A Review of HRD Research in Three Areas of East Asia: Mainland China, Taiwan, and Japan

Yi-Hsuan Lee
Jie Lin
Kenneth. E. Paprock
Susan A. Lynham
Jie (Jessica) Li
Texas A&M University

Recent research focusing on Human Resource Development (HRD) in East Asia is attracting increasing attention. The purpose of the study is to explore the definition and practice of HRD, together with influencing cultural factors, in Mainland China, Taiwan, and Japan. The results indicate a difference in the definition and implementation of HRD among these three areas, and that the nature and role of HRD are influenced by cultural factors specific to each region examined.

Keywords: HRD in Mainland China, HRD in Taiwan, HRD in Japan

Organizations increasingly operate within a global context. It challenges both HRD practitioners and researchers to examine the definition, implementation and function of HRD in multinational environments. A common problem in defining the field of HRD lies in the majority of studies being limited to a North American perspective (Ruona, 2000). Singh (Peterson, 1997) argued that HRD, as defined in the United States, may not be an appropriate definition for other regions. Similarly, McLean and McLean (2001) commented that a US perspective alone does not represent the entire filed of HRD. "It appears that the definition of HRD terms varies from one country to another, and the national differences are a crucial factor in determining the way in which HRD professionals work". (Hillion and McLean, 1997, p. 695) Maclachlan (1993) offered similar conclusions, namely, that HRD practitioners from different countries use culturally based perceptions and attitudes to define their work and its effectiveness that may differ from American-based HRD definitions. Furthermore, that the social cultural factors affecting the thinking and learning styles and local perceptions of HRD effectiveness lead to differences in the mission and means of the developmental aspects of HRD (Hansen & Brooks, 1994). Therefore, it is important, especially for international HRD researchers and practitioners to explore the difference in which cross-cultural and cross-national enterprises formulate and apply their HRD frameworks.

Purpose of Study

We focused our research interest among Mainland China, Taiwan, and Japan. The reason for this focus was due to authors' preference, interest, and cultural familiaries with these three regions. In reviewing the literature, we discovered that even through there were studies of the HRD field available for these three regions, however, there is no single research that summarizes the similarities and differences in the definition, practice, and cultural influence of HRD within and among these three regions. Given the importance of cross cultural and cross national difference in HRD research and practice, this paper attempts to address the gap and does so in the following three specific ways:
1. How is HRD *defined* in these three East Asian areas?
2. What constitutes HRD *practice* in these three East Asian areas?
3. How does the *cultural* influence the HRD practice in these three East Asian areas?

By doing so, the authors intend to provide references for international HRD researchers and practitioners who are interested in these areas or working in these areas when making critical HRD decisions.

Methodology and Limitations

The methodology used for this paper was one of conceptual review, analysis, and synthesis of related scholarly literature. The predominantly available literature came from relevant refereed publications, including conference

proceedings and secondary materials on human resource development (HRD) strategies in Mainland China, Taiwan, and Japan, and the role of these strategies in the economic development of these regions and countries. A keyword search of HRD and various related terms conducted through several large search engines at a major university in the United States yielded several sources. The analysis of the data consisted of two steps. First, the results of the literature review were reviewed and compared several times for individual research questions. Following, conclusions were synthesized and summarized from the outcomes of step one, and used to inform recommendations for future related studies.

It is important to acknowledge that this exploratory study has at least three limitations. First, all studies reviewed were limited to available English-language literature. As McLean and McLean (2001) suggested, the literature readily available in the United States tends to focus on a US perspective. The limitation of this tendency in accessible literature is evident in this study. Due to language limitation, research material in Japanese are not reviewed. In addition, online resources about HRD in China are limited and most material available was focusing on HR practice in general. Second, few synthetic data studies addressing HRD definition and practice and the influence of culture in these three regions were found. This lack of synthetic data within these three regions points to a gap in the literature and underscores the need for more studies. Third, it is recognized that for the development of a broader understanding of HRD in East Asia, more countries need to be included in this study, a limitation that is currently being attended to by the authors, and will attract further attention of other researchers.

In spite of these limitations, the research resources on HRD that were available and accessible to us enabled a fairly thorough analysis of HRD in the three regions. In addition, among the authors, there were years of practical HRD experiences in these three regions which should allow first-hand analysis of HRD practices to be included in this study. The authors are confident that the insights gained as a result of this study should be able to add to the development of HRD in East Asia as well *international HRD* as a whole.

