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Abstract

Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, community policing has been adopted in most of police agencies in the United States as well as many other countries to improve overall effectiveness of police departments and enhance citizen’s perception toward police. Under the philosophy of community policing, police-community relation is considered as one of important elements to success their missions. That is, effective community policing requires input of citizens regarding the needs and problems of the community. Thus, public attitude toward police can be very influential and should be one that is positive. For instance, there has always existed a cyclical relationship between the police and the public: distrust towards the police affects their effectiveness of crime control, which leads to an increase in crime that, ultimately, results in further distrust. Nationwide, principally in countries that have a widespread allocation of poverty and interference from an overreaching state or government, law enforcement has been viewed particularly disapprovingly and untrusting due to past behaviors of their own police involved in corruption and dishonesty.

Although there has been an extensive body of research that has been conducted on public confidence in the police, there has been limited research that has focused on press freedom and other nations. The purpose of current study, therefore, is to shed light on the public confidence in police across 15 OECD countries using the World Value Survey (2010-2014). Moreover, the study attempts to determine how press freedom influences the public confidence in policing forces across 15 countries.

The findings from this study partially supported our research hypothesis where press freedom positively influenced public confidence in the police agencies across the OECD countries. More specifically, consistent with prior research, individual characteristics of the respondents were statistically significant while the press freedom became a non-significant factor on police confidence. In particular, people who were older, female, and have a high level of education tend to report a higher level of police confidence. In addition, two country level variables were statistically significant. That is, crime rates had a negative impact on police confidence while economic growth were positively related to the police confidence. Although the current study improves our understanding of the effect of press freedom on police confidence, there are several limitations, and future study needs to be conducted to better understand police confidence. Finally, implications for practice and future research are discussed.

[Keywords] Criminal, Crimes, Police Confidence, Press Freedom, OECD Countries

1. Introduction

Traditional policing strategy has been criticized their inability to interact with citizens where police officers are generally isolated from public[1]. Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, community policing has been adopted in most of police agencies in the United States (US) as well as many other countries to improve overall effectiveness of police departments and enhance citizen’s perception toward police. Under the philosophy of community policing, police-community relation is considered as one of important elements to
success their missions[2]. That is, effective community policing requires input of citizens regarding the needs and problems of the community. Thus, public attitude toward police can be very influential and should be one that is positive. For instance, there has always existed a cyclical relationship between the police and the public: distrust towards the police affects their effectiveness of crime control, which leads to an increase in crime that, ultimately, results in further distrust[3].

Nationwide, principally in countries that have a widespread allocation of poverty and interference from an overreaching state or government, law enforcement has been viewed particularly disapprovingly and untrusting due to past behaviors of their own police involved in corruption and dishonesty.

Although there has been an extensive body of research that has been conducted on public confidence in the police, there has been limited research that has focused on press freedom and other nations. Whereas the general public has viewed the police favorably in this nation, the same results do not apply to that of other country’s citizens and there has been a multitude of variables that explain the grounds to this phenomenon. The purpose of current study, therefore, is to shed light on the public confidence in police across 15 OECD (the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries using the World Value Survey (2010-2014). Moreover, the study attempts to determine how press freedom influences the public confidence in policing forces across 15 countries.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Press freedom

Although the impact of level of democracy and press freedom on corruption was well documented, there is relatively little research on press freedom and police confidence with few exceptions. For example, in countries where the media is reasonably free from any kind of restriction on their activities corruption levels are likely to be low[4].

In general, corruption and public confidence in governmental agencies including police agencies are positively related to the each other even though a casual direction is not clearly determined. For instance, a recent study confirmed that the presence of democracy and press freedom can reduce the level of corruption significantly and there an inverse relationship between corruption and police confidence. There is also a strong positive relationship between press freedom and democracy[5][6].

Press freedom is a measure of the press freedom of countries conducted by the Freedom House annually since 1979. The index is consist of three main components including laws and regulation, political pressure, and economic pressure for press freedom across all types of media including print, broadcast, and internet-based news outlets and each of these sub-indexes are highly correlated with corruption[7]. One possible explanation of the association between press freedom and corruption is following: the presence of press freedom brings governmental corruption cases to the citizens by news media and expose negative view of the cases. During an election period, citizens who are award of those corruption cases punish corrupted politicians by ousting them from public offices. Therefore, elected politicians react to the citizens by reducing corruption[8]. Thus, it is reasonable to insist that press freedom is negatively associated with the level of corruption which in turn produce a lower level of police confidence.

2.2. Other relevant factors

As noted earlier, most prior research on police confidence shows that the primary determinants of police confidence are the citizens’ individual characteristics such as age, gender and education as well as country-level predictors including poverty, economic status, safety of society and so on[4][5][9][10][11]. For example, a recent study found that older people have a greater level of trust in the police than younger people while another study confirmed that age was negatively associated with confidence in the Mexican police[9][12].
Also, male citizens reported a higher level of police confidence than females and people who have a higher level of education had lower levels of confidence in the police than their counterparts[9][11]. Finally, according to a comparison study, people living in a country with a higher homicide rate reported lower levels of the police confidence while average respondents were more likely to express a higher level of police confidence in both authoritative and democratically developed countries[5][13].

In sum, these findings suggest that press freedom is negatively related to police confidence after controlling other relevant factors.

3. Methodology

3.1. Data

The data used in the current study were obtained from various international databases including World Value Surveys(WVS, 2010-2013)[13], Freedom House[14], OECD Statistics[15], and United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime(UNODC)[7]. In particular, the primary dependent variable(i.e., police confidence) was drawn from WVS which is designed to facilitate a cross-national comparison of people’s beliefs and values including happiness, trust, culture, and confidence [9][10].

3.2. Variables

The dependent variable of the study is police confidence. Based on prior research, the dependent variable was measured by a single question from the WVS(i.e, “how much confidence do you have in the police?”). The original response was coded negatively where 1=a great deal, 2=quite a lot, 3=not very much, and 4=none at all. For analyses, the scale was reversed, as to show that a higher score indicated higher police confidence[9][11].

The independent variable, press freedom was measured by Freedom House where they evaluates three different aspects of press freedom including legal environment, political environment, and economic environment and ranks countries accordingly. That is, Freedom house describes countries scoring from 0 to 30 as of having ‘free’ media, while countries with scores from 31 to 60 and from 61 to 100 are defined as ‘partly free’ and ‘not free’, respectively[4][14]. Likewise the dependent variable, press freedom was reverse-coded where a higher score indicated higher press freedom.

Prior research has also shown that police confidence is influenced by individual characteristics(e.g., age, gender, and education) as well as country’s socioeconomic status including income inequality, crime rates, and economic growth[5]. Thus, in order to control the potential intervening effects, the current study included six individual and country variables: sex(1=male, 2=female), age(an interval variable), education(1=No formal education ~ 9=University-level education with degree), income inequality(GINI coefficient: 0=complete equality, 1=complete inequality), crime rates(homicides rates per 100,000 populations), and economic growth(annual % of growth rate of GDP).

3.3. Analytical strategy

The primary data for this study is a hierarchical dataset, in which individual citizens across 15 OECD countries are nested within each country. In order to analyze these nested data, two-level Hierarchical Generalized Linear Modeling(HGLM) was employed to examine the effect of press freedom on police confidence with controlling for other relevant exogenous factors[14]. At level 1, the units will be individual citizens as a function of a set of individual characteristics(N=6,696). At level 2, the units will be countries(N=15). It should be noted that for level 1 data, approximately 30% of the original cases(N=22,709) was randomly selected for a better and efficient estimation.

