International journal of crisis & safety

2017 2(3)

<Index>

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International journal of crisis & safety

Character Education for Military Cadets of KOREA Army as Leaders of National SAFETY

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Abstract

The Korea Army educational institutions like military academies conduct extensive training on their core values beginning with the Initial Entry Training (commonly referred to as basic training) in order to shape military personnel's behavior and decision making in combat and non-combat situations. This paper addresses the theoretical and practical processes of military cadets' character education. This paper employed a qualitative analysis of various kinds of articles including policy research on character education of military cadets to accomplish the research purpose. Character education programs were administered to the cadets from beginning of freshmen military cadets' Initial Entry Training to facilitate changes in cadets' value system toward country and ethical moral judgment. Military academies need character development strategies to better integrate and synchronize the scattered programs to the direction of cadet character. Furthermore, the programs require an assessment plan to ensure that they are fulfilling the objectives. The military academies must ensure that their cadets and graduates keep the moral codes and military regulations in any circumstances. Character and honorable living are essentials of cadet education and strong character demonstrated by honorable living strengthens the Army Profession by enabling the leaders to build trust, which is relying on the integrity of another professional. The military academies must ensure that their cadets and graduates keep the moral codes and military regulations and align their efforts by implementing a commonly understood and approved model of cadet and character development. Building leadership by moral development, which establishes the framework for military academies' Leader Development System (LDS), provides a detailed Cadet Developmental Model. The Cadet Developmental Model consists of five components for developing individual character. This study provides feedback to disciplinary officers and senior cadets that can be used to design effective moral and character education and thereby prepare cadets for decision-making and morally consistent behavior in educational courses and drill situations. A military academy authority is responsible for assessing character development of military cadets and the assessment includes both direct and indirect measures for individual cadets and organizational culture. Especially disciplinary officers coordinate with cadet leaders to collect and analyze data from several sources to include the Corps of Cadets and external experts. This strategy provides the ends, ways, and means for ensuring education programs and activities are integrated and synchronized in support of military academies' mission to provide the nation with commissioned leaders of character.

1. Introduction

The Korea Army, as a values-based organization, expects its members' behavior and decisions to reflect its moral code[1]. The Army's moral standard is outlined in the Army Creed and the Cadets' Creed. Although the

Army's moral code is publicized and taught extensively throughout the Military Academy education and discipline system, there should be well-designed character education program[2].

The Korea military academies educate, train, and inspire leaders of self-sacrificing character as the Korea Army and the nation deserve and demand the graduates of the military academies committed to the ethics of Country, Honor, and Loyalty & Courage. This study explores the strategies that both develop character and modify behavior over the course of 2~4 years of cadet education. The desired end state for graduating cadets is to equip with the character, competence, and commitment to build and lead ethical combat units that thrive in complex security environments[3]. Cadets and all staff members are working together and directly contribute to the military institutions' mission in the meanings of educating morally-equipped leaders. It is important all members of the military academies commit to show good examples for the military cadets to focus on the moral values[4]. The purpose of this strategy is to create common framework that inspires, empowers, and holds everyone accountable for their individual actions and those in their charge. This includes both military cadets and acting officers in general. Korea military academies could provide enough sources of means and ways to cultivate cadets' ethical character.

The Korea Army Academy at Yeong-choen (KAAY) Character Development Strategy describes how, at all levels and across programs for developing leaders of character who internalize the ideals of Country, Honor, Courage & Loyalty and the Army Ethic. The strategy supports KAAY for accomplishing Strategic Goal 1(Developing the Korea Army Corps of Cadets) and KAAY Strategic Goal 2(Living honorably and build trust). After understanding this strategy, all cadets should understand their responsibility for taking ownership of their character development and should understand their role and the intended Academy outcomes for character development[5].

KAAY is dedicated to train the cadets that each graduate is a commissioned leader of character committed to the values of Country, Honor, and Courage & Loyalty for preparing the career of professional excellence and service to the nation as an officer in the Korea Army. KAAY mission statement clearly identifies its requirement to produce individuals who are certified in the character(Honor), competence(Courage & Loyalty), and commitment(Country) of a commissioned officer in the Army Profession[6]. Every educational department of academic board and Corps of Cadet has an overarching responsibility to build character or facilitate character development in each individual throughout the course of the 2 years of cadet experience. Character development can either be the primary goal or an ancillary goal, but every staff of the KAAY should involve in the character education for the military cadets directly or indirectly.

The word character is derived from the word charakter, which was the permanent mark placed on a coin that determined the coin's worth. Similarly, a person's character is "marked" by the set of beliefs and values that serve as guideposts for how that person behaves, decides, and acts. In the military academy, every cadet is expected to promote the army officer's character and the Army Ethic[7]. When a cadet graduates from a military academy and is commissioned as a second lieutenant, the Academy has certified that he/she has internalized the values of the military academy and will behave based on those values[8]. If a graduate act according to the value code proves the the character education system is effective. That means a graduate's daily commitment to internal moral judgment and upholding the values inherent in the KAAY motto 'Country, Honor, and Courage & Loyalty.' The graduate is supposed to strive for excellence, and to develop character, competence, and commitment in his personal and unit mission[9].

Character and honorable living are essential of cadet education and strong character demonstrated by honorable living strengthens the Korea Army by enabling the leaders to build trust and to yield voluntary obedience from their subordinates[10]. Trust is the "vital organizing principle that establishes the

conditions necessary for effective and ethical mission command and a profession that continues to earn the trust of the Korean people and unit subordinates." Trust derived from strong character is a mission essential requirement and it allows the Army to maintain a professional status with the civil community[11]. Leaders with trust can build strong commitment with their unit members and can operate with strong belief in the combat and non-combat missions. In contrast, weak character causes mistrust, weakens cohesion, and damages military success. Even worse, weak character can lead to moral cowardice and corruption that result in mission failure and unnecessary loss of life[12].

The trust built through strong character and honorable living also brings perceptible benefits for the leaders because they can save their effort to oversee and control the subordinates. They will enjoy professional autonomy and the respect from their colleagues and subordinates if they have the character and their units operate more efficiently under the mission command philosophy without the close management required in a unit plagued with mistrust. Finally, the nation benefits from having an Army that provides security in an honorable way, knowing that all members in the army will fulfill that responsibility without abusing his/her authority[13].

2. Character Development Goals

There are three overarching goals for this Character Development Strategy[14]:

(a)Military cadets acknowledge that change of their character runs from behaviors extrinsically motivated by attention and compliance with the Cadet Honor Code and regulations to intrinsic behaviors that demonstrate internalization of the ideals of Country, Honor, and Loyalty & Courage.

(b)Military academies establish a thoughtful character development model that describes what actions are necessary and periodically assesses their strategies' effectiveness in the scope of intra-and-interpersonal evaluation.

(c)Military academies set the conditions for integrating, synchronizing, and assessing individual and collective efforts at the unit level. At the individual level, the goal is to develop these five facets of character in each graduate[15]:

① Moral awareness: Internalization of the cadet values that result in the knowledge, integrity, and awareness to assess the moral-ethical aspects of every situation and the personal courage to take appropriate action regardless of consequences.

② Performance of ethical judgment: The sense of duty, resilience, and grit necessary to accomplish the mission and get results. It is assumed that the cadets and officers with higher level of character will accomplish their missions better.

③ Respect toward colleagues, seniors, and subordinates: The understanding, faithfulness, respect, and modesty that enable an individual to treat others with dignity and display self-sacrifice. The true respect, however, does not violate the honor system even in the conflict situation between cadet honor report and peer-evaluation.

④ Leadership toward themselves and others: The ability to inspire and develop others while establishing a safe, positive command climate where everyone thrives while achieving tangible results. In the aspect of character education, true leadership must accompany with moral maturity and capacity. Self-leadership ensuring themselves to keep the moral codes inside and outside the military environment.

⑤ Social compliance and humanity: The ability to act with the proper professional decorum in all professional, social, and even online environments and to show general humanity in any circumstances. In some cases, social compliance could means compromise with peer pressure of violating honor code in the regard of academic, sports, and social activity. Moral and character education, however, will prevent the cadets to fall into the temptation of compromise.

At the group level within companies, teams, and clubs, military academies are inspiring

excellence and developing individual cadet character by demonstrating the following:

• Setting positive command climate: The importance of treating people with dignity and respect while ensuring a safe and positive environment where everyone can thrive. Character education will yield a junior cadet obey faithfully to senior cadets while senior ones will lead the juniors with respect and care.

• Warrior culture: Character education pursues excellence and wining spirit in a manner consistent with Cadet Values and strong sportsmanship[16]. The ethical leadership will produce winning spirit by getting voluntary involvement of subordinates in the military organizations. The Leadership and Social facets of character were motivated by broader description of character more appropriate for KAAY's mission and the expectations of commissioned services.