Theoretical Framework

The majority of the research studies consulted related to HRD definitions and practices in East Asia, specifically at the national and local levels. As previously pointed out, synthetic research studies that contrast and integrate HRD among different nations are hard to come by, a finding consistent with the experience of this study. In order to better understand the nature and role of HRD in East Asia, researchers have explored and interpreted how economic success has influenced the practice of HRD in these regions (Lee & Stead, 1998; Nieml & Owens, 1995; McLean & McLean, 2001).

Outcomes of the analysis of the literature reviewed clearly points to the existence of regional and cultural differences in the way the term *HRD* are formulated and interpreted (Hillion & McLean, 1997; Maclachlan, 1993; McLean & McLean, 2001; Peterson, 1997). As pointed out by McLean and McLean (2001), and in a 2001 special issue of the *Human Resource Development International* (HRDI) journal, HRD practitioners use different terms to identify and describe the construct of HRD in different nations. Clearly the term, HRD, has different meanings in different countries. Similarly, the findings of this exploratory study indicate clear differences in tasks and means of training, organizational, and career development systems among the three East Asian regions considered. Furthermore, these differences are shaped by economic status, employee development, and governmental policies.

As for the practice of HRD in Asia, many studies that explored HRD activities in different countries implied that, although the majority of HRD principles applied internationally originated in the U.S., the nature and purpose of HRD activities differ in each country (Harada, 1998; Hillion & McLean, 1997; Kuo & McLean, 1999; Wee-Liang-Tan, 1998; Yan & Mclean, 1997). For example, in the transition from a planned economy to a free-market economy in Mainland China, HRD is shaping up differently in difficult sectors of the economy and in general it is not well distinguished from human resources (HR) practices. The definition and understanding of HRD among the four major sectors of the economy, the state-owned enterprises, private-owned companies, Joint-Ventures, and foreign-owned companies, could reveal totally different understanding and practices in the field of HRD.

Although cross-cultural HRD was paid increasing attention in the literature (Bennett, Aston, & Colquhoun, 2000; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Osman-Gani, 1996), there still is a surprisingly limited amount of literature that addresses HRD professionals working cross-culturally (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Most of the writings on cross-cultural and international HRD strongly suggest that HRD practitioners must pay attention to socio-cultural factors. Black and Mendenhall (1989) indicate that the HRD models of many countries vary significantly from those common to the USA. They also suggest that interpretation and definition of HRD is a function of both local culture and social history.

In summary, and specific to the East Asian region that is the broader focus of this study, there is a lack of synthetic data relating how what makes for HRD in different countries and regions, and how this definition is

influenced by local perception, practice, and culture. This absence of synthetic HRD literature is not only an obstacle to understanding the role and nature of HRD in various regions and countries of the world, but also to that of the general construct of what makes for *international HRD*.

Research Findings

The review of the literature revealed a number of themes. Next, these themes are presented and discussed against the three research questions posed in this paper, namely: How is HRD *defined* in these three East Asian areas?, What constitutes HRD *practice* in these three East Asian areas?, and How does the *cultural influence* HRD in these three East Asian areas?

Definition of HRD

Currently, HRD literature and practices in the USA and throughout the world have been strongly affected by the definition of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) proposed by McLagan in 1989 (Paprock, 2003, p.1): "Human resource development is the integrated use of training and development, career development, and organizational development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness." Although researchers suggest that most countries have used this USA definition of HRD, it was changed in each of Japan, Mainland China, and Taiwan because of the influence of some variables, like economy, governmental legislation, and national context, and culture, on the construct (McLean & McLean, 2001), and as indicated in the discussion following.

Japan. According to Harada (1999, p. 357) the concept of *human resource development* can be identified by three terms. The first is that of "*Noryoku kaihatu*" meaning "development of individual abilities". The second is "*Jinzai keisei*" meaning "formation of a masterly level of human resources through the work system and training". And the third is the term "*jinzai ikusei*" meaning "fostering the development of human resources through management of the human resource process".

Harada (1999, 1998a, 1998b) further suggests that an outcome and process perspective can be used to describe HRD in Japan. The outcome perspective of HRD includes "the development of desirable human resources, characterized by employees who acquire corporate knowledge and a high level of job competencies to use in the improvement of products or services" (1999, p. 357). The process perspective of HRD involves learning activities and opportunities designed to grow employee job competencies by developing potential human capabilities through their job experiences.

