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**KOREAN STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE
AND POLICE RELATIONS WITH THE COMMUNITY
IN THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA**

By

Sung-Tae Yoon

A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

KOREAN STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND POLICE RELATIONS WITH THE COMMUNITY IN THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

BY

Sung-Tae Yoon

This study employed a self-administered survey questionnaire that examined 650 male high school students' and 500 university students' attitudes toward the police in Seoul, Korea. The study compared the relationship of five categorized factors (community-related, political, crime-related, police-related, and cultural-ideological factors) with cooperative attitudes of the students toward the police. The attitudes of the Korean students were compared with research findings conducted in the United States on the attitudes of American and Japanese students on factors affecting the police-community interactions in their countries, and compared with other independent variables.

Chapter 1 details the purpose of this study and the definitions of major variables. Chapter 2 deals with police-community interactions strategy, the factors affecting police-community interactions, and the description and analyses of Korean society and police. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and procedure. In chapter 4, the results of analyses will be presented. Chapter 5 includes some findings, implications and recommendations.

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To my mother, Kab-Soon Kim

All living things look hopefully to you
and you give them food when they need it.
You give them enough and satisfy the needs of all.

(Psalm 145:15, 16)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to extend many thanks to the many individuals without whom I could not have completed this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem

The National Korean police, founded on October 21, 1945, with the restoration of the national independence from the Japanese rule, has gone through many trials and ordeals to maintain public peace and order, to protect the lives and property of people, and democratic life of the people. The police organizations, which belong to the Ministry of Home Affairs, is a government organ operated on a linear command system, comprising 13 nation-wide Police Bureaus in large cities and provinces, 208 Police Stations and 3,313 Police Substations and Detachments based on 1991 figures. The Korean police has made great strides in the achievement of duties as a vanguard for our national integrity through the thorny path, enduring not only Korean War and the chaotic years caused by the ideological conflicts of the early period of the Republic, but also all the hardships and obstacles attributable to the territorial and national division.

Nevertheless, due to various reasons -- historical background, political environment, changing social structure and values, and organizational and operational problems -- the Korean police forces have had trouble maintaining a good relationship with the community. In spite of the many obstacles, there is no doubt that the Korean police have made real efforts to positively develop a good police organization

and to improve their relationship with the public. However, most people do not seem to agree that police are doing a good job. The Korean police is kept at a respectful distance and distrusted by the citizens in Korea.

To fulfill the police objects, the police puts restrictions upon natural freedom of citizens, exercises a command, resorts to excessive measures. On account of this basic character of the police, it is generally recognized that the exercise of police power means reign itself. The exercise of police power has often come into conflict with citizens and caused them to have distrust, complaint and hostility against the police. Tensions and conflict stem from the discrepancy between the community's expectations and perception of the police role and police values and attitudes of their job. Therefore, to obtain full community agreement, it must be emphasized that the police should understand and keep pace with social change so they can adjust to a changing society and meet the varying demands of the community.

With the rapid change of circumstances, many tasks to be solved are increasing. There are many problems following the sudden increasing of police administration, the strengthening of peace, the improvement of police organization, and the settlement of the police as a professional and service occupation, and so on. Among them, the most urgent problem is to improve such a negative citizen's attitude and make the police system of service, justice and truth.

To accomplish protecting the society from crime, a good relationship with the public is essential, for without the cooperation of the community, the police can not function effectively. Police can not exist without the community and that the community can not exist without duties performed by the police. The part of the ability of the police to better assess their performance and their role in the community lies in understanding, or at least accurately perceiving, the public's attitudes toward police behaviors.

Police-community interactions (PCI) are one of the most critical social concerns in the United States and elsewhere. It has been often said by scholars that interactions are socioeconomic, political, cultural, and personal elements in a society. The structural pattern of PCI in a country is generally produced through the interplay among the cultural, social, economic, and political factors of a nation. PCI tends to be different according to such factors as the character of national government, the political ideology, or the degree of national development (Radelet, 1986:3).

Many studies have been made dealing with various factors associated with close PCI in the United States. Radelet notes that police officers in their attitudes and values tend to mirror the socioeconomic, cultural, ethnic, occupational, and educational characteristics of the strata of society in which they are raised (p. 6). Socioeconomic, political, and cultural factors determine the range, content and context of

encounters between the police and the citizens and the latter's perceptions of the processes and consequences involved. A broad web of interconnections, therefore, exists between perceptions of the police, support for the police work and attribution of legitimacy to the law enforcement and criminal justice system in a society (Alemika, 1987:15).