2.1. Character development guiding principles and model

KAAY character development starts with Cadet Basic Training and continues through graduation. All cadets enter KAAY with their own set of personal values shaped by their family, friends, communities, school, athletic teams, etc. Those personal values may continue to early period of first-year with variations depending on personal orientation.

However, the KAAY Character Development Strategies begin to integrate the personal variations toward Army moral codes to close any values gaps that might exist between what a cadet candidate brings to KAAY and the internalization of Army Values by graduation[17]. The process begins with education so that they understand what is expected of them as cadets and officers. This establishes their "left and right" limits for acceptable behavior as a member of the Army Profession. They will then experience several challenges that require them to exercise various facets of character. After the experience, which should make them uncomfortable, military academies must provide them time for structured reflection and introspection so the cadets understand where they are and where they need further development. This iterative,

continuous process does not happen in a single event. Every year, KAAY disciplinary officers begin character development for many new cadets and continue developing all cadets of different level of internalization[18].

2.2. Guiding principles

There is no perfect development model for character building because military cadets are coping with moral situations where they have to use their best judgment to the extent of ethical code. In the absence of specific guidance, these guiding principles can help faculty and disciplinary officers decide how to lead and maximize the cadet character development experience[19].

(a)The goal is internalization, not simply compliance. Leaders of character are intrinsically motivated to live honorably because there is inherent value in virtue. They are not extrinsically motivated simply to avoid punishment or gain reward. Therefore, it is essential faculty and disciplinary officers explain to cadets why both mission accomplishment and trust keeping is equally important even in urgent missions. The military academy graduates, in the end, are expected to exercise their best discretion to protect their subordinates and civilians in combat and non-combat missions.

(b)Character development is an iterative, continuous process. Character development is unique for each cadet and requires multiple, iterative experiences under the mentorship of staff, faculty, and disciplinary officers who educate, train, and inspire individual cadets. Educators of military academies should continually remind cadets that development and mentorship are not limited to formal instruction and counseling but also including spontaneous, informal, and short duration events that happen throughout the normal routine of a typical cadet day. As people tend to forget or negotiate their values with selfish desires, the character and honor education need to be implemented repeatedly to the extent of genuine internalization at the personal level[20].

(c)Character development at KAAY is a mutual responsibility. Once each cadet takes ownership of his/her own development,

every member of the KAAY must also teach, support, mentor, and inspire cadets as they navigate the iterative process of character development. Failure of character ownership like intentional and unintentional violation must be pointed out and be punished depending on the degrees of seriousness even to criminal punishment. Most of the cases of the violation, however, stop at the self-report and self-discipline like punitive double-pace, reflective journaling, and probation[21].

(d)Character development must be deliberate. The Academic, Military, Physical, and Character Programs must clearly define and assess their character outcome goals for the appropriate facets of character. All program leaders must ensure their activities and policies support the overall character development strategy without undermining or impeding the goals of another program. Great outcomes may have some spontaneity, but permanent change comes from deliberate effort. Finally, mentors and instructors must explain to cadets how and why the activity facilitates character development.

(e)Leaders develop leaders. The best way to provide purpose, motivation, and direction for a cadet's character development is to be a moral exemplar and mentor. Staff, faculty and disciplinary officers must all display the appropriate attitudes and behaviors that inspire cadets to live honorably and build trust. They must invest time, effort, and attention not only to educate and train, but also to inspire and challenge each cadet. Senior cadets, especially, have greater influences than other leaders on the junior cadets' character development and they have much more responsibilities for the character education in the real cadet life.

2.3. Character development model

Military academies align their efforts by implementing a commonly understood and approved model of cadet and character development. Building Capacity to Lead, which establishes the framework for military academies' Leader Development System(LDS), provides a detailed Cadet Developmental Model. The Cadet Developmental Model consists of

five components for developing individual character[22]:

(a)Personal readiness for development: Cadets must be open and ready to learn from their experiences. The staff and faculty have a responsibility to remind cadets how various experiences contribute to their character development and prepare them for service. Cadets need to internalize and organize their value system throughout their experiences to prepare future career in the army profession.

(b)Developmental experiences: The Academy must provide cadets developmental experiences that are challenging, assessed, and supported. These experiences can be planned or spontaneous. Each experience helps cadets understand themselves and others in a new way.

(c)Reflective journaling: The Academy must afford cadets opportunities for structured reflection so they understand the gaps in their development. Two of the most powerful reflective methods are journaling and meeting with mentors who have high expectations for them. The journaling let cadets to find their identity and moral status in their own perspective every day. Cadets may evaluate their progresses in the journaling process and set better goals and behavioral guidelines aligning the moral codes.

(d)Knowledge-based ethical development: The combination of developmental experiences, classroom education, and structured reflection produces new perspectives, understanding, and skills. New technologies may cause confusions in the leaders' decision in combat and non-combat situations. Intelligence technologies(IT), for example, require the leaders to increase their knowledge in technical areas like cyber-crimes, identification theft, and cyber-espionage.

(e)Time investment: Development requires a significant investment of time for cadets, staff, faculty, and disciplinary officers. Each part of this model requires time allocated for preparation, structured reflection, and assessment. Inadequate time allocation reduces the impact of the experiences and handicaps the developmental process. This model and the guiding principles are the ways

each person, program, department, and directorate will approach character development. The character development is a life-long process demanding personal and institutional effort because cadets must overcome selfish desires. Military leaders must sacrifice their own life in some dangerous mission and that kind of sacrifice could be educated through long-time personal and institutional efforts.

2.4. Character development assessment

A military academy authority is responsible for assessing character development of military cadets and the assessment includes both direct and indirect measures for individual cadets and organizational culture. Especially disciplinary officers coordinate with cadet leaders to collect and analyze data from several sources to include the Corps of Cadets and external experts. This effort augments character assessment in other programs such as academic key experiences and course grades, the Character in Sports Index, military key experience, military development grades, and periodic review. The review process is the only individual assessment of character outside the other four programs. Peer-evaluation is also a very important assessment method of a cadet's character development. It is a multi-faceted assessment of cadet behaviors: Loyalty, Courage, Respect, Honor, and Responsibility. The peer-evaluation is conducted each semester and is used to assess individual character traits to develop individual cadets. One additional annual assessment tool is Character Development Survey that is an indirect assessment of cadet attitudes and behaviors, which enable disciplinary officers objectively, evaluate their cadets' attitudes and behavior that is not aligned with the military academies' ethical codes.

3. The Character Development Strategy

Military academies need a character development strategy to better integrate and synchronize the scattered programs to the direction of cadet character. Furthermore, the

programs require an assessment plan to ensure that they are fulfilling the objectives. The military academies must ensure that their cadets and graduates keep the moral codes and military regulations even in dangerous situations. The character development strategies are deliberately designed program regulating wide scope daily activities.

Additionally, recent assessment indicates trends that trust, honor, and toleration are areas that the instructors and disciplinary officers should focus on. For example, surveys indicate that most of the cadets have internalized the spirit of the Honor Code by the time that they graduate. Extensive focus group interviews with cadets indicate six policy measures are ensuring the Corps of Cadets to internalize the codes:

(a)Strict application: Cadets believe that the punishment for violating the Honor Code is sometimes severe but necessary. Cadets make a distinction between personal sympathy toward the honor-violators and objective obligation as prospective military leaders.

(b)Personal reminding: Cadets are required to keep a reflective journal for daily consideration of what is good or bad in the aspect of honor code. The personal reminding process spurs them to strengthen their acuteness toward the honor and morality.

(c)Strong trust in the honor system: Cadets believe the Honor System is working right to regulate their everyday autonomous cadet life. They believe that if a colleague does something wrong they must warn him or her first to file the self-report and self-discipline process, however, if the offender does not follow the self-discipline process, they should report the misbehavior to defend the honor-system.

(d)Effective honor system: Cadets demand the honor authority to abbreviate the honor procedures to expedite ruling system. If it takes too much time and effort to conduct a Cadet Advisory Board(CAB) or Honor Investigation Hearing(HIH), the time consumption exhausts the whistle-blower. Therefore, cadets insist that the CAB must protect the whistle-blower rule the case out as fast as

possible to reduce potential bystanders indifferent fearing the honor system would sacrifice personal time and energy.

(e)Principle of no-toleration: Some cadets and officers could believe that they can adjudicate "minor" Honor violations at their level through counseling or corrective training. Cadets see this poor example and follow suit that would lead to failure of the system. Therefore harder and strict system is required to keep the honor system and character-building education. Cadet honor investigative team is to make action on each case until they reach to a decision of punishment or release.

Only the Superintendent has the authority to grant discretion while all other cadets and officers must keep the principle of no-toleration to the honor violation. A suspect of Honor must be handed over to the Cadet Honor Committee(CHC) as long as the CHC decide he or she is not guilty.