Taiwan. The concept of HRD in Taiwan is still confused with that of human resource management (HRM), involving personnel, training, manpower planning, and industrial relations. HRM is therefore considered to be more significant than HRD in Taiwan. Nevertheless, some researchers (Kuo & McLean, 1999; Lee & Chen, 1998; Lien & McLean, 2001) have begun to identify the role, policy histories and current practices of HRD in Taiwan. According to Lee & Chen (1998), HRD in Taiwan is defined as "the systemic education, training and development which employers provided for their employees to promote career development for employees and organizational development for corporations" (p.3). Kuo and McLean (1999), by reviewing the literature related to the field of HRD in Taiwan, defined HRD in Taiwan as "a systematic, intentional, innovative, and long-term committed process of developing an individual's work-related learning capability through education and training with an aim to contribute to individual, organizational, and national growth" (p.448).

Mainland China. HRD is a relative new concept in China. Under the socialist planned economy, the meaning of HRD is placement, social ware fare, record keeping and move up among the ranks solely by party assessment. With the economic reform in the past twenty four years, China has been experiencing double digits growth and comes with it were the influence from the western world and other Asian countries and regions. HRD was the first noticed in China as an important field of study in mid 1990th. Even though, a comprehensive definition of HRD for Mainland China was not easily available from the literature, however definitions for both individual training and development, and organization development are readily available (Yan & McLean, 1997). McLean and McLean (2001) contacted the China Training Center for Senior Civil Servants (1997) and obtained a preliminary definition of HRD, namely, "A planned and organized education and learning process provided by organizations to improve employees' knowledge and skills as well as change their job attitudes and behaviors. The process helps unleash the employees' expertise for the purpose of enhancing individual performance and achieving effective organizational functions". As further indicated by McLean and McLean, "In many ways, there is no distinction at present between HR, HRD and personnel in Mainland China" (p. 316).

Practice of HRD

Japan. In Japan HRD receives strong support from all levels with Japanese companies (Weber, 1984). Japanese employers are very concerned with recruiting and training, and most organizations develop their own strategies,

plans and training programs and other approaches to employee capability development (Frank, 1988).

Harada (1998; 1999) conducted a comprehensive study regarding the HRD function in Japan. According to him, individual development (ID), career development (CD), and organizational development (OD) are the three major practical components to HRD in Japan. Individual development, including On-The-Job training (OJT), Off-The-Job training (Off-JT), and self-development programs, focus on obtaining higher levels of job mastery and competencies. The ID activities among Japanese companies that include OJT were categorized as the acquisition of job-related procedural know-how learned at the office, job-related information gained from various sources and customer/client-related knowledge learned from customer interactions. Off-JT provided by Japanese companies was found to be based on: (1) levels of managerial rank, (2) orientation program, (3) job classification, and (4) levels of job competency. In addition, self-development program were found to be focused on personal development including acquisition of job-related and non-job-related certifications through workshops, correspondence programs and higher education degrees.

Highlighted in Harada's study, career development in Japanese companies is comprised of job rotation and assignments, and Job Qualification Competency (JQC) rankings. Through the JQC system, employees are able to increase their knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) which are required for a particular qualification rank in the job. Through job rotations and assignments, employees can obtain necessary KSAs at each rank and accumulate job experience required for promotion. Generalists and specialist constitute two major career paths within Japanese companies. Through the experience of job rotation, transfers, and assignments, generalists can become managers. Specialists, on the other hand, are reported to be limited to horizontal career paths provided by the company.

Harada (1998; 1999) pointed out that OD methods developed by Japanese people largely consist of the group activities of Total Quality Control (TQC), Just-in Time, and Quality Control Circles (QCCs). OD methods are integrated into the work process in Japanese companies. Hence, these methods assist the work system to make continuous changes in work processes and environments. A variety of learning activities, which focus on the overall human system, are incorporated into the OD system to bring about changes for the operational improvement of the organization.