4. Findings

Descriptive statistics were presented in Table 1. The average score of police confidence is 2.76 which indicated moderate level of public confidence toward the police. This finding was consistent with the Figure 1 where the average score of police confidence in 15 OECD countries was about 2.7 which
ranged from 2.0 (Mexico) to 3.1 (New Zealand & Australia). Of the total of 6,696 individuals analyzed in the current study, more than half of the respondents were females (52.80%). The average age was approximately 48 years old and most of them were well-educated (above high school education). With regard to country level characteristics, average GINI coefficients across 15 countries was 0.34 which ranged from 0.25 to 0.50. The average of homicide rates was roughly 4 homicide incidents per 100,000 populations. Finally, the average economic growths was 3.30 with standard deviation of 2.73.

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable (Level 1)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. D</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police confidence</td>
<td>6,696</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variable (Level 2)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>74.40</td>
<td>14.67</td>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>90.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variables (Level 1 &amp;2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>47.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.69</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>99.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (2=Female)</td>
<td>3,536</td>
<td>52.80</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GINI coff</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate (per 100,000 population)</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth (GDP Growth)</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** Police confidence across 15 OECD countries.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. The results from HGLM analyses.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variable (Level 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variables (Level 1 &amp; 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GINI coeff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate (per 100,000 pop.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth (GDP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p<0.05 ** p<0.01

<Table 2> presents the results from HGLM analyses. First, unconditional model (one-way random effect ANOVA model) was conducted to estimate between-group and within-group variance. The results from unconditional model confirmed that 14% of the variability in police confidence across the countries (Intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC)=0.14). The results also confirmed that police confidence significantly varies across 15 OECD countries and the average police confidence was 2.76.

After introducing press freedom into the model, both intercept and press freedom coefficients were found to be statistically significant. That is, press freedom had positive impact on police confidence even though the magnitude of the coefficient was relatively small. Further study is needed to address this specific issue[9]. Consistent with prior research, individual characteristics of the respondents were statistically significant while the press freedom became a non-significant factor on police confidence. In particular, people who were older, female, and have a high level of education tend to report a higher level of police confidence[6].

Finally, two country level variables were statistically significant. That is, crime rates had a negative impact on police confidence while economic growth were positively related to the police confidence.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of press freedom on police confidence across 15 OECD countries. The findings from this study partially supported our research hypothesis where press freedom positively influenced public confidence in the police agencies across the OECD countries. The feasible explanation for this particular finding is that press freedom is one of the important indicators to represent the level of democracy and the accountability of the government agencies in each country. Thus, if citizens perceive that governmental agencies or authorities infringe on citizens’ right of freedom, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press, they usually do not support their governmental agencies. In addition, a recent study confirmed that the presence of democracy and press freedom can reduce the level of corruption significantly[6]. A number of studies also have found that there is an inverse relationship between corruption and police confidence[5]. Thus, it is reasonable to insist that press freedom is negatively associated with the level of corruption which in turn produce a lower level of police confidence.

Although the study improves our understanding of the effect of press freedom on police confidence, there are several limitations, and future study needs to be conducted to better understand police confidence. First of all, since the current study used several secondary and publicly available datasets, some important theoretically and empirically driven factors were not fully included. Also, among 34 OECD countries, only 15 countries were included to examine the topic due to the data availability (too many missing values on certain variables or WVS is not available for certain countries). Thus, future research
should take into consideration of these limitations and expand the extant empirical study on this particular topic.

6. References

6.1. Journal articles


6.2. Books


6.3. Additional references

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Abstract

Human beings always look for a suitable career for them and seek self-realization as well as economic stability through professional activities. Hence, college life can be seen as a particularly important time facing a transition to the world of work in terms of career preparation and career decision making.

However, today’s society is rapidly changing so that it causes uncertainties about college students’ future courses who are supposed to graduate from college, achieve capacities and then contribute to the nation, society and organization. Therefore it seems that colleges need to be more proactive in their students’ career issues.

This study is to analyze the effect relationship of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity among students of security services, understand how the causal relationship of variables is, and emphasize the need to conduct research for the development of security industry and universities with the department of security services.

Subjects of this study consist of 500 students who attend one of 6 universities with the department related to security services. This study used SPSS 20.0 version. In order to ensure reliability and validity of questionnaires, Cronbach’s Alpha of Internal Consistency Method and Exploratory Factor Analysis were conducted. While frequency analysis was conducted to analyze demographic characteristics of this sample, ANOVA was applied for identify differences among variables by each demographic characteristic. Correlation analysis on measurement variables and multiple regression analysis were conducted in order to analyze effects of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity.

First, as results of difference analysis on self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity by each demographic characteristic, mostly there was no significant difference, however, behavioral domain by gender was higher among females than males and compromise was significantly higher among females than males. Cognitive, affective, behavioral domain and competence by grade were significantly higher among those scored higher than those scored lower.

Second, as results of effect analysis of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity, it appeared that self-directed learning ability positively influences on self-determination and career maturity. Sub-factors of self-directed learning ability, cognitive domain(.185), affective domain(.273) and behavioral domain(.96) all positively influence on self-determination. Also, it appeared that sub-factors of self-directed learning ability, cognitive domain(.109), affective domain(.305), behavioral domain(.095) all positively influence on self-determination.

Consequently, through improving self-directed learning ability which enables security services students to take the initiative in their learning, set and conduct learning objectives and strategies and evaluate learning outcomes, they can solve the problems related to college maladjustment and career issues since it can positively influence on their thoughts, behaviors and career issues.

[Keywords] Security, Protection Science, Self-Directed Learning Ability, Self-Determination, Career Maturity
1. Introduction

Human beings always look for a suitable career for them and seek self-realization as well as economic stability through professional activities. Hence, college life can be seen as a particularly important time facing a transition to the world of work in terms of career preparation and career decision making.

However, today’s society is rapidly changing so that it causes uncertainties about college students’ future courses who are supposed to graduate from college, achieve capacities and then contribute to the nation, society and organization[1]. Therefore it seems that colleges need to be more proactive in their students’ career issues. Also, students need to identify their interests, develop their major and characteristics, understand their desire and current state and set their learning objectives on their own in order to remain competitive in getting a position. Further, they need to overcome difficulties in the learning process through securing human and material resources for learning and selecting appropriate learning skills and strategies.

Compared to the other countries, Korean university students demonstrate relatively lower career maturity and the reasons for this seem due to not being offered for conditions suited for students to sufficiently take into account their careers, considering characteristics of Korean educational system which puts emphasis on the academic and educational background[2][3].

In this context, this study is to analyze the effect relationship of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity among students of security services, understand how the causal relationship of variables is, and emphasize the need to conduct research for the development of security industry and universities with the department of security services.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Self-directed learning

Self-directed learning means learners’ ability to identify their learning needs with their own learning initiatives irrespective of others’ help, explain their learning objectives, secure human and material resources required for learning, select and implement appropriate learning strategies, and self-assess previously achieved academic outcomes[4][5].

2.2. Self-determination

Self-determination means achieving integrated coordination through human intrinsic motivation and internalization of motivated behaviors via external factors and it consists of autonomy, competence and relationship that individuals possess subjectively[6].