(f)Removing potential competing loyalties: From the start of their military academy experience, cadets are reminded continuously about the importance of relationships and the concept of friendship with peers. They have peer-evaluation system in the aspect of their social acceptance, which is referring to "popularity" sometimes. Strict honor-keepers, sometimes, in the system of peer-evaluation get the stigma of outliers and get driven out of the Corps of Cadet in the worst case. The military academy must relive the portion of peer-evaluation to reduce the possible individual cadet's value-conflict between the peer-evaluation and honor system. If a cadet overestimates the peer evaluation system, he or she would contribute to the perception that turning in a fellow cadet; especially a classmate or teammate is the equivalent of disloyalty or betrayal.

4. Conclusion

This strategy provides the ends, ways, and means for ensuring KAAY programs and activities are integrated and synchronized in support of KAAY's mission to provide the Nation with commissioned leaders of character. This strategy is a call to action for every member of the KAAY team to understand his/her role in character development and to take the necessary steps to ensure that each graduate is certified in character, competence, and commitment before commissioning.

ROKA personnel's crime rate is going upward annually and that trend worries the Army leadership to the extent that commanding generals have several meeting to solve the problems. They demand newly commissioned officers set good examples to recreate the army organizational culture. Effective moral and character education is necessary for that purpose especially for military cadets who will lead their subordinates in the front line of the battlefield.

This article articulates that the ROKA's military academy should clarify their process of character education. Based on the previous research, leaders played the key role in influencing soldiers' moral and character development.

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International journal of crisis & safety

Policy Reference for Improving Community SAFETY: Factors That Determine the Citizen Satisfaction with Police Service in KOREA and the U.S

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Abstract

Police service include police protection for all citizens, including law enforcement and crime prevention. This service is distinct from other public services because it enforces governmental rule regardless of citizen agreement, and it is provided exclusively in special fields like crime investigation, construction, protection, etc.

As the government came to assume more responsibilities from citizens, assessment of police performance grew in importance. Perhaps the most effective way of evaluating performance is to focus on the degree of citizens' satisfaction.

Various preliminary studies have found citizen satisfaction with police service is an important factor to consider for many reasons. First, citizen satisfaction offers information and knowledge required for the police to make decisions. Second, it allows the police to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their own departments. Third, release of citizen evaluation promotes the sense of responsibility and accountability of the police. Fourth, the evaluations make up the limit of objective performance indices like crime rate, arrest rate, etc.

This study analyzed the factors that contribute to citizen satisfaction with police service in KOREA and in the U.S. To that end, NDSI model was used instead of SERVQUAL model, which is frequently used in public service fields. NDSI model is different from the existing model in that it stresses the importance of public services delivered, including location, facility, time, and method.

This study included 346 Koreans and 282 Americans. In KOREA, survey questionnaires were collected from citizens who have lived in Daejeon (Korea's fifth largest city, population 1.5 million) from January through June, 2016. In the United States (U.S.), residents of Cincinnati, OH were surveyed from June through October, 2016. The surveys here included online students as well.

The survey revealed that the two most important factors in both countries affecting citizen satisfaction with police service involve police facilities and processing capacity. KOREA was lower than the U.S. in the citizen satisfaction with police facility.

It was found that high evaluation of police facility and work processing capacity the common actors in KOREA and in the U.S. affected higher satisfaction of citizens. In KOREA police facility was shown to affect citizens satisfaction more than work processing capacity. Meanwhile in the U.S., work processing capacity was more influential. The remaining factors, police service development and services (KOREA) and police policy (U.S.) also displayed positive effects on citizen satisfaction.

[Keywords] Police Service, Citizens Satisfaction, Determinant, Service Satisfaction, Korea and the U.S.

1. Introduction

As the government came to assume more responsibilities on the citizens the voters, measurement of the performance of police service grew more important. Perhaps the most effective way of evaluating performance is to focus on the degree of citizens' satisfaction.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate and compare factors that determine the citizen satisfaction with police service in Korea and in the U.S.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Citizen satisfaction with public service

It is difficult to define public service and determine detailed characteristics, but several common factors can be explained. First, public service is a service provided by government to citizens. This service may be provided directly or indirectly through financing of service. Second, there is a social consensus that public service is made available to everyone, regardless of income[1].

Citizen satisfaction is an important part of measuring quality of public service. In the U.S., many cities and counties simultaneously use citizen satisfaction and internal performance indicator to measure quality of public services including the police and fire department[2]. However, citizen satisfaction is hard to define and, some theories even suggest it is a relative concept.

Citizen satisfaction originates from customer satisfaction(CS) because citizens are customers of public service. Understanding of CS is required to understand citizen satisfaction. There are diverse definitions and theories that explain CS. Representative theories on measurement of CS include the confirmation / disconfirmation paradigm, Equity Theory, and Comparison Level Theory.

The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP) describes how expectations can play an important role in determining satisfaction. A negative disconfirmation refers to a case in which the outcome is worse than expected, and a positive disconfirmation is when the outcome is better than expected. The former would result in high satisfaction and the latter in low satisfaction[3].

Equity Theory(Adams, 1965) establishes that satisfaction is determined by comparison of inputs and outputs. Individuals who perceive that inputs and outputs are not balanced out will be distressed by the inequality. Such distress may cause individuals to try restore equality[4].

According to Thibaut and Kelley's comparison level theory(1959), the discrepancy between comparison level(CL) and outcome determines CS. Whereas outcomes above CL are satisfying, the opposite is dissatisfying. CL is determined by the average of similar outcomes that one has experienced or is aware of[5].

The CS theory can also be applied to public services including police service. If citizens were to have a specific level of expectancy about the police service, service outcomes that fulfill this expectancy level will be satisfying, and the opposite will be dissatisfying.

2.2. Importance of citizen satisfaction with police service

Prominent scholars Joseph Wholey and Harry Hatry claimed that monitoring of service quality is a core component of improved public sector performance. According to them, citizens have a right to receive regular reports on the performance of major public programs[6].

The Governmental Accounting and Standards Board summarized the utilities of performance measures. They are required to set goals, devise plans for accomplishing the goals, allocate available resources, confirm the results, and modify the plans to improve performance[7].

However, while various performance measurement methods are presented, a CS-centered performance measurement that puts an emphasis on the desire of customer is the most effective. It is optimal to examine citizen satisfaction as customers of the police and to do this, we need to make some assessments of the police service.

First, it is necessary to delineate features unique to the police service, in comparison to other public services. Perhaps the most important differences are their ability to use state-sanctioned force, their near total monopoly over their specific service sector,

and their capacity to deliver their 'services' involuntarily to clients, for example by arresting or using force against them.

Second, police activities have been framed as roles not services. The role of the police was traditionally criminal law enforcement and peacekeeping. But it is ideal that police service should be considered a concept that includes all activities for citizens. In other words, it is advisable that police service should be viewed in a wider sense. Police's non-criminal duties have increased along with the appearance of community policing. Taken together police service can be defined as all activities provided to citizens to keep an order, prevent crimes, and relieve inconvenience[8].

2.3. Determinants of citizen satisfaction with police service

Studies reported that demographic variables of respondents like age, gender, and race affect their view on police. For example in the U.S. African Americans are less satisfied with the police service than their Caucasian counterparts. However, the influence of demographic variables is unlikely help police service policies because policymakers cannot control these factors[9].

Therefore, measurement of citizen satisfaction with police service remains crucially important towards improving and controlling the police force.

There is no consensus about the effect of education, gender, and social status on perception of the police. There are variables that affect perception such as race, but the full effects and outcomes of these more complex variables have not been clarified yet[10].

Studies were not limited to demographic variables. Many previous studies showed the effects of contact with the police on perception of the police by citizens. A study divided contact into voluntary and involuntary, arguing that involuntary contact leads to negative perception of the police. Another study found that negative perception of the police increases with growing number of police contacts with the

police, regardless of whether they're voluntary or involuntary[11].

According to Scaglion & Condon(1980), contact experience with the police has greater effect on perception of the police than socioeconomic factors like gender, age, and income[12].

The results of Scaglion & Condon(1980) were further evidenced by a study conducted by Cheurprakobkit 20 years later. Cheurprakobkit(2000) claimed that police contact has greater effect on the outcome of police service than the crime-fighting function of the police. Positive police contact experience ameliorated existing negative attitudes of citizens towards the police[13].

Brown & Coulter(1983) presented measurement factors to conduct a survey on citizen satisfaction about police services: "(1) Satisfaction with police response time, (2) satisfaction with police treatment of people, (3)perceived equity of police protection, (4) perceived equity of police response time, (5) perceived equity of police treatment of people, (6)perceived equity of amount of crime." Brown & Coulter explained that such measurement factors were presented because, "Citizens' satisfaction with a particular domain of their lives is determined by their assessment of the different parts of that domain"[14].