Additionally, it is worth mention that "Japanese management practices provide an overall frame for HRD while the work system indicates actual HRD activities" (Harada, 1998, p.93). HRD activities are therefore clearly practiced in most Japanese firms. Many large organizations have their own technical institutes to support in-plant training. Small and medium enterprises, which cannot afford the expense of their own technical institute, can utilize training facilities provided by government or facilities of larger companies if they belong to the same company grouping or have close relationships with them.

Although it is admitted by Japanese HRD professionals that the HRD system in Japan is frequently adopted from the West, the HRD system in Japan is more comprehensive than in other countries in Asia (Weber, 1984). Nevertheless, it is reported that lifetime employment and the work system is undergoing substantial changes and that a new HRD system is currently emerging in Japan (Harada, 1998; 1999). More investigations into the operation of this emerging HRD system are expected in the future.

Taiwan. The current status of HRD in Taiwan was explored by Jean (1993). After investigating 1000 large-scale enterprises and small and medium enterprises, Jean concluded that: 1) training in large-scale enterprises is mainly focused on in-service specialized training, orientation for new employees, and leadership training for potential heads, while orientation for new employees in small and medium size enterprises constitute the major element of training, followed by safety and hygiene training and on-the-job specialized training; 2) more than half of the large enterprises investigated had organized training departments, however, training departments were seldom found in small and medium size enterprises; 3) in terms of training instructors, most of enterprises were found to rely on insiders, while professional experts were brought in from outside the organization; and 4) a lack of enthusiasm among employees, a lack of qualified training personnel, and insufficient support from policy-makers were the major difficulties encountered by the enterprises. Furthermore, high employee turnover rates, lack of personnel conducting training and a shortage of funds were the given reasons for why employers in small and medium size enterprises were reluctant to conduct training activities.

It can therefore be concluded from Jean's study that HRD receives more emphasis in large-scale Taiwanese enterprises. The shortage of training professionals and the low level of interest and satisfaction with training activities among policy-makers, employers and employees are essential challenges that need to be overcome (Lee & Chen, 1998). Furthermore, HRD in small and medium-size enterprises appear to be still restricted by their inherent limitations.

Lien and McLean (2001) conducted an interpretive study to describe the experiences of Taiwanese Human Resource (HR) practitioners who are performing Human Resource Development (HRD) tasks. Seven participants were interviewed about their daily work experiences as HR practitioners. Three major themes were produced from

the data analysis: "(a) HRD is one aspect of HRM, (b) HRD is equated with training in Taiwan, and (c) HRD success relies on the vision and support of top management" (p. 66). The researchers concluded that organizations neither regarded HRD as a separate profession and nor distinguish HRD activities from those of HRM. Furthermore, HRD practitioners appeared to seldom recognize their role as change agents within the organization in Taiwan. Instead, HRD practitioners tended to be recognized as training specialists because the majority of their responsibility was to deliver training. The Taiwanese organizations investigated were found to see HRD as associated with training rather than a broader scope of activities, or even training and development. Supported by Jeans' (1993) study, the researchers also indicated that many HR activities in Taiwan do not succeed without top management commitment. In other words, HR practitioners are able to do more meaningful work if the leader of the company has a clear vision and supports training and other HRD-related activities.

Kuo and McLean (1999), by reviewing the history of HRD in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999, indicated that most of HRD policies in Taiwan aimed to promote economic growth. Furthermore, three functions core to Taiwans' HRD system emerged from the strategies and policies adopted by the Taiwanese government. First, HRD assists in increasing the employability of the laborers, thereby decreasing unemployment, and enhancing economic growth. Second, HRD helps handicapped people to develop needed job skills. And finally, HRD improves employee skills levels, upgrades technological levels, increases job mobility, and lessens structural unemployment (Kuo & McLean, 1999). Thus, from their point of view, vocational education and employee training seem to constitute the major roles of HRD in Taiwan, with the primary purpose of HRD being to improve the national economy and reducing unemployment rates.

Although career development and organization development are significant components of HRD in Taiwan, there are still only a limited amount of studies exploring these two aspects. Hence, more studies regarding career development and organization development as components of HRD are required in this East Asian area.