2.3. Career maturity

Career maturity is usually identified by consistency of actions that individuals take on their career issues with behaviors expected in their age group. Also it means the level of career development as well as cognitive and attitudinal preparedness handling individuals' development tasks[7].

3. Method of Study

3.1. Subjects

Subjects of this study consist of 500 students who attend one of 6 universities with the department related to security services. This study used convenience sampling, also known as non-probability sampling. We explained the professors of each university about the survey and asked for their cooperation over the telephone or in person. Of the questionnaires distributed and collected by the researcher for three months from September to November, except for 38 unreliable and non-responses, 462 responses were used as analysis data for this study. As results of analyzing socio-demographic characteristics of the subjects, it appeared that for age, there were 318 males(67.2%) and 151 females(31.9%), for grade, there were 197 freshmen(41.6%), 125 sophomore(26.4%), 81 juniors(17.1%) and 66 seniors(14.0%) and for GPA, those less than 3.0 were 46(9.7%), more than 3.0~less than 3.5 were 151(31.9%), more than 3.5~less than 4.0 were 163(34.5%) and more than 4.0 were 109(23%).
3.2. Research tools

Questionnaires, as the research tool used Likert 5-point scale. The questionnaires on self-directed learning ability used self-directed learning ability assessment tool developed by Bae & Lee(2010)[8], questionnaires on self-determination used items used in Kim(2007) based on BPNS: basic Psychology Needs Scale developed by Deci & Ryan(2002)[9][10], questionnaires on self-directed learning ability assessment tool developed by Bae & Lee(2010)[8], questionnaires on self-determination used items used in Kim(2007) based on BPNS: basic Psychology Needs Scale developed by Deci & Ryan(2002)[9][10], questionnaires on career maturity used the translated version of CMI(Career Maturity Inventory) of Crites(1974) and finally, consisted of 18 items of self-directed learning ability, 15 items of self-determination and 20 items of career maturity of total 53 items which were modified from Jeong(1991)’s translated, modified, complemented version to be suitable for study objectives and subjects[11][12].

3.3. Reliability and validity analysis of measurement tools

This study used SPSS 20.0 version. In order to ensure reliability and validity of questionnaires, Cronbach’s Alpha of Internal Consistency Method and Exploratory Factor Analysis were conducted. While frequency analysis was conducted to analyze demographic characteristics of this sample, ANOVA was applied for identify differences among variables by each demographic characteristic. Correlation analysis on measurement variables and multiple regression analysis were conducted in order to analyze effects of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity.

4. Result
4.1. Difference analysis on self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity by each demographic characteristic

As a result of difference analysis on factors with significant difference, it appeared that behavioral domain by gender was significantly higher among females than males(t=9.553, p<.01) and compromise was significantly higher among males than females(t=3.990, p<.05). But there was no significant difference by grade. Cognitive domain(F=8.965, p<.001), affective domain(F=7.248, p<.001), behavioral domain(F=13.722, p<.001) and competence(F=2.701, p<.01) by GPA were significantly higher among those scored higher than those scored lower.

4.2. Correlation among variables

As a result of correlation analysis based on self-directed learning ability(cognitive, affective and behavioral domain), self-determination(autonomy, competence and relationship) and career maturity(propensity to plan, tendency, compromise and determination) data from factor analysis, while there is no correlation between autonomy, which is a sub-factor of self-determination and tendency, compromise, determination, which are sub-factors of career maturity, except for the sub-factors above-mentioned, there are correlations among sub-factors of self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity(.193~.760).

4.3. Effects of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity

As results of self-directed learning ability’s contribution to self-determination and statistical significance tests, F-value was 152.062(p<.001) and explanation power was 49.5%. At the .05 significant level, sub-factors of self-determination which significantly influenced self-determination were cognitive domain(t=6.057, p<.001), affective domain(t=9.232, p<.001) and behavioral domain(t=3.009, p<.005) and relative contribution by standardization coefficients was in order of affective, cognitive and behavioral domain.

As results of self-directed learning ability’s contribution to career maturity and statistical significance tests, F-value was 76.125(p<.001) and explanation power was 32.9%. At the .05 significant level, sub-factors of self-determination which significantly influenced self-determination were cognitive domain(t=2.727, p<.001), affective domain(t=7.858, p<.001) and behavioral domain(t=2.259, p<.05) and
relative contribution by standardization coefficients was in order of affective, cognitive and behavioral domain.

5. Conclusion

In order to clarify effects of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity among students in the department of security services, this study analyzed, firstly, differences among self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity by each demographic characteristic, secondly, effects of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity.

First, as results of difference analysis on self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity by each demographic characteristic, mostly there was no significant difference, however, behavioral domain by gender was higher among females than males and compromise was significantly higher among females than males. Cognitive, affective, behavioral domain and competence by grade were significantly higher among those scored higher than those scored lower.

Second, as results of effect analysis of self-directed learning ability on self-determination and career maturity, it appeared that self-directed learning ability positively influences on self-determination and career maturity. Sub-factors of self-directed learning ability, cognitive domain(.185), affective domain(.273) and behavioral domain(.96) all positively influence on self-determination. Also, it appeared that sub-factors of self-directed learning ability, cognitive domain(.109), affective domain(.305), behavioral domain(.095) all positively influence on self-determination.

Consequently, through improving self-directed learning ability which enables security services students to take the initiative in their learning, set and conduct learning objectives and strategies and evaluate learning outcomes, they can solve the problems related to college maladjustment and career issues since it can positively influence on their thoughts, behaviors and career issues.

Table 1. Difference analysis on self-directed learning ability, self-determination and career maturity by each demographic characteristic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.367</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.397</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive domain</td>
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<td>.031</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>6.057</td>
<td>.001</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective domain</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>9.232</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Behavioral domain</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>3.009</td>
<td>.003</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$R^2 = .495$, F-value = 152.062*** (sig = .001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.883</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.119</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career maturity</td>
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<td>.040</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>2.727</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.024</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$R^2 = .329$, F-value = 76.125*** (sig = .001)
6. References

6.1. Journal articles


6.2. Thesis degree


6.3. Books


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Abstract

In the 21st century, the importance and necessity of neuroscience have been on the rise as a great deal of brain mechanism, which is a mutual interest in various fields including psychology, medicine, engineering and etc., has been brought to light. Accordingly, we can see that the specific studies are closely related to the field of security when it comes to identification of Security Crisis factor and etc. However, despite the accelerated advancement of today’s neuroscience and its long continued researches and accumulated experiences as well as the application of the Sixth Sense to identify security crisis factors, there have not been sufficient scientific grounds to support its existence.

Hereupon, in this research, scientific grounds to the application of the sixth sense in identifying security crisis factors are provided through three research questions hoping that it would help security agencies to be better prepared and ready for this regards.

The following are the three research questions: First, How much is known about the sixth sense and how much of it is actually accepted in the real world security scenes? Second, Can the sixth sense be thought of as a scientific phenomenon? Third, What is the limitation of the sixth sense as a tool to identify security crisis factors and what is the course of action to support the limitation?

The following studies were reviewed as scientific grounds: Joshua Brown and his research team, Study on ‘Preemptive Early Warning towards Risks’, Washington University(2005), Steven Bennett and his research team, Study on ‘Detection and Recognition of Explosives’, US Army Research Laboratory(2009).