Mastrofski(1999) suggested six traits of 'good service' depicted by Americans, which include (1)attentiveness, (2)reliability, (3) responsiveness, (4)competence, (5)manners, and (6)fairness[15].

On the one hand, the SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman, Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988) has been receiving attention as an approach for measuring service quality. The SERVQUAL model is designed based on an assumption that the level of service quality felt by customers is determined by the difference between expected service quality and actual outcome of service they experience[16]. The SERVQUAL model can be very useful in assessing satisfaction with police service.

3. Methods

3.1. Research hypotheses and method

The objective of the questionnaire survey was to identify the factors that determine citizen satisfaction with police service in Korea and in the U.S.

Major questions include:

- What are the factors that determine the citizen satisfaction with police service?

- What are the determining factors that are different between Korea and the U.S.?

By answering these questions, this study will identify the factors determinant of citizen satisfaction with police service in both countries. This study will also examine the critical weak points in each country, which will need to be addressed in order to raise the citizens satisfaction with police service.

This study utilized the NDSI(Newly Developed Service Index) model. NDSI model is different from the existing model in that it stresses the public service components of police service, and considers the degree of satisfaction with each component[17].

3.2. Data and sample

Korean data was collected from 350 adults over six months(January-June 2015) in Daejeon. The questionnaire consisted of two main components. The first section is dedicated to collecting demographic information, and the second portion covered satisfaction with the police performance. Questionnaires were collected from 346 out of 350 surveyed subjects for a response of 98%.

U.S. data was collected from 300 adults in Cincinnati, OH from June-October 2015. Similar to the Korean questionnaire, the Americans reported their demographic information and satisfaction with police performance. Of the 300 participants surveyed, 282 responded for a response rate of 94%.

4. Result

4.1. The demographic characteristics

<Table 1> displays the demographic information characteristic of the study participants. Although the proportions of men and women in Korea and in the U.S. were different, no gender bias was observed. Compared to the U.S., Korea has higher rates of self-employment, and a higher proportion of non-college education adults. The U.S. subjects were also asked to report their race and ethnicity. The American cohort included 165 white(58.5%), 22 African Americans (7.8%), 48 Asians(17%), 2 Pacific Islander (0.7%), 1 American Indian(0.4%), and 44 other(15.6%). The survey also recorded that 30 subjects were of Hispanic descent(10.7%) and 251 non-Hispanic(89.3%).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for American and Korean citizens.

	Korea (n = 346)		U.S. (n = 282)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gender (male = 1)	.57	.50	.44	.50
Age	38.76	13.76	29.18	12.02
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Vocational status				
Employee	46	13.29	53	18.79
Public servant	10	2.89	27	9.57
Student	109	31.50	146	51.77

Self-employed	102	29.48	9	3.19
Other	79	22.83	47	16.67
Education				
High school	290	83.82	196	69.50
Some college	56	16.18	86	30.50
Race				
White	---	---	189	67.02
African American			46	16.31
Others			47	16.67
Ethnicity				
Hispanic	---	---	30	10.64
Non-hispanic			252	89.36

4.2. Factor analysis

Survey questions were factor analyzed and rotated using orthogonal rotation(i.e. Varimax method) and factors with an eigenvalue ≥ 1.0 were extracted(see below). <Table 2> presents the result of a factor analysis of the U.S. participants. Q1 ～ Q6 refer to work processing capacity(reliability coefficient 0.90). Q22 ～ Q24 refer to police policies(reliability coefficient 0.85). Q7 ～ Q11 refer to police facility(reliability coefficient 0.86). <Table 3> presents a similar factor analysis of Korean participants. Q12 ～ Q16 refers to creation and provision of police service(reliability 0.91). Q9 ～ Q11 refer to police facility(reliability 0.85). Q4 ～ Q5 refer to work processing capacity(reliability 0.88). The factors that affect citizen satisfaction with police service in both countries included police facility and police work processing capacity. <Table 4> compares the two countries, with Korea reporting lower levels of citizen satisfaction with police facilities.

Table 2. Factor loading of citizen satisfaction with police service – The U.S.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3		Validity
Question	Work processing capacity	Police policies	Police facility	Citizens satisfaction	
SV04	**.76**	.20	.14	.29	0.72
SV03	**.72**	.25	.09	.23	0.65
SV02	**.66**	.37	.13	.22	0.64
SV01	**.65**	.41	.20	.20	0.67
SV05	**.65**	.23	.30	.28	0.64
SV06	**.58**	.33	.31	.34	0.66
SV16	.41	.38	.04	**.65**	0.73
SV20	.35	.35	.31	**.62**	0.73
SV12	.03	.19	.48	**.62**	0.65
SV17	.26	.44	.14	**.59**	0.63
SV21	.33	.06	.21	**.58**	0.50

SV13	.44	.07	.32	**.58**	0.63
SV23	.30	**.80**	.19	.13	0.78
SV24	.26	**.73**	.20	.16	0.66
SV22	.30	**.70**	.19	.29	0.71
SV10	.11	.08	**.86**	.16	0.79
SV09	.13	.17	**.81**	.23	0.75
SV07	.43	.19	**.69**	.03	0.69
SV11	.05	.15	**.66**	.42	0.63
SV08	.29	.32	**.59**	.13	0.54
SV14	.47	.28	.25	.56	0.67
SV19	.36	.54	.15	.55	0.75
SV15	.52	.37	.21	.44	0.65
SV18	.31	.57	.25	.41	0.65
Eigenvalue	**12.3**	**1.9**	**1.0**	**1.9**	
Reliability	**0.90**	**0.85**	**0.86**	**0.87**	

Table 3. Factor loading of citizen satisfaction with police service – Korea.

Question	Factor 1 Work processing capacity	Factor 2 Police facitity	Factor 3 Work processing capacity	Citizens satisfaction	Validity
SV16	**.83**	.05	.12	.21	0.72
SV15	**.81**	.15	-.02	.24	0.65
SV13	**.80**	.22	.05	.16	0.64
SV12	**.75**	.14	.04	.14	0.67
SV14	**.75**	.30	.04	.26	0.64
SV23	.17	.27	.09	**.73**	0.66
SV19	.29	.27	.15	**.71**	0.73
SV22	.26	.24	.19	**.70**	0.73
SV24	.26	.32	.00	**.69**	0.65
SV20	.45	.12	.18	**.69**	0.63
SV10	.21	**.82**	.16	.26	0.50
SV09	.31	**.75**	.07	.24	0.63
SV11	.51	**.67**	.09	.11	0.78
SV04	.09	.06	**.88**	.03	0.66
SV05	-.03	.24	**.83**	.17	0.71
SV02	.19	.02	.65	-.02	0.79
SV06	.05	.49	.59	.35	0.75
SV07	.04	.57	.54	.31	0.69
SV03	.02	.48	.50	.34	0.63
SV08	.03	.64	.48	.27	0.54
SV17	.67	-.02	.27	.32	0.67
SV18	.40	.28	.25	.53	0.75
SV01	-.32	-.06	-.01	.39	0.65
SV21	-.37	-.15	-.14	-.72	0.65
Eigenvalue	**4.9**	**3.5**	3.3	**4.3**	

| | Reliability | 0.91 | 0.85 | 0.88 | 0.88 | |

Table 4. Comprison with Korea and the U.S.

	Korea (N=346)		U.S(N=282)		T-test
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
Police facility	3.03	0.93	3.79	0.73	t=-11.40**
Work processing capacity	3.48	0.95	3.52	0.79	t=-0.58
Citizens satisfaction	3.13	0.58	3.44	0.76	t=-5.51**

Note:*p<.05,**p<.0

4.3. Regression analysis

<Table 5> presents the results of a regression analysis. This data shows that high evaluation of police facilities and work processing capacity are the biggest common contributors to satisfaction among citizens in both countries. In Korea police facilities were found to affect citizen satisfaction more than work processing capacity. Conversely in the U.S., work processing capacity was more influential. Police service development and offering(Korea) and police policy(U.S.), were also shown to positively affect satisfaction.

With respect to demographics, sex was a significant determining factor for Koreans, and educational background for Americans. Satisfaction with police service was lower among women in Korea, and among individuals with a higher educational background in the

Table 5. Regression analysis.

	Korea (N=323)			U.S. (N=281)		
	B	SE	T	B	SE	T
Factors of citizens satisfaction						
Police facility	**.446**	.015	18.735**	**.299**	.046	6.918**
Work processing capacity	**.354**	.014	15.656**	**.422**	.050	8.024**
Creation and provision of Police service	.451	.016	19.502**			
Police policies				.187	.042	3.862**
Demographic variables						
Gender	-.048	.025	-2.216*	-.069	.056	-1.900
Age	-.001	.023	-.015	-.073	.020	-1.933
Work	.096	.050	.906	-.010	.024	-.239
Education	.079	.075	.839	-.096	.031	-2.505*

R^2	0.88	0.67

5. Discussion

In this study we've established that "police facility" and "police work processing capacity" are critical determining factors of CS common to both countries.

