying various theories that can support research on various topics are necessary. While research about the effectiveness of analysis between HRD solutions and variables has been actively conducted, research areas for establishing theories in the HRD field have not been found, and theories or models have not often appeared as research topics. Therefore, research using theory or models, and the application and further development of theory are needed. In particular, in the context of the human-centered paradigm or the value paradigm, various theories that can support this in the current situation of satisfying the values and needs of organizational members and achieving the growth of the organization should be presented.

Fourth, this study can be used as basic data to identify and solve various HRD problems occurring in organizations. For example, the main HRD researchers in this study can be referred to as experts for identifying and analyzing HRD problems, or for advice and consulting to find solutions to solve problems. In addition, this study can be utilized as a reference when recruiting content experts or instructors for designing and developing HRD programs for detailed areas and main researchers used as a workforce pool by each major research area in expert councils, forums, education, and lectures.

Finally, the results of this study can be used when developing HRD programs for members of organizations. Organizations can develop a program based on research areas, relationships between research areas, detailed topics included in the areas, and related subjects and researchers by major topics in the HRD field derived from this study. As such, in order to develop the competency of HRD managers in a company, programs can be designed and developed by HRD area or by topic, and related topics can be identified for each topic to plan a wide range of programs.

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The original version of the book was inadvertently published with incorrect biography of the author Dr. Eunjee Kim in FM and incorrect affiliations in Chapters 4, 11 and 13. These have been corrected.

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