The degree of community involvement on policing or the willingness of the public to cooperate with police, also varies with such factors as political condition, cultural heritage, and the policing organization. Several scholars in the field of cross-cultural police studies consider cultural and traditional factors critical in explaining police-community interactions (Bayley, 1976; Becker, 1988; Bracey, 1989). In a close-knit society, social cohesion, generated from the tradition and culture can facilitate social control mechanisms. Bayley concludes that cultural and traditional factors may be much more important in explaining police work than structural elements.

From a criminal justice perspective, interactions between societal cohesion and these cultural organizations may result in both a low crime rate and successful police system. Many other studies also point out close PCI as one of the most important factors in maintaining a low crime rate. They seem to imply that a low crime rate or intimate PCI may not be distinct phenomena in a society, but a reflection of it.

✓ Adler (1983) found that low crime rate nations have strong

informal social control mechanisms outside the formal criminal justice system. These informal social control mechanisms are especially effective in maintaining, preserving, and transmitting shared values (Adler, 1983:133). Therefore, the question of what factors are related to the attitudes or willingness of the public to cooperate with the police is critical in a cross-cultural perspective. We may learn from other people about the importance of, and the variables associated with, close PCI as it affects the goals of effective law enforcement.

Police-community relations strategy (PCR) was the first comprehensive effort which attempted to resolve the endemic issues inherent in community alliance. The PCR Movement recognized that disequilibrium existed between the police and the community, and it developed programmatic strategies to address this dissonance. At the outset, PCR was largely one-sided -- its focus was predominantly on changing the community view of the police and to make citizens more supportive and understanding of the police actions (President's Commission, 1967). One of the fundamental problems in PCR is consensus on the proper role of the PCR in contemporary society. As the movement matured, the focus on PCR became somewhat more reciprocal. Despite the intent, PCR appeared to have become a veneer for police inadequacies -- a predominantly reactive method to deal with problems (Carter, 1988).

The reform of PCR was a successful strategy of police

during the relatively stable period of the 1940's and 1950's. The social change of the 1960's and 1970's, however, created unstable conditions.

As police administrators face serious fiscal stress, increasing crime rates, and decreasing public support, they've come to realize they must begin to work smarter. Community Policing (CP) seems to be regarded as a possible solution to the problems of policing in many countries including the United States (Manning, 1989:404). / Scholars in the area of CP like Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) define CP as "a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay (1990:5)." They emphasize the importance of the responsibility of the community in effective policing. CP views police responsibilities in the aggregate, examining consistent problems, determining underlying causes of the problems, and developing solutions to those problems (Trojanowicz and Carter, 1988).

The key to CP is how to make the public play a more active and coordinated role in maintaining order and enhancing its own safety. On the other hand, CP is also a police response to the new demands of the public for personalization of their service (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990:406). It may be said that it is a product created in the process of

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readjusting the role of the police, and the public, in a social control system.

The police-community interactions are a matter of striving to achieve mutual understanding and trust, as with any human relationship. Some problems can be solved constructively by working together in the community to anticipate and prevent -- that is, proactive policing compared to reactive. The primary purposes in community participation should be to solve hard problems, to improve the quality of police services, and to elevate the level of public respect for police officers and the system of government by law that he represents (Radelet, 1986:25).

Finally, it is almost impossible for police to do their job without citizens' assistance and participation. The more the community is involved in police work, the better the relationship is going to be between the community and the police. Furthermore, the better relationship, the greater the trust (Fink and Sealy, 1974:48).

Purpose of the study

Perceptions may not perfectly reflect the object being represented. However, perceptions derive from, and are continuously influenced by, direct and indirect contacts and experiences with the objects of perception. The purpose of this study is to examine public attitudes toward Korean police by analyzing data collected from a random sample of

respondents in Seoul, Korea, and second, based on this analysis, it provides some general recommendations for the improvement of public attitudes toward the police.

In order to do that some kind of field survey must be conducted. Due to the fact that there was no list available nor numbered houses for all citizens, the writer decided to approach another alternative, the only logical one of this time, mainly studying the public attitudes through its youngsters. The high school students as well as colleges or university students have been living in the system over sixteen years; therefore, measuring their attitudes reflects not only their own reactions, feelings and experiences, but also reflects, to some extent, their parents', and society's attitudes through the socialization process. Another advantage of studying those young students is the availability of their total number and their school location, which makes the study possible and accommodates the scientific method of social research.