Mainland China. In a 1992 study undertaken by Xu and Ma on HRD in China, it was found that the whole HRD profession was under-developed. This under-developed state of HRD was considered partly caused by such problems as the limited number of people receiving higher education in China (Yan & McLean, 1997). A shortage of skilled workers is a common problem faced by Chinese organizations. Furthermore, employers do not feel that the education system is addressing the necessary skills needed (Venter, 2003). Although Chinas' frame of HRD does not appear include career development, increasing attention has been paid to HRD during the early and mid ninetieth to organization development and employee training (Yan & McLean, 1997). Benson and Zhu (2002) also believed that, in spite of the underdevelopment of HRD, there is potential development of the HRD system in China by, for example, increasing pre-employment vocational education, employment training centers, and expanding higher education.

China has gradually recognized the important of as Nieml and Owens commented that "the Chinese government recognizes the importance of HRD in an enterprise, as a process that would involve workers in new learning" (1995, p. 19). Xie and Wu (2001) also stated that HRD problems are gaining national attention now in China, because scholars and policy-makers realized that HRD is not only the key to economic development, but also would be one solution to employment and population aging problems. In terms of organization development, Yan & McLean (1997) suggest that in the past few years China has insisted on implementing different policies to reform and build new functions in government, institutions, and enterprises. They believe that the Chinese government in recent years has focused increasingly on organization development and human resource development, with organization development not being considered a component of HRD.

Strongly influenced by the HRD practices brought in by foreign investments and joint-venture companies, and the emphasis from the government for HRD, we could see major changes in the HRD field in China in the past seven or eight years. Base on authors first hand experience in the field of HRD in China, the changes can be summarized into the following areas. First of all, the state-owned enterprises started investment in HRD, companies like TCL, Hair and Future Wave has formed their own HRD practices which combine the western theory with Chinese culture and believes. Some private owned companies began invest in people, even thought still in very small numbers. Joint ventures and foreign owned companies started to pay attention to customize and adapt their home countries HRD practices to better fit Chinese environment. Additionally, HRD as an academic discipline has emerged in Mainland China. In 1996, the first two HRD program were established in Beijing University and Nankai University.

Culture Factors Influencing HRD

Culture can be defined as "shared reality that individuals and groups value and accept as a guide for organizing their lives" (Ramsey, 1996, p. 9). Most authors agree that particular cultures and traditions have significant influence and impact on HRD definition and practice. Hansen and Brooks (1994) suggest that cultural frames which affect business are multidimensional in that employee beliefs are shaped by national-societal values. From a summary of

findings on cultural influences on the HRD system, Peterson commented that "what is know is this: culture plays a role in understanding international organization and international HRD", but that "technology and industrialization have had a leveling effect on some cultural distinctions" (Peterson, 1997). Marquardt and Engel (1993) also refer to the importance of understanding cultural factors in HRD thought and practice: "…global HRD programs cannot succeed if cultural factors are ignored" and that "diagnosing and understanding trainee's cultural values are as important as recognizing their training need" (p. 16). McLean and McLean (2001) point out that differences in national culture, in particular a country's value system, are reflected in the definitions collected from around the world. They also mention that HRD roles, competencies, and scope of activities are influenced by national culture.

Swaak (1995) suggests that in East Asia, especially in Japan, Mainland China, and Taiwan, many values reflected in the behavior of workers today originated with Confucius, a renowned educator and thinker who lived in the Fifth Century B.C. He explains that Confucianism emphasizes the importance of the family, a favoring of order, and a stable hierarchy. Confucianism therefore informs the basic national and individual code of conduct, informing the avoidance of friction and disharmony in working or social relationships. Swaak further argues that given this cultural framework, it is no wonder that East Asia reflects a particular perspective of the business environment and of HRD practices.

The literature reviewed supports Swaaks' point of view. For instance, Black & Mendenhall (1990) comment that according to the finding of Hayes, Anderson, and Fonda, training in the United States is intended to develop richness and diversity in job performance. However, in Japan it is attaining perfection and increasing the ability to learn. Austin (1990) concludes that Japan and China reportedly share certain group decision-making practices because of their group-oriented culture. Especially in China, negotiators place great emphasis on friendship and personal relationship, and this derives from their concept of *guanxi*, a relationship between individuals that allows them to make unlimited demands on each other. This concept provides further impetus to Swaaks' point, namely, that East Asian workers pay so close attention to their work groups. What's more, Weber (1984) conducted cultural comparisons and reviewed training programs in Japan. He reported that training program were supported from various levels within companies, and attributed this support to the paternalistic orientation of most large Japanese companies.