As a result, considering the current status of security environment where a lot of crisis factors have to be detected, blocked, and prevented from a number of people within a limited time, the importance of intuitive decision-making ability and its development was revealed.

With regards to the above, even thought it was proven by the state-of-the-art neuroscience, since this alone cannot be concluded as a sufficient evidence for the identification of security crisis factor due to the limitation of its application in the security field, I would like to provide an alternative of combining various security equipment such as MDs(walk through metal detectors), X-ray scanners, and searching questions that utilizes information knowledge of security events. Then, I would like to put forward that the most important elements of the ultimate goal of security are transcendental and above the law liability for the absolute safety of security recipients.

[Keywords] Crime, Security, Neuroscience, Bodily Response, The Sixth Sense

1. Introduction

It has been only 100 years since scientist started to look into the structure of brains. Sigmund Freud(1856~1939), who founded psychoanalysis in the 1890s, said “We have yet to understand the direct measure to inspect unconscious mental processes.” What it means here is, due to the fact that these research methods were all thought of as indirect measures or ‘unconscious areas that we have but do not understand’, the research on
the pre-emptive identification clues of security crisis factors including the sixth sense has left much to be desired. Especially, the sixth sense, the clue to identify security crisis factors, puts more importance on the phases of finding out signs of abnormalities rather than seeing through the elements that penetrate the suspicious behavioral symptoms. As we can see, there has been tremendous interests towards preventative security measures in the field; however, those measures could not but be applied to a limited extent.

However, due to the development of brain imaging technique fueled by the most recent cutting-edge technology, we can now understand how an individual think, decide, and perceive by scanning the brain activity with the help of fMRI(functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging). We can also see that researches in the field of psychology are also moving towards the same direction with the cutting-edge technology.

Especially, considering the current status of security environment where a great deal of crisis factors have to be detected, blocked, and prevented from a number of people within a limited time, it is my belief that the importance of intuitive decision making ability and its development would gain more emphasis. Furthermore, keeping pace with the increasing demand that security operation and its style should seek changes due to not only the existing focus on external threats but also the threats by security recipients themselves, it is expected that there will be a number of changes to security personnel training[1].

Therefore, in this research, related preceding researches will be reviewed to see if these research results can be applied to the scene of security events, and see if applicable security techniques can be created. And then, by checking usefulness and limitation of identification clues of security crisis factors utilizing the sixth sense, I hope that it would help related security agencies to be better prepared and ready for this regards.

2. Research Questions

- How much is known about the sixth sense and how much of it is actually accepted in the real world security scenes?
- Can the sixth sense be thought of as a scientific phenomenon?
- What is the limitation of the sixth sense as a tool to identify security crisis factors and what is the course of action to support the limitation?

3. Theoretical Consideration of the Research

3.1. How much is known about the sixth sense and how much of it is actually accepted in the real world security scenes?

The sixth sense has long been categorized as Extra Sensory Perception(ESP) in psychology, and intuition, premonition, inspiration, and supernatural power have been studied, in the extension of thinking and reasoning, as mental processes[2] that intuitively identify the truth of events without relying on analytical thinking. In the recent years, medias and some sources refer to it as an ‘insight’ that combines the five senses with the sixth.

The recognition of supernatural powers has existed since the ancient times, and he ancient records hold descriptions about the capabilities of psychic media, who were able to communicate with gods, ancestors, spirits, and such. Since the beginning of 19th century, modern studies started looking at the sixth sense as a spiritual phenomena[3].

After the 2nd World War, special abilities of animals were studied in the United States, and some reports also revealed that there were such studies on human subjects between the end of 1970s and the early 1990s. Since the middle of 1970s, Korean medias started covering the stories about the ‘supernatural powers’, and these powers were thought of as occult powers or merely the abilities that exceeded the limits of an average person. It was also claimed that those powers could be attained through mental
trainings such as Zen meditation and auto-hypnosis and etc.

The reason why the sixth sense and the supernatural power are studied together is not only because no research paper has been found to only deal with the sixth sense itself, but also because ‘the sixth sense,’ the ability necessarily demanded on the scene of security to perceive crisis in advance, and ‘the aura’, the aspects of others observed by medical intuitive. Especially, the reason why the neuroscience is studied alongside is because the latest cutting-edge medical technologies, including the functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging which enables neuroscientists to scan human brain activities, are starting to provide the scientific grounds that lacked in the past years.

When people talk about the sixth sense, it is typical that the sixth sense is referred to as ‘a groundless thought that seems probable’, based on the experience of steering clear of a big accident thanks to an inexplicable ominous hunch. I would like people to reflect on their own situations if there is anyone who is nodding to this point. This is because I think if there was anyone reading this thesis, he or she might be wanting to become a security expert. Accordingly, the truth is that, in the recent years, neuroscientists are trying out a number of ways to prove the existence of the sixth sense.

Given the fact provided hereupon, it is evident that there is a great deal of interest towards the on-scene security measures based on the sixth sense, while they are applied in a very restricted manner.

3.2. Can the sixth sense be thought of as a scientific phenomenon?

In the beginning of the development of neuroscience, it was explained that mankind, in need of fast decision-making skills for survival, evolved into ones that possessed highly developed Limbic System (the mammal brain) so-called emotional brain. Additionally, even though the Cerebrum Cortex (the human brain) so-called the rational brain was making decisions, the brain of mankind had to develop a unique mental process called Heuristic (the shortcut to decision making)² for the even faster decision-making process.

Later, we were able to see the related research results proving that the sixth sense, which has been considered rather abstract or groundless by some scientist, is actually embedded in a certain part of the human brain.

In 2005, with regards to the study on ‘pre-emptive early warning towards dangers’, after scanning brains of research subjects, professor Joshua Brown and his research team of Washington University found out that Anterior Cingulate Cortex (ACC) grows active to predict, decide, and control the ominous situation before it really occurs. That being the case, professor Brown and his team published a research paper arguing that ACC provides an early warning about a possible crisis, which gives rise to the sixth sense.

In 2008, as a result of the research carried out to subjects with complete visual impairment, Dr. Beatrice de Gelder, a neuroscientist at Massachusetts General Hospital, and his team discovered the ability to recognize an object without the use of visual organs. The team concluded that the part of the brain, where the visual information is processed, maintains some of its functions despite the complete visual impairment. It was claimed that the result provided the ground which explained that even the unconscious sensation like the sixth sense is a part of the functions of a brain[7].

In 2008, Dr. Mischa Prishorne and her team of University of London carried out an experiment where 20 test subjects we shown, without any prior introductions, three abstract patterns each depicting a certain symbol, and they were asked to pick one guided by the sixth sense to find out if they won, lost,

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¹ Supernatural powers are referred to as ‘spiritual phenomenon’ or ‘parapsychology’, and typical types of these phenomena are second sight, out-of-body experience, clairvoyance, clairaudience, telepathy, foreshift, retro-recognition, the sixth sense, aura, medical intuition, psychometry, psychic, xenoglossy, telekinetic power, and etc[4].