The study will compare the two groups, and find what their perceptions of the police are. The people in Korea usually think both groups' perceptions change after high school students enter university or college, because they are more independent of their parents and easier to assess the social issues or criticisms. University students often perceive themselves as a critical part in making society better. They seem to have a kind of privilege of criticizing

their societies, political systems and leaders. However, high school students are usually protected and influenced by their parents and social surroundings until they become university or college students. Sometimes, citizens are likely to treat high school students as juveniles, and university or college students as adults. The high school students may be said to represent their parents' more conservative views, while the university students may be said to represent a more liberal and progressive segment of Korean society. By comparing the two groups -- high school and university students, we in a sense are comparing the conservative with the progressive elements of populace.

I have selected Seoul as a sampling site. All ministries and most large business firms are located in Seoul. The central-decision-making process for the whole nation for major issues and the matters of the importance to all citizens are originated and declared from Seoul. Most government employees work in Seoul for at least some time because of the job opportunities and due to the fact that the administrative headquarters are located there. For these reasons, the writer decided to conduct the field inquiry by measuring both groups of students' attitudes toward the police of Seoul in Korea, and restrict this study to a city, therefore selecting the largest city, the capital of Korea, Seoul.

In addition, Lee (1991) researched the factors affecting the police relations with the community in three countries,

such as United States, Japan, and China. Therefore, the present study also tries to examine the perception of the Korean students' attitudes and compares it with Lee's data on the students' perceptions of the police relations with the Community of American and Japanese students. The present study zeroes in on those factors affecting the relations by adopting questionnaires which were used in previous studies because such a cross-cultural study has never been done in Korea. Traditionally, cross-cultural methods have been used to determine the generosity and applicability of theories originally developed for use in a particular culture (Clinard and Abbott, 1973). To find out the reality and the way of improvement of police relations with community in Korea, it is appropriate to compare police relations with community in Korea with foreign countries' police relations with community which were already studied by researchers.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of clarity and uniformity, several rather obvious terms should be defined regarding their use and meaning in this study.

The term **community**, as used in this study, refers to any social group of size whose members reside in a specific locality, share a common government, and have a common

cultural or historical heritage.¹

The term **police** is used here to represent an organized civil force for maintaining order, preventing and detecting crime and enforcing the law.²

High school junior(11th grade) refers to Korean students enrolled in the second year of secondary education required prior to entry to colleges or universities. The High school diploma in Korea is equivalent to a high school diploma in the United States of America; each country requires twelve years of formal education to achieve the diploma -- six elementary years, three junior high, and three years of senior high school.

Attitudes are considered to be one's opinion, feelings, or disposition toward an object, person, or entity. Included in this are one's beliefs about the nature of something, his evaluation of it, his views about appropriate policy with respect of it, and his tendencies to behave toward it in a certain way (Selltitz, 1964:146).

Definition and Measurement of the variables

All variables are assumed to represent perceptions,

¹The American Heritage Dictionary (2nd ed.). Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1985, p. 299.

²Academic American Encyclopedia. Vol. 14, Grolier Incorporated, Danbury, Connecticut, 1991, p. 145.

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attitudes, or values the participants have derived from the experience in societies. In the present study, the major dependent variables are the attitude of the public to cooperate with the police as a collaborator or witness and general attitude toward police. However, for more valid and comprehensive interpretations of the data, the study also examines variables associated with such factors as willingness of the public to make contact with the police as a victim and a person in need, and attitudes toward police recruitment as a vocation.

Y1 (ACWC)³ = Attitude of the public to cooperate with the police as a witness or collaborator.

(See Appendix A, Q76 to Q80, Q88 to Q93)

This indicates the public's attitude toward cooperating with the police in situations they face as witness or collaborators. The cooperative attitude includes the public's attitude toward reporting a crime to the police, furnishing information to the police, having the police come to one's door, and participating in the community activity initiated by the police.

Y2 (WTVN) = Willingness of the public to make contact with the police as a victim and a person in need. (Q81 to Q87)

This indicates the public's willingness to turn to the police in situations they face as a victim or as a person in need.

Y3 (GATP) = General attitudes toward police. (Q14 to Q24)

This refers to the public's perception of the behavior and activities of the police.

³ Y represents a dependent variable, and (ACWC) is an abbreviation of a variable name which is in the parenthesis.

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1. Community-Related factors: (CORF) (Q61 to Q66)

X1⁴ = Community cohesion (CC) (Q61, Q62)

This refers to the familiarity or sense of belonging the public feels toward their community. The questions were measured through a modified 4-likert scale (indicating from none to many, and from never to very much).

X2 = Perception of the community-related policing organizations (PCRPO) (Q63, Q66)

This indicates the public's perception of their safety generated by the existence of their neighborhood police stations and neighborhood associations for crime prevention. The questions were rated by the subjects on a 5-point scale indicating from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Unsure was not included in actual computation.