Citizens have a growing desire for a hospitable enforcement and protection authority (i.e. police service). Both Korean and American participants would like to see better police facility, and highly competent policemen by extension. This result suggests that citizens consider police to be an authority service in addition to enforcement.

Work processing capacity is a more advanced characteristic of police service than police facility. Therefore, the influence of the former will be more important than the latter in Korea's future. Importantly, police authorities in both countries must continue to develop and improve CS if they want to maintain funding and the trust and respect of the citizens they serve.

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International journal of crisis & safety

Informal Learning during the Early Career CRISIS of Entry-Level Youth Workers as Public-Sector Temporary Employees in the Republic of KOREA

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Abstract

In Korea, various initiatives for youth development are the social driver for building a sustainable society by means of the public investment for next generations. The national need to make the society sustainable has been especially salient in Korea as it has accomplished both economic and democratic development in an unprecedented pace since the Korean War. Youth work has been institutionalized with the foci on protection and welfare of youth as well as various activities for youth. In the national youth work, youth workers play a key role in implementing youth policies and delivering programs and services for young people.

However, the labor marker for entry-level youth workers is far from favorable. Korean youth work agencies such as youth community centers, youth cultural centers, and youth shelters hold less and less capacity to accommodate newcomers, given the recent recession of national youth work. Due to the limited budget and the unstable market of youth work, the job security of entry-level youth workers in Korea has become more insecure than ever since the Korean government initiated the national youth work. In this career context, even for those who fortunately got some positions in the field of youth work, their career path is vulnerable from the beginning. This early career crisis of entry-level Korean youth workers reflects various aspects of the public-sector labor structure in Korea. At the same time, entry-level youth workers' understanding of their career and life also illuminate how individual needs and expectations collide with socio-cultural structures and norms in the Korean society. This gap between the personal agency and the societal organization can be further examined along with the conception of informal learning.

The purpose of this exploratory study is to illuminate entry-level youth workers' informal learning about self-identity and career though their job experiences. The study takes a phenomenological approach, a qualitative research method to delve into the nature of a phenomenon, to designing the methodological framework. Through a qualitative data analysis, the research identified a number of open codes that converged into eight categories and three major themes. Subsequently, the analysis results were interpreted along with three activity systems that was constructed upon the three major themes and attendant categories and codes.

What and how the entry-level youth workers learn informally on the job emerged from the methodological application of CHAT to their experiences and perceptions. Therefore, this study entails the theoretical implications of CHAT for examining informal learning in the workplace, highlighting its integrative approach to the job insecurity and the early career crisis of Korean entry-level youth workers.

[Keywords] Informal Learning, Youth Work, Career Crisis, Phenomenology, Temporary Employees

1. Introduction

Every government establishes the national vision of developing young people in order to sustainably facilitate social development. That is, various national initiatives for youth development are the social driver for building a sustainable society by means of the public investment for next generations. In particular, the national need to make the society sustainable has been especially salient in Korea

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as it has accomplished both economic and democratic development in an unprecedented pace since the Korean War. The Korean government has implemented "the National Youth Policy", which is updated every five year, on the basis of "the Youth Basic Act" first enacted in 1991.

The theory of youth work is fundamental to these governmental initiatives for youth development. Youth work has been defined as the distinctive practice of working with young people for their positive development in order to advance the society[1]. The key dimensions of youth work are focusing on young people in the sense of being an age specific activity, emphasizing voluntary participation and relationship, and being concerned with informal education and the welfare of youth[2].

In Korea, youth work has been institutionalized with the foci on protection and welfare of youth as well as various activities for youth. Meanwhile, youth work has become a distinctive field of practice that is differentiated from schooling. While schooling is formal education driven by national curriculum and certified teachers, youth work manifests itself in its informal education in the terrains of out-of-school programs and community development. "The Youth Basic Act" regulates the professional certificate of youth workers in Korea. Youth workers are defined as those who work in diverse youth-related institutions for positive and productive youth development.

Likewise, in the national youth work, youth workers play a key role in delivering youth policies, programs, and services for young people. The laws and the policies in the past were oriented toward youth development, focusing on the placement of professionally trained youth workers to adequate youth work agencies. Yet it is now extensively discussed how to improve their professional competencies[3]. A number of higher education institutions run programs for the sake of growing professional youth workers.

However, the labor marker for entry-level youth workers is far from favorable. Korean youth work agencies such as youth community centers, youth cultural centers, and youth shelters hold less and less capacity to accommodate newcomers, given the recent recession of national youth work. Furthermore, public youth work agencies are primarily run by legally consigned corporations. In other words, regional governments consign public youth work agencies to some legal corporations. Due to the limited budget and the unstable market of youth work, the job security of entry-level youth workers in Korea has become more insecure than ever since the Korean government initiated the national youth work[4].

In this career context, even for those who fortunately got some positions in the field of youth work, their career path is vulnerable from the very beginning. This early career crisis of entry-level Korean youth workers reflects various aspects of the public-sector labor structure in Korea. At the same time, entry-level youth workers' understanding of their career and life illuminate how individual needs and expectations collide with socio-cultural structures and norms in the Korean society.

This gap between the personal agency and the societal organization can be further examined along with the conception of informal learning in the workplace. Learning of human beings takes place not only formally but also informally. Particularly, informal processes and outcomes of learning encompass individual and organizational, personal and socio-cultural, and subjective and objective dimensions of learning[5]. These diverse attributes of learning have inspired more and more researchers to study informal learning as opposed to formal education and training[6].

The purpose of this exploratory study is to illuminate entry-level youth workers' informal learning about self-identity and career though their job experiences. The research limited research participants to newcomers who have undergone the labor structure of Korean youth work for less than two years. This group of public-sector employees work mostly in a temporary position influenced by "The Non-Regular Worker Act" in Korea. Thus the research participants are inevitably put in

a vulnerable position in terms of job security. Drawing upon cultural-historical activity theory(CHAT), this study attempted to examine how the participants accept or resist various contradictions and how learning takes place in the process of their adaptation with or resistance to them. This CHAT approach enables the study to explicate informal learning during the early career crisis of entry-level youth workers as public-sector temporary employees.

2. Review of the Literature

2.1. Korean youth workers

In Korea, "The Youth Basic Act" regulates the certificate of youth workers(Article 21). Youth workers are defined as those employed in any fields of youth development where activities and programs of welfare and protection for young people and positive youth development are implemented. Youth workers are responsible for developing and carrying out those activities and programs in order for young people to develop their physical and emotional abilities. Certified youth workers have been raised since 1993, and the summative number of certified youth workers from 1993 to 2016 is 46,434. Since 2013, approximately 4,000 people have attained the certificate of youth workers every year[7].

Recently, the Korean government has standardized the competencies required to youth workers through the National Competency Standard project. According to the National Competency Standard[8], the general tasks of youth workers encompass 1)planning and promotion of youth work and 2)development and evaluation of youth programs. In addition, youth workers' tasks also include management of resources, accreditation, administration, network, and information all of which are crucial to deliver youth development programs and activities in an effective and efficient manner.

More specifically, the job tasks of youth workers are categorized into four domains: running youth activities, making relationship with young people, performing administrative tasks, and managing various networks[3].

In the domain of youth activities, youth workers carry our needs assessment, program development and implementation, and evaluation of activities. In the domain of relationship, youth workers perform youth counseling and facilitation. In the domain of administration, youth workers manage youth work institutions and program budget. Lastly, in the domain of network, youth workers establish and manage various kinds of networks such as human resources, organizations, and youth clubs.

Such diverse tasks demand youth workers to be equipped with professional competencies. Therefore, the Korean government has attempted to provide updated training programs with youth workers[9]. In particular, the government has mandated the retraining of certified youth workers since 2014. Likewise, youth workers in Korea have various roles in the professional field of youth work, and the government has institutionalized youth work so as to form a professional field.

However, the work environment are not favorable to Korean youth workers. In the research investigating the job condition of youth workers[10], the level of job satisfaction among youth workers was low, and they problematized the insufficient budget for national youth work[10]. Additionally, the level of job satisfaction among less experienced youth workers was relatively lower[10].

In Korea, many youth work agencies are registered as public institutions supervised by regional governments. While a few regional governments directly run their youth work agencies, most others are consigned by some legal corporations. Given the decreasing budget from the central and local governments and the uncertainty in renewing the contract for another term, legal corporations who run youth work agencies on behalf of regional governments are hardly able to manage their human resources in a sustainable way.