² Heuristic is thought of as a mental shortcut of economic information process measure that makes fast judgments and decisions[5]. Heuristic is listed as available heuristic, representative heuristic, fixed and adjusted heuristic, and etc[6].
or forfeited their betting. Surprisingly, the result of the experiment showed that the odds of winning the betting increased as time passed. Through the fMRI scanning of the test subjects’ brain during the course of this experiment, the research team found out that Striatum of human brain becomes activated during an unconscious decision making process. Striatum is known to react to positive rewards such as food, fortune, fame, and sexual pleasure, and it is also the part secreting dopamine, the neurotransmitter a.k.a. the narcotic produced by brain itself. This proved that choosing to do something to which one’s mind is inclined might be the most scientific choice in that the unconscious mind naturally directs one to make better choices.

In 2009, Dr. Steven Bennett and his team of the US Army Research Laboratory carried out a 2-year long research to about 800 military personnel with real world battle experience on Detection and Recognition of Explosives, and the team found out that the sixth sense played a key role in effectively detecting explosives and evading urgent situations. This result shows that the sixth sense, which is triggered by the stress hormone \(^3\) profusely produced by the urgent situations, plays a key role in saving one’s life on the battle field, and it is as good an important function as the real world battle experiences and battle training.

Furthermore, these researches disproved the preceding belief, which claimed that ACC, Striatum, and Diencephalon become active only after a certain negative situation, and showed that our brain can not only detect a negative situation prior to its occurrence but also warn the urgency.

These research results provide ground to James-Lange Theory of Emotion(1884), which stated that “our emotions are caused by our interpretation of bodily reactions.” The theory suggested that it was time to think that “crying and laughing precedes the feeling of sorrow and happiness” rather than otherwise.

According to the professor Brown’s research above-mentioned, the sixth sense is embedded in the part known as ACC where conflicting situations are dealt with, and it provides an early warning to a possible crisis. Human brain still has much to be desired in a scientific way, yet the research results claiming that accumulated experiences can lead to predictable decision making can be considered scientific. In addition, considering the current status of security environment where a great deal of crisis factors have to be detected, blocked, and prevented from a number of people within a limited time, these results best describes the importance of intuitive decision making ability and its development.

As it was discussed above, even thought it was proven by the cutting-edge technologies, it cannot be concluded as a sufficient evidence for the identification of security crisis factors. Errors can be found anytime in that scientific evidence usually incorporates flawless accuracy; therefore, especially a security event that has to do with human rights requires scrupulous attention to detail. Besides, the effort to increase the on-scene application of the sixth sense remains a perpetual task that the ultimate goal of securing the absolute safety of security recipients holds.

4. Conclusion and Proposal

4.1. Conclusions

4.1.1. What is the limitation of the sixth sense as a tool to identify security crisis factors and what is the course of action to support the limitation?

Based on this research, in order to identify security crisis factors, we can provide the ground of intuitive decision making by both

\(^3\) Our body has to make energy to fight off a threatening situation such as stress. Certain threats make the sympathetic nerve to get active, and the adrenal cortex produces natural steroid hormones that actually control the secretion of Cortisol in paraventricular nucleus of hypothalamus, which consist of diencephalon[8]. Secreted Cortisol hormones send electrical signals to each body organs to pump out more blood so that the body can stand against external stimuli as stress. This cause all sensory organs to become sensitive while making the heart rate and breathing speed up, the muscle get tensed, and the mentality become clear to make fast and accurate circumstantial judgment [9].
identifying preconscious and unconscious bodily responses of Limbic System (the mammal’s brain) and Brain Stem (the reptile’s brain), and un-natural conscious bodily expressions of Cerebrum Cortex (rational brain). Perceptible preconscious⁴ and unconscious responses are respiration strength, iris and eye movements including temporary pupillary reflex, heartbeat, perspiration, flush reaction, and muscle tremors including facial asymmetry and wrinkles. Un-natural conscious expressions are pseudo, slip of the tongue, and the gap between verbal (turn to the left) and non-verbal language (pointing to the right). Through the observation of un-natural symptoms⁵ arising from the momentary conflicts among preconscious and unconscious bodily reflexes, harmful purpose that the assailant is consciously trying to hide can be identified to make first deterrence and isolation against the security crisis factors. After the isolation, the security mission can be perfected by performing conscious searching questions ⁶ along with utilizing security equipments such as MDs (walk through metal detectors), X-ray scanners and etc.

To conclude, the sixth sense is developed by the crisis awareness and critical interests that are built upon the foundation of various on-scene experiences.

Recent research results derived from the brain scanning technology showed that a part of our brain called Inferior Parietal Cortex (IPC) deactivates when we sense that someone is staring at us, that is, people cannot control their own senses once they sense the evaluator’s attention. When we reflect on this fact based upon ‘the theory of Action-Observation Network’, we can say that a security service agent’s selective gaze on crisis factors alone could have preventative effect. We can also understand that the importance of analyzing un-natural verbal and non-verbal behaviors outweighs the importance of ex post facto response techniques. Selecting and observing individuals of un-natural words and deeds, among the participants at a security event, have preventative effect that preemptively deters terrorists’ intents.

We can also understand that the field of security is a consilience of studies incorporating the study of security, psychology, and neuroscience.

If there is someone who would like to be a professional in the field of security, not to end up being a regrettable part of a historic

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⁴ Perspiration on the forehead, having dry coughs and swallowing for dry mouth, having faster heart beat and breathing, reddened nose tip are the physiological discomforts observed when the limbic system is on alert due to the following examples: when the given situation is not satisfactory, when seeing or hearing undesirable things, when forced into confessing uncomfortable truth. In this case, even if the brain tells someone to lie, the truthful emotional brain, the limbic system, doesn’t get tricked by the deception[10].

⁵ Acknowledging the limitation of psychological studies, which cannot surely conclude that someone is deceitful solely based on the fact that the observed conditions meet the standards, the term ‘symptom’ is used instead of ‘evidence’. Also symptoms include responses to both normality and abnormality. However, there shouldn’t be any misunderstanding to this, since these symptoms hold critical information that leads to preventing security crisis factors in advance[11].

⁶ Considering the fact that assailant’s psychological factors consist of immeasurable abstract concepts, searching question technique utilizes indirect searching questioning to produce quantifiable data out of behaviors that are considered related to the assailant’s mentality. These searching question technique is a process of security profiling technique designed to predict assailant’s behavior. Searching questions also differ from rapport building in consulting techniques and close questioning for criminal charges in interrogation techniques. Security personnel use event related searching questions to check the eligibility of participants. Searching question is an analytical technique where security personnel utilize Closed-Ended Questions as a medium to comprehensively observe the verbal and non-verbal languages beyond the meaning of superficial language. Through visual and perceptive observations, security personnel can collect objective information from suspicious participants. The first phase of searching questions designed to identify the truthfulness of respondents is the most important, and the following are the things to identify during the procedure: how uneasy the respondents feel after being questioned about their relations and knowledge to the event, how earnest, sincere, and truthful the respondents are about their replies, and if a respondent is intentionally being insincere. Security personnel can isolate a suspicious person and follow up the search with countermeasures, clarifications, and leading questions if the respondent shows the following signs: providing answers regardless of the event, denying to give answers, repeating searching questions or provide too much detail, occasionally mentioning religion in an excessively polite manner, showing unnecessarily defensive attitude and sensitive response to questions. It is to be noted that using unrestrained words and deeds or coming down too hard on the suspect could lead the whole situation towards unreasonable direction [12].
scene, he or she should be able to take advantage of professional knowledge on assailants, security recipients, and human psychology.