With the rapid economic growth, culture and value system in Mainland China has changed largely during the past decade. The co-existence of Western and Eastern values results in the turbulence of value system in China society today (Matthews, 2000). These changes have many impacts on the HRD practices in China. For example, loyalty was considered a main attribute of a good manager in China, a claim supported by an investigation by Liu in 1988 (as cited in Yan & McLean, 1997) that reported that 60.7% of Chinese people never change their jobs in their lifetime. However, Chinese people has become more mobile, especially the young and well educated in recent years. The government has also relaxed in regulation policies to support the mobility of these people. HRD practitioners are called to create retention programs to attracted and retain the highly desirable employees. For instance, Motorola sent 100 Chinese employees to the United States for about a year to train them with technology skills, which cost up to $3 million annually (Pacific Bridge, 2001). Nokia created a retention program in 1999 to provide the top 50 employees with unique training opportunities for over a two year period. The loyalty to people and company may have been substituted by the loyalty to development opportunities which rooted in the Chinese tradition value for a good education.

Implications to Future Study in HRD

Professional organizations are becoming increasingly globally operated, both in practice and academic. As McLean and McLean stated, "If we are to create a body of knowledge that is relevant to academicians and practitioners around the world, the definitions we use must be inclusive of the range of contexts that exist in the multitude of nations which we live and work" (p. 322). Currently, most theories and operational actions concerning HRD were generated in the West. There is a large need for more comprehensive perspectives involving the interpretation and implementation of HRD in a global context.

This paper explored and synthesized the definition, practice, and cultural influencing factors of HRD in three East Asian areas. It should offer practical applications for HRD researcher and practitioner in these regions or in international HRD field to examine and study. Through this study, reader can clear identify how culture and policy can influence a practical field of HRD and same goes to the economy development. It calls HRD practitioners and researchers to pay special attention to culture, policy, and economic status when enter an unfamiliar culture or country to practice or conduct HRD research.

Although most studies examined are limited to English literatures, the authors believe that this review still provides a new synthetic perspective to help understand the transferability of the framework of the HRD system to

461

multinational circumstances, and suggests that more synthetic inquires be conducted which focus on theory and application of HRD among the different East Asian regions.

Conclusions

In terms of definition of HRD, a difference in what constitutes HRD among the three areas of focus emerged from a review of related and relevant literatures. The definition of HRD in Japan is more comprehensive than that in Taiwan and Mainland China, and more close to the HRD system in the West. Although Taiwan practiced HRD earlier than Mainland China, both of them reflect a lack of distinction in definition between HRD with HRM, emphasizing personnel training, and manpower planning in both areas. Especially in Mainland China, the officially and scholarly defined HRD is under construction.

In Japan, HRD activities are often incorporated with HRM activities. However, in Taiwan, the implementation of HRD relies on HRM practices, and government and its policies play an important role in shaping HRD practices, mainly through implementing the HRD policies and education of HRD practitioners. Further, the success of implementation of HRD depends on the support from top management. Most HRD activities in Taiwan are conducted by large-scale enterprises. Because of a high turnover rate and a scarcity of funding, the small and medium scale companies seldom engage in HRD activities. The practices of HRD in Mainland China are mostly through the contribution of multinational enterprises with most training programs being limited to inside these foreign-owned corporations.

As for the influence of cultural factors on HRD, we can draw a number of conclusions from the findings that emerged from the literature review, namely: that what makes for the roles of HRD are influenced by cultural factors; and that the nature of the East Asian culture, together with an operating philosophy that originated from Confucius, seem to significantly influence the behavior of HRD practitioners.