In this regards, newly coming youth workers are forced to make a contract to work as non-regular employees. "The Non-Regular Workers Act" limits the maximum period of

temporary positions to two years. The original purpose of this regulation is to transfer non-regular workers to regular positions after two-year of the contract. Yet, many employers choose to terminate the contract instead of allowing the transition from non-regular to regular positions. That is, many newcomers to the public field of youth work start their career of youth workers as temporary, non-regular employees.

Due to these job characteristics and the condition of the labor market, entry-level youth workers in public youth agencies face the mid-career crisis in their early career stage. In general, the mid-career crisis are caused by the complexity of internal and external factors[11]. However, for the entry-level youth workers as public-sector employees, external factors primarily play out in their early career crisis. Even though they entered public institutions as nationally certified professionals, the consignment institution and the budget reduction influenced by the recent recession of national youth work resulted in the unfavorable job condition for youth workers.

2.2. Informal learning & cultural-historical activity theory(CHAT)

This research aims to investigate what entry-level youth workers learn informally during the early career crisis and how their informal learning leads to a deeper understanding of their own identity as public-sector temporary employees. Understanding informal learning requires taking into account the simultaneous relationship between productive activities at work and theories of learning[12]. Informal learning is a prevailing theme across various educational and learning-related fields.

The predominant approach to defining informal learning is distinguishing it from formal learning. In a technical definition, informal learning is defined as learning that takes place in informal rather than formal environments such as neighbors, family, work, plays, etc[13]. Another definition of informal learning is any knowledge or skill gaining activity that holds the absence of externally imposed

curricular criteria[14]. According to this definition, the presence of externally imposed curricular criteria determines learning as either formal or informal. The other definition proposes different types of workplace learning by providing six dimensions of a two-by-three matrix table[15]. This model employed two widely accepted criteria for categorizing informal and formal learning(i.e., the existence of intention and plan) along with the place and time of knowledge creation.

Likewise, the conception of informal learning views learning as not just a mental process, for instance, simply gaining knowledge and skills. Various cognitive approaches to learning likewise lack a comprehensive lens toward what, how and why people learn. In this study, cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) is employed to analyze the research participants' informal learning. The CHAT's alternative way of expounding human development and learning requires taking into consideration the variety of constituting components of activity. Within an activity or in the relationship among different activities, learning can be interpreted by elaborating how all the activity elements interact with and contradict one another.
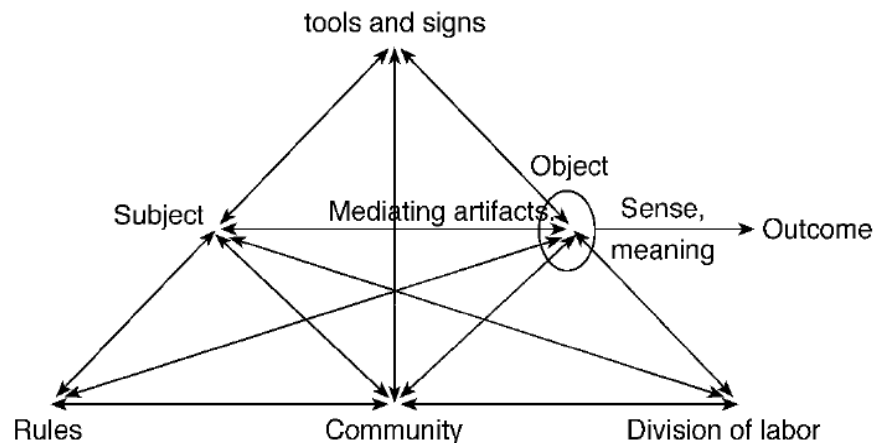
Engeström, one of the most influential contemporary CHAT scholars, has markedly contributed to the further development of activity theory in terms of methodological usefulness of the theory. Engeström's model highlights a systemic view on human activity and its constituents that entail complex social processes and outcomes by adding critical societal dynamics such as communities, the rules, and the continuously negotiated distribution of tasks, powers, and responsibilities to the Vygotskyan concept of subject-object relation mediated by tools or instruments.

In an activity system, a subject is an individual or group whose perspective or point of view is driven by a subjective agency, and objects are things or concepts motivated for and eventually transformed into an outcome or result. The community is the group of participants who hold or share the same object, and division of labor refers to the horizontal actions and interactions among the members of

the community as well as "to the vertical division of power and status"[16]. A division of labor involves both rules and regulational norms that allow or constrain the dynamical activity process in a functional activity system. The structure of a human activity system is delineated in <Figure 1> below.

Figure 1. The structure of a human ctivity system[15].

3. Methods

This study draws from a phenomenological approach, a qualitative research method to delve into the nature of a phenomenon, to designing the methodological framework. The phenomenological approach guides the process of data collection and analysis to explicate how the participants' lived-experiences of work and life as youth workers form and transform[17]. While the participants engage in youth work practice, their work experiences are imbued with various elements of an activity system.

The research participants were selected among Korean youth workers who had worked for less than two years in public youth work agencies. A series of in-depth, face-to-face interviews with twenty-three entry-level youth workers were carried out in between November of 2014 and May of 2016. The semi-structured interview framework involved both scheduled and unscheduled probes about their experiences of youth work practice. In searching for the underlying beliefs and values understood by the participants, the participants were asked how the society and their organizations are structured and how they conceive of their job characteristics, as experienced through their youth work.

CHAT is applied to unmask the informality of/in their learning in this specific vocational context. CHAT highlights that meaning emerges in the interplay between subjects acting in social contexts and the mediators (e.g., tools, signs, and symbolic systems) that are used in those contexts[18]. Thus, what and how the participants learn informally can become vivid while clarifying each element within an activity system and interpreting meanings in relations between these elements.

To identify core elements of each activity system, the research focused on the key evidence that emerged from the phenomenological analysis of the interview data. Various indicators were identified through both direct interpretation of the individual instance and aggregation of instances[19]. In NVivo 9, many a priori codes and the themes were identified. Subsequently, the coded data was reviewed over and over again until meaningful patterns, similarities, and differences appeared. The research identified 54 open codes that converged into eight categories and three major themes as in <Table 1> below.

Table 1. Themes and categories.

Overarching themes	Categories
Productive youth work practice	Vision of youth work in korea
	Career unconformity
	Contradictions on the job
Timely youth work services	Unfair organizational structure
	Generation gap
	Outdated policy & law
Changed standpoint on youth	Bureaucracy
	Outdated institution

Finally, the analysis results were interpreted along with three activity systems that was constructed upon the three major themes and attendant categories and codes.
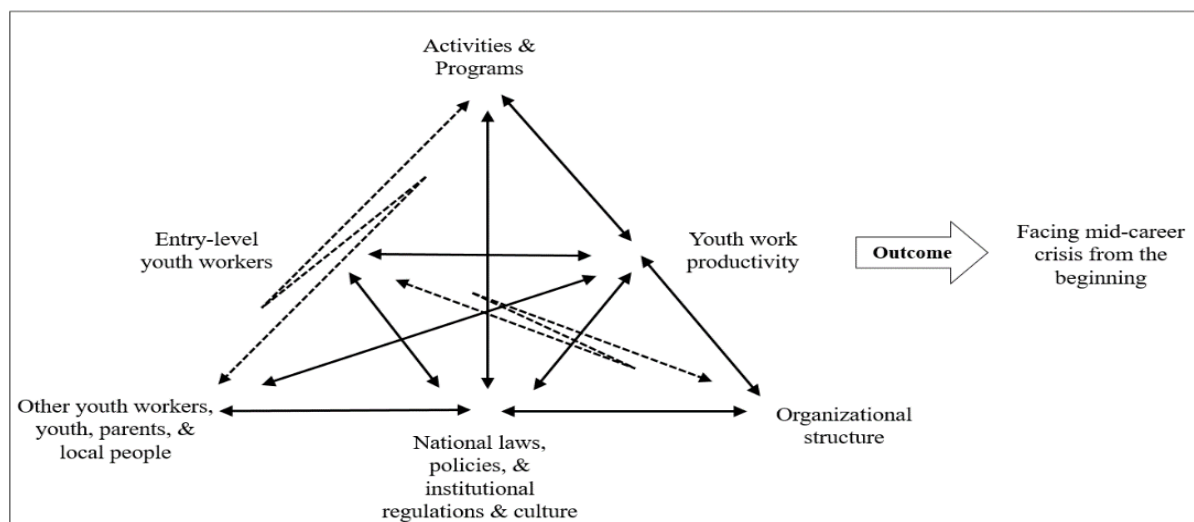
4. Results

Three activity systems represent 1)productive youth work, 2)timely youth work, and 3)professional development. In each activity system, a number of contradictions are identified.