5. References

5.1. Journal articles


5.2. Thesis degree


5.3. Books


5.4. Addition references

Utility of Using Private Security for Protecting Whistleblowers Who Report CRIME from Harm

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Abstract

Today, there are many different types of crime taking place, many of which sophisticated, with our changing society. Conducting public safety activities for keeping public peace and order has once been considered an exclusive area of duty for the police, but the police, with their limited manpower, cannot handle tasks like protecting those who report crime from harm and other related tasks, given that the existing laws exclusively use the police force for this work, when they are heavily understaffed for the job. Hence, it is realistically difficult for the police to constantly protect these whistle-blowers who have reported crime especially on any ongoing basis and we have come to a point where the reality of the situation must be faced.

This study examined the practical feasibility for private security to be used to effectively protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm in a collaborative relationship with the police, and it looked at areas that could be improved to better keep these whistle-blowers safe from harm. To that end, we conducted a qualitative study based on grounded theory, gathered data, and examined and analyzed the phenomenon. As a result, we came up with recommended policy measures and attempted to tie them with the utility of using private security. This study reached the following conclusions on the utility of using private security to achieve the goal of protecting the society and to substantially protect whistle-blowers who report crime in a supporting role to the police.

First, legislation in South Korea related to protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm is considerably poor and any changes made are not systematic enough. Laws on steps to protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm should be aligned with the goal of better public safety and welfare, and therefore they should aim to serve these whistle-blowers who report crime.

Second, it certainly must be inadequate to try to use only the police force to take the steps to protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm. Therefore, private security must be utilized in a supporting role with the police. At the basic level, security services provided by the police simultaneously target all of the whistle-blowers of a country, and there are no differentiating levels between the services provided. Therefore, using private security to fill that gap in particular providing services for protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm has sufficient merit of consideration from a national policy perspective given the police would be too understaffed to handle this task adequately by itself.

Third, with a recent expansion of its role, private security is performing its function in an assistant role in maintaining public peace and order, when it used to be that it only handled private security matters. Given ongoing guidance, supervision and systematic management by the administrative agency to help utilize private security in a supplementary role in protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm, substantial and efficient provision of services to maintain public peace and order would be possible as private security and public security work together in a kind of symbiotic relationship.

[Keywords] Criminal, Security, Private Security, Protecting, Whistleblowers
1. Introduction

According to the Korea Development Institute, crime in South Korea has been on a rising path rather than a declining one, and compared to other OECD countries, South Korea has an above average incidence rate of crime[1]. Whistle-blowers who report crime may be a witness to a crime, who could serve as an important evidence. Moreover, these whistle-blowers are vulnerable not only during criminal investigations but during criminal procedure as well. There is a very high likelihood that they would be targeted in a retaliatory crime.

The police, as an investigative agency, is primarily responsible for preventing crime and responding to crime when it happens and making arrests. Considering this fact, with the increasing number of crimes happening they would be extremely overworked if they were to handle protecting those who report crime as well, although doing that would be quite relevant to crime prevention. That is just the reality of the situation, with the limited manpower with the police force.

The police and the private security are fundamentally responsible for preventing crime, reducing the number of crimes, and maintaining public order. From that respect, the police and the private security share the same goal. The only differences between them are who they deal with in their job, some specific differences in their primary role, and whether their organization is part of the government or it is a company. When it comes to protecting the public from physical harm, keeping their property safe and maintaining the social order, the two organizations are largely the same[2].

The police force cannot be beefed up forever to meet the continually increasing demands for public safety there has to be a limit[3]. The police needs to recognize their inherent limitations in their resources and get private security more actively involved in handling some of their tasks, so that the public’s desire for safety is better met. That would be the right course of action. In the modern society, as with the privatization of other public sectors, the participation of private security in matters of public safety has become virtually necessary, with practical limitations with public security. Public security and private security can never be completely separated nor are they in conflict with each other, but they are both growing in a symbiotic relationship through mutual cooperation[4]. This study examined the practical feasibility for private security to be used to effectively protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm in a collaborative relationship with the police, and it looked at areas that could be improved to better keep these whistle-blowers safe from harm. To that end, we conducted a qualitative study based on grounded theory, gathered data, and examined and analyzed the phenomenon. As a result, we came up with recommended policy measures and attempted to tie them with the utility of using private security[5]. Hence we examined the utility of using private security as an alternative means for keeping whistle-blowers who report crime safe from harm.

2. Theoretical Background

In the past, private security in South Korea was limited to protecting property and lives from crime but today, private security is expanding into many different areas including property protection, security services, entry control, environmental design, biometrics monitoring, and cyber security[6]. Private security is no longer just something that is in direct contrast with public security, but it plays a role in securing public safety for the country as it carries out private security tasks which have effects of preventing crime, maintaining order, and reducing crime. Therefore, today private security plays a supplementary role to public security, in a symbiotic relationship[7]. Private security is helping the police with responding to the rising crimes by providing the necessary manpower that they lack. At the same time, local communities want public safety now more than ever and have recognized the role private security could play in that regard[8].
Private security has been playing a supplementary role to ensuring public safety thus far but it would be better if some of the power and authority of public security is transferred over to private security. Given the focus is put on the policy objective of protecting those who report crime from harm, coming with the right institutional design could be easier than one might think[9].

“Protection Act for Reporters of Special Crimes,” enacted on August 31, 1999, and which went into effect on June 1, 2000 specifies how those who report crime should be protected from harm. However, since not all of the individuals who report crime can be protected due to practical limitations, only those who report “special crimes” are protected under the Act. The specific measures of protection are specified in Article 13 of the Act, so that the public can relax and cooperate in the criminal procedure. In Clause 1 of Article 13, it states that the prosecutor or the police chief responsible for the jurisdiction can take appropriate steps (measure to ensure the person’s safety from harm) to protect the person (or their relatives) who reported the crime for a specific period of time during which there is an especial concern for their safety from a retaliatory crime. The police chief has to immediately take those steps after getting a request, as long as there are no special reasons for not doing so. The presiding judge can make that request to the prosecutor even as preparations are being made for the trial or even during the trial. When the police chief has taken steps to protect the person who reported the crime from harm, the prosecutor must be notified in accordance with the presidential decree, which also specifies what those steps must be constituted of.

It appears that the purpose of the laws and regulations on whistle-blowers who report crime is to obtain evidence for the investigative agency, using them as witnesses and getting them to testify. In other words, these laws and regulations only focus on getting these whistle-blowers who report crime to cooperate with the investigative agency. Therefore, there are only negative outcomes with these laws and regulations where the protection of these whistle-blowers who report crime is concerned, and testifying, evading, suing, and evading getting used would be what it would be about[10]. Reporting of a crime is very important when it comes to getting clues to the investigation, and it plays a key role in determining the suspect’s whereabouts[11]. Whistle-blowers who report crime are an essential witness who must voluntarily cooperate with the police and the prosecutor in order to testify the truth, and they must be protected from harm as according to Acts like “Protection Act for Reporters of Special Crimes.”

3. Crisis Theories

In this study, in order to identify and present problems with the steps to protect those who report crime currently in place, the following was done. First, the current steps to protect those who report crime were analyzed based on gathered data, and second, an interview was conducted with the study participants and an in-depth analysis of the interview results was performed. The major findings of this study, after a literature review, are as follows.