References

Austin, J. E. (1990). *Managing in developing countries: Strategic analysis and operating techniques*. NY: The Free Press.
Bennett, R., Aston, A., & Colquhoun, T. (2000), Cross-Cultural training: a critical step in ensuring the success of international assignments. *Human Resource Management, 39*(2), 239-250.
Benson, J., & Zhu, Y. (2002). The emerging external labor market and the impact on enterprise's human resource development in China. *Human Resource development Quarterly*, *13*(4), 449-466.
Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1989). A practical but theory-based framework for selecting cross-cultural training methods. *Human resource Management*, *28*, 511-539.
Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review, 15*(1), 113-136.
Frank, E. (Eds.). (1988). HRD around the world. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, *12*(5), 2-66.
Hansen, C. D., & Brooks, A. K. (1994). A review of cross-cultural research on human resource development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *5*(1), 55-74.
Harada, K. (1998). The Japanese human resource development system. In R. J. Torraco (Ed.), *1998 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp. 91-97). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.
Harada, K. (1999). The changing Japanese human resource development system: Two models that enhance prediction and reflection of dynamic changes. *Human Resource Development International*, *2*(4), 355-68.
Hillion, B., & McLean, G. N. (1997). The status of human resource development in French companies. In R. J. Torraco (Ed.), *1997 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp. 694-701). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.
Kuo, M. S., & McLean, G. N. (1999). The history of human resource development in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999. In R. J. Torraco (Ed.), *1999 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp. 443-451). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.
Jean J. Z (1993). A survey and analysis of 1,000 large-scale enterprises HRD training status in Taiwan. *Journal of Labor studies*, *121*(10), 1- 18.
Lee, L. S., & Chen, Y. Y. (1998). An introduction to human resource development in Taiwan. R.O.C. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED416414).
Lee, M., & Stead, V. (1998). Human resource development in the United Kingdom. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *9*(3), 297-308.

Lien, Y. H., & McLean, G. N. (2001). What is it like to be a Taiwanese HR practitioner performing HRD Tasks? In O. A. Aliaga (Ed.), *2001 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp. 11-17). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.

Maclachlan, M. (1993). Sustaining human resource development in African: The influence of expatriates. *Management Education and Development*, *24*, 167-171.

Marquardt, M. J., & Engel, D. W. (1993). *Global human resource development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Matthews, B. M. (2000). The Chinese value survey: An interpretation of value scales and consideration of some preliminary results. *International Education Journal*, *1*(2), 117 -126.

McLean, G. N., & McLean, L. D. (2001). If we can't define HRD in one country, how can we define it in an international context? *Human Resource Development International, 4*(3), 313-326.

Pacific Bridge, 2001. *China human resources update*: Spring 2001. Retrieved September 10, 2001, from http://www.pacificbridge.com

Nieml, J., & Owens, K. (1995). Russia and china in Transition: Implications for human resource development (HRD), In E.F. Holton III (Ed.), *1995 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp.13- 20). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD

Swaak,R. (1995). *HR in China, Source of this article Compensation & Benefits Review* (A publication of the American Management Association). Retrieved September 15, 1995, from hina/hr_in_china.html" http://www.frankallen.com/Executive_Reports/HR_and_The_Global_Marketplace/HR_In_China/hr_in_china.html

Tse, Lee, Vertinsky, & Wehrung (1988). Does culture matter? A cross-cultural study of executives' choice, decisiveness, and risk adjustment in international marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *52*, 81-95.

Osman-Gani, A.A.M. (1996). International human resource management. In G. Thong (Ed.), *Human resource issues in Singapore* (pp. 295-326). New York: Addison-Wesley.

Paprock, K. E. (2003). *Dimensions of cross-cultural competency research in attempting to defined HRD*. Unpublished manuscript.

Peterson, L. A. (1997). International HRD: What we know and don't know. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *8*(1), 63-79.

Ramsey, S. (1996). Creating a context: Methodologies in intercultural teaching and training. In H. N. Seelye (Ed.), *Experiential activities for intercultural learning*: *Vol. 1.* Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Ruona, W. E. A. (2000). Should we define the profession of HRD? Views of leading scholars. In K. P. Kuchinke (Ed.), *2000 Proceedings of the Academy of Human Resource Development* (pp. 188-195)*.* Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.

Venter, K. (2003). Building on formal education: Employers' approaches to the training and development of new recruits in the People's Republic of China. *International Journal of Training and Development, 7*(3), 186-202.

Weber, D. E. (1984). An eye to the East: Training in Japan. *Training and Development Journal*, *38*(10), 32-33.

Wee-Liang-Tan, A.A.O.G. (1998). Human resource development: The key to sustainable growth and competitiveness of Singapore. In R. J. Torraco (Ed.), *1998 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp.111-119). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.

Xie, J. , & Wu, G. (2001). Training and development in the People's Republic of China. *International Journal of Training and Development*, *5* (3), 223-232.

Yan, B., & Mclean, G. (1997). Human Resource development in the People's Republic of China. In R. J. Torraco (Ed.), *1997 Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp.15-22). Baton Rouge, LA: AHRD.