4.1. Early career crisis

The activity system of productive youth work is delineated in <Figure 2>.

Figure 2. The activity system of productive youth work.

The entry-level youth workers pursued positive development of young people through youth activities and programs which they designed, implemented, and participated in. One of the important missions of youth work is to realize the practice as efficiently and effectively as possible[2]. This nature is represented in the activity system of 'productive youth work.' In this activity system, the core mediation is youth activities and programs, and the community is comprised of youth work practitioners, youth, parents, and citizens. The youth-related laws and policies, organizational regulations, and invisible culture in the workplace constitute the norms. Additionally, the participants worked in a certain organizational structure where the labor is divided by various job tasks with hierarchy.

Although all the participants agreed on such a fundamental principle of youth work

to be sought, they thought that the vision of the professional field of youth work is not bright. Given the recession and the negative social recognition of youth work, the participants were concerned about the unpromising reality with the career of youth worker from their job experiences. This frustration appears vivid by identifying the contradiction between the subject and the division of labor.
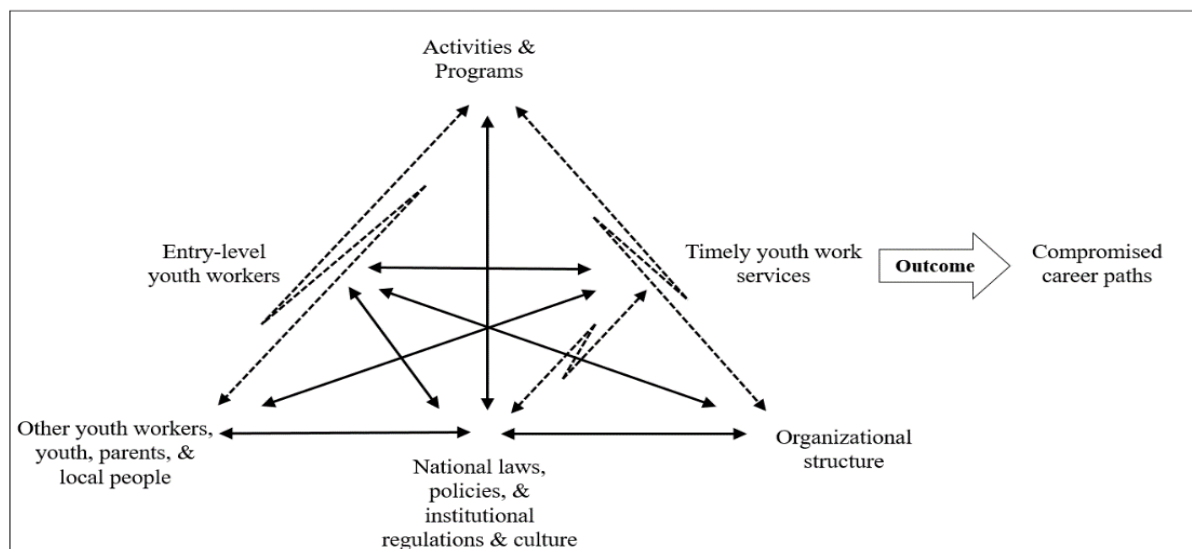
In addition, the participants kept a skeptical perspective on the situation where the mission of youth work had not been well delivered to young people. In Korea, youth-related fields and practices tend to be conceived of as a subordinated field to formal schooling among school teachers, parents, and citizens. In this regard, the participants constantly reflected on what to do for youth development despite this stereotype. While some youth workers attempted to overcome the stereotype, others inevitably faced the early career crisis from the very beginning of their working lives

4.2. Social oppression embodied in the generation gap

The activity system of timely youth work services is delineated in <Figure 3>.

Figure 3. The activity system of timely youth work services.

The object of this activity system is to deliver timely youth work services. That is, the participants viewed that it is imperative to deliver youth work services to where they are needed immediately. Besides, "timely" refers to the appropriate contents in terms of the zeitgeist. In the same ways as in the first activity system, the major mediation of this activity system is various youth activities and programs. The number of open codes in relation to this activity system were grouped into three categories: 'unfair organizational structure,' 'generation gap,' and 'outdated policy and law.' Given these categories and attendant open codes, the contradictions that the participants bumped into were discovered as follows.

First, when the participants were unable to deliver timely youth work services because of the other members of the community, the participants pointed out the bureaucracy widely embedded in the society. For parents and citizens, youth work tends to be considered merely outdoor youth activities. The participants argued that this stereotype keep youth work from fulfilling its original mission. Second, the participants thought that it is hardly possible for them to get promoted to regular workers, which prevents them from polishing their vision of the career development as youth workers. Third, as the youth-related laws and policies have become outdated, their youth work practice scarcely met the current social needs of youth development.
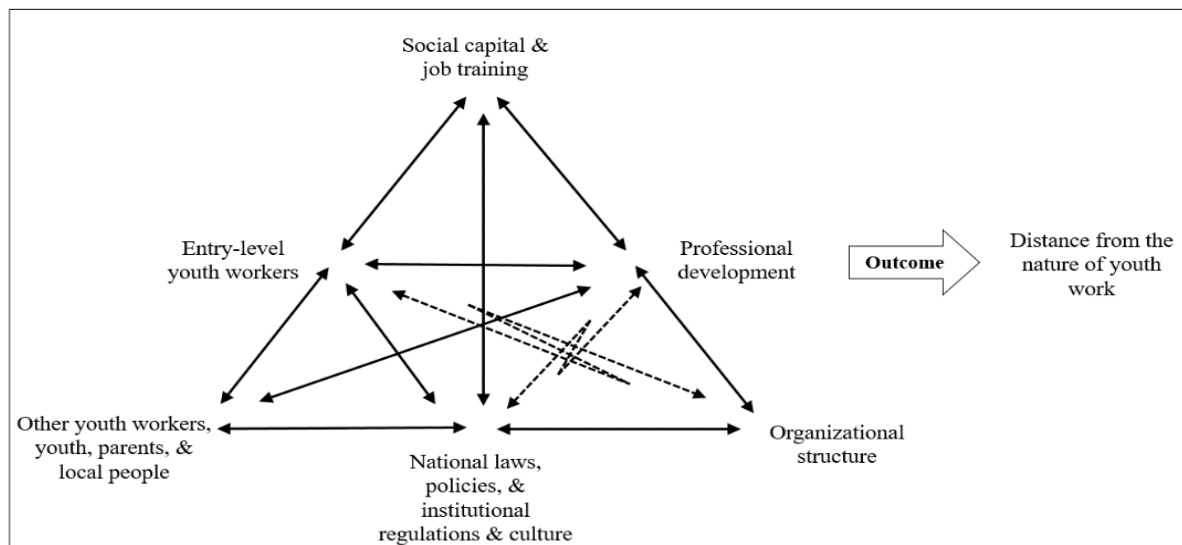
The contradictions above made the participants realize the limited opportunity of career development. Some participants expected to lay over the job in near future rather than constantly trying to overcome those structural contradictions. This challenge is by no means unique to the entry-level youth workers in Korea. Korea is experiencing the high youth unemployment rate[7], and the unsustainable labor market has become more and more common to young professionals.

4.3. Change of the standpoint on youth

The activity system of professional development is described in <Figure 4>.

Figure 4. The activity system of professional development.

The participants believed that professional development is important for their future career in the field of youth work. In fact, many of the participants have attended some types of training programs designed for in-service youth workers. In addition, the participants attempted to develop and use their social capital which formed during their short period of career. Thus, in this activity system, professional career is the object, and the social capital and various kinds of professional training constitutes the mediation.

When the participants started their new career as youth workers, they had little information about what to do for their career development. As they experienced the field, many of them put some kinds of effort in professional development. However, the issue is that the participants' effort in professional development sometimes ended up with a negative perspective on their own professional identity. This problematic context is represented by two identified contradictions in the activity system of 'professional development.'

First, the participants had to attend various training programs in order to develop their professional career. However, as junior youth workers who often take responsibility of technical tasks in the organizations, the participants encountered the organizational culture unfavorable for them to take external training opportunities. The participants got frustrated when they had to give up the opportunities due to the bureaucratic organization culture.

Second, the participants possessed a positive perspective of youth when they had studied to become youth workers. However, when their professional career of youth workers started, the entry-level youth workers could no long develop their positive views on youth as they repetitively took care of technical matters in the organizations. One participant pointed out that many youth workers

tend to consider youth a target group of people for the organizational prosperity. In order words, the entry-level youth workers were deprived of the opportunity to work with young people-the original task of youth work. This contradiction made the participants skeptical about their professional career of youth workers.