First, the “Protection Act for Reporters of Special Crimes,” a framework Act for protecting whistle-blowers who report crime, is limited to “special crimes” as per its namesake, and in accordance with Article 3 of the Act which lays out the scope of application, the person who reported the crime and their relatives are protected only for specific types of crimes, when they are at risk of retaliatory attacks. This means that only a portion of those who report crime can be protected by this Act.

The purpose of the “Protection Act for Reporters of Special Crimes” was to get whistle-blowers to report a crime and not fear retaliatory attacks, to systematically protect the witness during a criminal procedure, to offer them substantial protection in exchange for their voluntary cooperation, and as a means of protecting from harm the society at large. However, it does not seem likely that it would be nothing more than half-baked steps taken to protect those who report crime. The steps taken to protect those who report crime from
harm must be for the sake of these whistle-blowers, and when they are requested to testify in court, whether or not their lives would be put in any potential risk must be judged and their safety must be protected for as long as it is needed[12].

Second, with the laws on those who report crime as a kind of a side matter of the laws on victims of a crime, those who report the crime are not given enough attention. The police is running a “police officers dedicated to victim support” program and improved the “work guidelines for police officers dedicated to victim support” on June 29, 2015, laying out the major reasonabilities and specific steps for different categories. However, there is no “police officers dedicated to whistle-blowers who report crime” program, nor any guidelines regarding that. This speaks to the limitations of the supposed steps to protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm. Given the reality that whistle-blowers who report crime are at risk of harm from retaliatory attacks, the fact that there are no dedicated departments or personnel for this may lead to yet another crime in the form of a retaliatory attack. With no dedicated departments or personnel, the so-called steps to ensure safety of whistle-blowers who report crime may lack any substance.

Third, the police is chiefly responsible for the protection of whistle-blowers who report crime as indicated in the laws pertaining to these whistle-blowers as well as those who report specific kinds of crimes but the reality of the situation is that the police is too understaffed to perform this function adequately. The steps to ensure the safety of the person who has reported the crime are taken by the prosecutor or the police, and the police chief has to notify the prosecutor if he decides to take those steps but the prosecutor does not have any obligation to notify the judge about it. Also, even if the presiding judge instructs the prosecutor to take steps to protect the person who reported the crime, the specific obligations of the prosecutor are not prescribed. All domestic laws pertaining to whistle-blowers who report special types of crime or to whistle-blowers who report crime are focused on using the police force, when the reality of the situation of that they are severely understaffed to perform this function adequately.

4. Conclusion

This study examined how private security could be utilized for various types of public safety functions and the need for doing that, and it looked at utilizing private security as an alternative means for handling the task of protecting whistle-blowers who report crime in a collaborative partnership with the police. This study reached the following conclusions on the utility of using private security to achieve the goal of protecting the society and to substantially protect whistle-blowers who report crime in a supporting role to the police.

First, legislation in South Korea related to protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm is considerably poor and any changes made are not systematic enough. Laws on steps to protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm should be aligned with the goal of better public safety and welfare, and therefore they should aim to serve these whistle-blowers who report crime.

Second, it certainly must be inadequate to try to use only the police force to take the steps to protect whistle-blowers who report crime from harm. Therefore, private security must be utilized in a supporting role with the police. At the basic level, security services provided by the police simultaneously target all of the whistle-blowers of a country, and there are no differentiating levels between the services provided. Therefore, using private security to fill that gap in particular providing services for protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm has sufficient merit of consideration from a national policy perspective given the police would be too understaffed to handle this task adequately by itself.

Third, with a recent expansion of its role, private security is performing its function in an assistant role in maintaining public peace and order, when it used to be that it only handled private security matters. Given ongoing
guidance, supervision and systematic management by the administrative agency to help utilize private security in a supplementary role in protecting whistle-blowers who report crime from harm, substantial and efficient provision of services to maintain public peace and order would be possible as private security and public security work together in a kind of symbiotic relationship.

5. References

5.1. Journal articles


5.2. Thesis degree


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Abstract

In most cases, private security companies are operated by large companies in South Korea, which leads to competition among small companies rather than the private security companies of large companies. And it is true that a vicious circle has been repeated in which inefficient work system and high turnover due to the minimum-level wage, limited opportunities for promotion, and insufficient education & training result in the lack of expertise in most private security guards. As a result, the importance of private security guards’ vocational ethics as well as their expertise is perceived more than ever.

This study investigated the effects of private security guards’ vocational ethics on their job attitudes and job involvement. A questionnaire survey using the self-administration method was carried out, with private security guards belonging to private security companies in Daegu and Gyeongsangbuk-do as the subjects. And data from a total of 221 subjects were used in the final analysis, using cluster sampling among non-probability sampling. As for the data analysis of this study, frequency analysis, factor analysis, reliability analysis, cross tabulation analysis, t-test, F-test, correlation analysis, and multiple linear regression analysis were carried out, using the SPSS WIN 18.0 program. As a result, the following findings were derived.

First, in terms of socio-demographic characteristics of the private security guards, the subjects showed differences in vocational ethics according to marital status and turnover intention; showed differences in morality according to income and business area; and showed differences in diligence according to turnover experience. They showed differences in job attitude according income and turnover experience; and showed differences in job satisfaction according to income. They showed differences in identification according to income, continuous service year, and turnover experience; showed differences in organizational commitment according to income and turnover experience; and showed differences in work attitude according to turnover experience. They showed differences in job involvement according income and turnover experience; showed differences in identity according to income and turnover experience; and showed statistically significant differences in consciousness of participation according income and turnover experience.

Second, it was found that there were high positive correlations among private security guard’s vocational ethics, job attitude and job involvement. Vocational ethics showed a high correlation with job attitude, and job attitude and job involvement showed a high correlation with each other.

Third, it was found that private security guard’s morality and diligence had significant effects on job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, and work attitude. And morality and diligence were found to have significant effects on consciousness of participation and identity.

Fourth, it was found that private security guard’s job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, and work attitude had significant effects on job involvement, and that work attitude, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment had significant effects on consciousness of participation.

[Keywords] Criminal, Private Security Guards, Vocational Ethics, Job Attitude, Job Immersion
1. Introduction

Contrary to a high standard of living maintained by the rapid growth rate of international economy owing to activated international exchange in these days, violent crimes resulting from the gap between the rich and the poor are emerging as a serious problem of the contemporary society.

The increase of such crimes aggravates ordinary citizens’ anxiety about safety; the actualy, however, is that the police force has reached their limit in satisfying their security needs. In addition, as ordinary citizens increasingly attach importance to their own safety, private security has naturally emerged as an alternative that takes charge of the function of a social security network[1].

It is virtually impossible to present accurate guidelines on vocational ethics for every behavior, for vocational ethics is invisible and is naturally implemented while performing private security affairs[2].

Recently in many countries, there has been a lot of interest Japan has installed a department of major in colleges to cultivate[1] Recently in many countries.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Private security

The private security is a concept contrary to the public security, and refers to individuals, organizations, and for-profit enterprises that conduct security activities for the protection of an individual’s interest or life from various harm in return for pay from the specific customer[3].

2.2. Vocational ethics

Vocational ethics is ethics applied to special social situation, that is, vocational life, and is related to vocational conscience and social norms required of workers in society[4].

2.3. Job attitude

There are several attitudes taken by employees in private security industry; the most important one among them is the attitude towards one’s own job or organization[5].