5. Implications

What and how the entry-level youth workers learn informally on the job emerged from the methodological application of CHAT to their experiences and perceptions. Therefore, this study entails the theoretical implications of CHAT for examining informal learning in the workplace, highlighting its integrative approach to the job insecurity and the early career crisis of Korean entry-level youth workers. When viewing learning as product, learning is never restricted to human minds and bodies. Thus, workplace learning ranges between and beyond individuals. The participants' informal learning about their professional identity and career took place in various contradictions which exist in a complexity of social relations and organizational structures.

The findings of this study confirm the fundamental philosophical assumptions of CHAT that learning is inextricably determined by cultural material practice and genuine participation in activity system[20]. The three activity systems were shaped by cultural and historical mediation and rules that should be viewed from the specific social and organizational standpoint through which the participants engage in practice. Furthermore, this research implies that newcomers' successful adaptation to the specific field of youth work, which is seemly a public sector, can be enhanced through understanding what and how they learn in relation to social-cultural aspects of their work.

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International journal of crisis & safety

Improvement Plan for the SAFETY Management System of the KOREAN Martial Arts

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Abstract

This study intends to suggest ways to improve the safety management measures and the safety management system following the safety accidents and complex risk factors that may arise in the field of martial arts. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following research questions have been set.
First, what are the status and causes of the safety accidents in the martial arts?
Second, what are the ways to improve the safety management system of the martial arts?

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, we have reviewed articles, papers, and books related to the safety domestic and foreign as of 2017 in order to identify the current status and causes of the safety accidents in the martial arts and to suggest ways to improve the safety management system of the martial arts where a literature survey method was used, and the collected data were divided into the status of safety accidents, cause analysis and improvement measures, respectively.

Based on the above research method and the data analysis method, the following research conclusions were acquired.

First of all, the status and causes of safety accidents in the martial sports are analyzed as follows.
First, 55.9% of the martial artist population, which is more than half of the total, experienced a safety accident sustaining severe to minor injuries and experienced an average of 2.6 injuries per year.

Second, the most common injuries were pain(54.8%) and sprains(51.8%) while they were concentrated on the head and the upper body.

Third, the causes of safety accidents in martial arts activities were technical factors such as the lack of motor functionality and skills, psychological factors such as excessive exercise, lack of tension, and conceitedness, among others. In addition, physical causes such as the failure to repair the facility, such as collision with the opponent and falling, were among the main causes.

The improvement measures for the safety management system of the martial arts are as follows.
First, it is necessary to continuously improve the curriculum of the martial arts instructor certificate.
Second, the safety management system should be constructed through the placement of professional medical personnel related to the safety accidents along with the institutionalization of the emergency care system.
Third, it is necessary to strengthen the gymnasium establishment law and leader placement standards, and mandatory safety education for instructors should be provided to provide safety environment for trainees by enhancing the ability of martial arts leaders to deal with safety accidents.

Finally, the association of each martial art should systematize the mandatory safety training so that leader and trainee can improve the problems of environment and develop new program and safety education so that they can practice and compete in safe environments.

[Keywords] *Martial Arts, Safety, Martial Art Safety Education, Safety Management System, Martial Art Safety Injury*

1. Introduction

Safety has emerged among the greatest concerns of the present time since the recent sinking of the vessel named "Sewolho." To the point that 'safety is the future,' the society is paying more attention to safety than ever before[1]. Considering that the concept of safety is not only required for a particular class but is a necessity not only at a specific time but also a task that must be constantly raised from the birth of a human being to the end of his or her life, it must be an extremely normal and ideal phenomenon.

In particular, the incidence of safety accidents is very high compared to other sports, especially in the case of martial arts and physical training based on safety, during training and competition[2].

Despite the increasing awareness of safety and safety education, there is little research on safety management. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze the current status and causes of safety accidents that may arise in the martial arts, and to suggest ways to improve the safety management system of the martial arts in order to implement safety management measures and the safety management system accordingly.

2. Background

2.1. Concept of safety and definition of martial art safety education

Generally speaking, safety refers to a state in which there is no danger or accident[3]. It means responding to and coping with physical and mental impairment in all potentially dangerous situations. In another sense, safety is defined as safety by reducing the risk of accidents by creating a physical environment that minimizes conditions, conditions, or potential hazards created by human behavior modification in various objects and environments, and it is also defined as the safety of the body by removing physical and mental impairments from unintentional accidents[4]. Kim & Park defined safety as being able to maintain one's healthy life by protecting him or herself from various safety threatening factors[5]. Therefore, safety could be said to be the state of knowing how to reduce the damage by reducing the accident rate by preventing the risk of accident in advance, and by preparing measures against the accident. This can also be said to be the state of acquiring the dignity of individual human beings not only protecting themselves but ultimately respecting the lives of others.

As seen in the above, safety is an activity to achieve the basic desire to pursue happiness by pursuing the human life in its entirety, and is a wide range of activities to prevent accidents, to protect human beings from injury and to prevent loss of property[6].

Any kind of exercise requires muscular strength, power, and requires proper skills. In a martial art, if you cannot quickly satisfy the techniques with correct postures and actions, an accident can occur. Particularly, martial art sports such as Judo, Taekwondo, Aikido, and Kendo involve aggressive physical activities, which raises the issue of safety education that can cope with the injuries that may occur during training and even the risk of life[7].

The martial art safety education is an education to prevent safety accidents that may occur during the martial art training. Therefore, the existence of such martial safety education presupposes that safety accidents can occur frequently during the martial art training and that these safety accidents can be prevented thorough the safety education[8].

2.2. Safety management system for the martial art safety

Safety management system refers to activities that systematically combine and manage various fields related to the martial art safety for the purposes of operating a safe environment in a martial arts training center or stadium[9].

The safety management system stipulated under the individual laws of the martial arts is determined by the School Sports Promotion Act, the National Sports Promotion Act, and the Act on the Establishment and Use of

Sports Facilities. However, due to the lack of consumer protection devices, it may result in a higher incidence of safety accidents. Therefore, it is necessary to introduce a systematic system that takes preventive actions as a top priority and to apply them practically[10].

3. Results

3.1. Analysis of the status of safety accidents in the martial arts

More than half of the martial population, 55.9%, have suffered from severe injuries with an average of 2.6 injuries per year[11]. The most common types of injury are pain (54.8%) and sprain (51.8%) concentrated on the head (67.6%) and the upper body (33.0%). More than 70% of the respondents said that the level of awareness of safety rules is normal, and the rate of experience in the safety education was also far low at 36.9%. 93.7% of them were discovered to be aware of the need for the safety education.

3.2. Causes of safety accidents in the martial arts and management issue

The causes of safety accidents in the martial arts vary widely, however, they are divided into the technical, psychological, and the physical.
First, a safety accident occurs due to a lack of skills and techniques as a technical cause. Because there are various threats in the martial arts such as beating, bending, knocking, banging, hitting, mutually colliding, and so the repetitive training to acquire highly skilled techniques faces the high incidence of injury. Therefore, only education can prevent the risk of safety accidents.

Second, excessive exercise as a psychological cause, lack of tension, and pride are the major causes of safety accidents. Humans are prone to accidents when the demands of the moment by the temporal physiological and psychological factors are greater than their abilities.

Third, a safety accident occurs due to a physical cause such as a collision with an opponent and a failure to fix the facility against events such as a fall. Especially, due to the

passive safety management of leaders and the lack of awareness of safety, the safety management of the martial arts is urgent to avoid facing legal sanctions[12].

3.3. Improvement plan

First, in order to improve the safety management system of the martial arts, it is necessary to continuously improve the maintenance education of the martial arts instructor certification. It is necessary to improve the safety response capability of the leaders by improving the qualification of them.

Second, the athletes of the martial arts are experiencing the majority of safety accident experiences under the gaming situation. Therefore, the safety management system should be constructed through the institutionalization of emergency medical system deployment and professional medical staff related to the safety accident of the martial arts.

Third, it is necessary to strengthen the gymnasium establishment law and instructor placement standards, and to provide safety environment for trainees by making the instructor safety education mandatory and by improving the trainees' response capability against safety accidents.

Finally, each association of martial art must ensure that leaders and trainees are able to improve their environment and develop new programs and train them so that they can practice and compete in safe environments every time.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to analyze the issues and the improvement plan of the safety management system of the martial arts. The following conclusions were derived from this study.

First, more than half of the martial artists have experienced injuries, especially injuries to the head and the upper body.

Second, the cause of the safety accident of the martial arts was safety accidents due to technical, psychological and physical factors.

Third, it is necessary to improve the safety response capability of the martial artists by improving the qualification of the leaders as martial arts engender the higher risk of safety accidents. Through the institutionalization of professional medical staff and emergency care system related to safety accidents, it is necessary to establish a safety management system. Furthermore, strengthening the gymnasium establishment law and leader placement standards, while providing the safety education for the trainees through the mandatory safety training of the leaders must be required.

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