2.4. Job involvement

Job involvement is a concept distinguished from job satisfaction or organizational commitment, and refers to emotional condition formed by each member of organization in their own job context[6].

3. Previous Research

3.1. Vocational ethics

Kang & Kim(2011) investigated the effects of private security guards' unethical work ethics on their job attitude and job involvement[7]. Kang(2015) investigated employees in welfare facilities with respect to the effects of work ethics on their job commitment[8]. And Kim(2013) investigated employees in private security industry about the influence of their work ethics cognition on the organization's achievement[1].

3.2. Job attitude

As for previous studies on job attitude, Min(2014) investigated the influence of job embeddedness and job stress on the elementary school teachers' burnout mediated by job attitude[4]; Lee(2010) analyzed the relationship between new employees' consensus on job expectations and job attitudes[9]; Kwon(2011) investigated the influence of followership characteristics on organization leader-member exchange and job attitude among private security guards[10]; and Kang & Kim(2011) investigated the effects of private security guards’ unethical work ethics on their job attitude and customer service[7].

3.3. Job involvement

As for job involvement, Lee(2011) conducted research on the variables of job characteristics, job stress, and job commitment[11]; and Jo(2008) investigated the effects of ethical leadership on organizational commitment and job commitment[12].

4. Research Method
4.1. Subject of study

As for the subjects of this study, employees in private security industry were set as population; and as for the method for subject sampling, the subjects were selected by using cluster sampling among non-probability sampling.

4.2. Survey tool

Questionnaire items used to achieve the purpose of this study revolve around three factors of vocational ethics, job attitude, and job involvement. All the items were decided in a five-expert meeting consisting of relevant professors and doctorate holders. The expert meeting reviewed, discussed, and constructed the questionnaire items.

As for questions by questionnaire factor, occupational ethics consisted of morality and diligence, and job attitude consisted of job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, and work attitude.

Job involvement consisted of identity and consciousness of participation; and demographic characteristics were composed of gender, marital status, age, education level, income, position, duty, continuous service year, need for occupational ethics, and turnover experience. A total of 46 questions were constructed.

4.3. Survey method

The survey method to achieve the purpose of this study is as follows. The survey of this study was carried out with private security guards belonging to private security companies in Daegu and Gyeongsangbuk-do. Questionnaires were distributed to them on the date of survey, and the subjects were asked to fill in the questionnaire by self-administration method. The completed questionnaires were collected on the spot directly.

5. Research Results

5.1. Difference in vocational ethics, job attitude, and job involvement according to socio-demographical variables

In terms of socio-demographical characteristics, the subjects showed differences in vocational ethics according to marital status (t=2.045, p<.05) and turnover intention (t=2.518, p<.05); showed differences in morality according to income (F=3.240, p<.05) and business area (F=4.181, p<.05); and showed differences in diligence according to turnover experience (t=2.547, p<.05). They showed differences in job attitude according to income (F=7.299, p<.01) and turnover experience (t=2.498, p<.05); and showed differences in job satisfaction according to income (F=9.631, p<.001). They showed differences in identification according to income (F=6.330, p<.01), continuous service year (F=2.956, p<.05), and turnover experience (t=2.283, p<.05); and showed differences in organizational commitment according to income (F=5.039, p<.01) and turnover experience (t=2.836, p<.05); and showed differences in work attitude according to turnover experience (t=2.015, p<.05). And they showed differences in job involvement according to income (F=9.000, p<.001) and turnover experience (t=2.895, p<.05); showed differences in identity according to income (F=6.198, p<.01) and turnover experience (t=3.084, p<.05); and showed statistically significant differences according to income (F=10.389, p<.001) and turnover experience (t=3.084, p<.01).

5.2. The correlations among private security guards’ vocational ethics, job attitude, and job involvement

As a result of analyzing correlations among private security guards’ vocational ethics, job attitude, and job involvement, it was found that there were correlations (.330 - .947) among all the factors of morality, diligence, job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, work attitude, identity, consciousness of participation, vocational ethics, job attitude, and job involvement.

5.3. The effects of vocational ethics on job attitude

The test of goodness-of-fit shows a statistically significant regression relationship at the level of 0.1%, and the coefficient of determination (R2) is 0.388. Thus it can be seen
that approximately 38.8% of data variance can be explained by the regression model. In addition, it was found that morality(β=.288) and diligence(β=.427) among the sub-variables of vocational ethics are statistically significant.

5.4. The effects of vocational ethics on job involvement

Since the goodness-of-fit test of the regression model shows a statistically significant regression relationship at the level of 0.1%, and the coefficient of determination(R2) is 0.343, it can be seen that about 34.3% of data variance can be explained by the regression model. In addition, it was found that morality(β=.407) and diligence(β=.265) among the sub-variables of vocational ethics are statistically significant.

5.5. The effects of job attitude on job involvement

Since the goodness-of-fit test of the regression model shows a statistically significant regression relationship at the level of 0.1%, and the coefficient of determination(R2) is 0.779, it can be seen that about 77.9% of data variance can be explained by the regression model. In addition, it was found that the sub-variables of job attitude, that is, job satisfaction(β=.057), identification(β=.167), organizational commitment(β=.240), and work attitude(β=.293) are statistically significant.

6. Conclusion

First, in terms of socio-demographic characteristics of the private security guards, the subjects showed differences in vocational ethics according to marital status and turnover intention; showed differences in morality according to income and business area; and showed differences in diligence according to turnover experience. They showed differences in job attitude according income and turnover experience; and showed differences in job satisfaction according to income. They showed differences in identification according to income, continuous service year, and turnover experience; showed differences in organizational commitment according to income and turnover experience; and showed differences in work attitude according to turnover experience. They showed differences in job involvement according to income and turnover experience; showed differences in identity according to income and turnover experience; and showed statistically significant differences in consciousness of participation according to income and turnover experience.

Second, it was found that there were high positive(+) correlations among private security guard’s vocational ethics, job attitude and job involvement. Vocational ethics showed a high correlation with job attitude, and job attitude and job involvement showed a high correlation with each other.

Third, it was found that private security guard’s morality and diligence had significant effects on job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, and work attitude. And morality and diligence were found to have significant effects on consciousness of participation and identity.

Fourth, it was found that private security guard’s job satisfaction, identification, organizational commitment, and work attitude had significant effects on job involvement, and that work attitude, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment had significant effects on consciousness of participation.

| Table 1. The effects of vocational ethics on job attitude. |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| Variable    | B              | SE             | β              | t            | P-value       |
| (Constant)  | .673           | .241           | 2.791          | .006         | F=62.399      |
| Morality    | .296           | .066           | .288           | 4.479        | .000          |
| Diligence   | .377           | .057           | .427           | 6.629        | .000          |

R²=.388
(Constant) | .493 | .282 | 1.746 | .082 | F=51.502 (p<.001)  
Morality | .473 | .077 | .407 | 6.107 | .000  
Diligence | .265 | .067 | .265 | 3.971 | .000  
(Constant) | .115 | .127 | .910 | .364 | F=172.303 (p<.001)  
Job satisfaction | .298 | .057 | .304 | 5.206 | .000  
Identification | .165 | .051 | .167 | 3.226 | .001  
Organizational commitment | .227 | .049 | .240 | 4.664 | .000  
Work attitude | .308 | .057 | .293 | 5.432 | .000  

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7. References

7.1. Journal articles


7.2. Thesis degree


7.3. Books

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