X3 = Awareness of the community-related policing organizations (ACRPO) (Q62, Q65)

This refers to whether or not the public knows of the neighborhood police station(or mini-station) and the neighborhood association for the crime prevention in the neighborhood.

2. Political factors: (PF) (Q11 to Q13, Q54 to Q56)

X4 = Trust in government (TG) (Q54 to Q56)

This indicates the public's evaluative orientation toward the government. The questions were rated by the subjects on a 4-point scale indicating from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

X5 = Political efficacy (PE) (Q11 to Q13)

This indicates the public's self-perception of their capacity to understand politics and to have an impact on government. The questions were rated by the subjects on a 4-point scale indicating from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

3. Crime-Related Factors: (CRF)

(Q35, Q57 to Q59, Q94, Q96, Q98, Q100)

X6 = Perception of crime (PC) (Q35, Q57, Q96, Q100)

This refers to the public's perception of the seriousness of crime in their neighborhood. The questions were rated by the subjects on a 4-point scale indicating from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

⁴ X represents an independent variable.

X7 = Fear of crime (FC) (Q58, Q59)

This refers to the degree of fear the public feels toward **crime** and victimization.

X8 = Experience of victimization (EV) (Q94, Q98)

This refers to the student's experience of having been a **victim** of crime and having seen someone else commit a crime.

4. Police-Related Factors: (PRF)

(Q14 to Q24, Q36, Q37, Q67, Q68, Q97, Q101, Q104)

X9 = Perception of the police (PP) (Q14 TO Q24)

This refers to the public's perception of the **behavior** and activities of the police.

X10 = Evaluation of the police performance (EPP)

(Q36, Q37, Q97, Q101, Q104)

This refers to the public's evaluation of the **understanding** the police have of the local situation and their capacity to help them.

X11 = Visibility of the police (VP) (Q67, Q68)

This refers to how often the public sees the police in the neighborhood.

5. Cultural-Ideological Factors: (CIF)

(Q1 to Q10, Q50 to Q53)

X12 = Group-oriented values (GOV) (Q5 to Q9)

This was measured through five questions selected on the **individualism-collectivism** scale used by the Huiand Triandis (1986) study. The respondents were asked to indicate the **extent** to which they strongly disagreed or strongly agreed with 4-likert scale items.

X13 = Attitude towards authoritarianism (AAU)

(Q1, Q4, Q10)

This refers to the exertion of authority and the **willingness** to submit to it in relation to society, the state, and the family. Those who have a positive attitude toward **authoritarianism** ought to be consistently and regularly **accepting** of those who are similar to them and rejecting of those who are different from them.

X14 = Patriotism (PAT) (Q50 to Q53)

This indicates the feeling the public has toward their **society**, and their national symbols such as the national **anthem** and the national flag.

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6. Other variables

X15 = Friend's perception of the police (FPP)
(Q25 to Q27)

This refers to the student's perception of what their friends' perceptions of the behavior and activities of the police are.

X16 = Self-reporting delinquency (SRD) (Q43 to Q49)

According to critics (Elliott et al., 1983), official records substantially underestimate the volume of delinquent acts and the number of delinquent persons because they just deal with those delinquents officially labeled by authorities. In addition, since the risk of detection and apprehension is not the same for all, official delinquents and delinquency are not representative of delinquents and delinquency.

William and Gold (1972) reported that only less than 3 percent of those who admit delinquency are known to the police. Most others conclude that official measures of delinquency do not accurately reflect delinquency (Erickson, 1972; Schoenberg, 1975). Instead, some argue that self-reported measures of delinquency are most appropriate (Hirschi et al., 1980; Hindelang et al., 1981). In addition, many researchers have consistently shown that the scale items and self-reported methods are reasonably reliable and valid (Elliott and Ageton, 1980).

Organization of the study

In Chapter 1, the purpose of this study and the definitions of major variables will be presented.

Chapter 2 deals with police-community interactions strategy, the factors affecting police-community interactions, and the description and analyses of Korean society and police. It describes the concepts of police-community interactions and the dynamics of modern police role. It also examines the public cooperation with the police and the evolving strategy of policing such as police-community relations, community policing as general outlines. Some of literature review

regarding factors -- community-related factors, political factors, police-related factors, crime-related factors, and cultural-ideological factors -- associated with the public's attitude toward the police will be presented. The historical survey of Korean police will be described chronologically. With regard to the Korean Police, environmental factors, political backgrounds, organizational and operational factors, and personal factors which might affect police-community relations will be also analyzed.

Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and procedure.

In chapter 4, the results of analyses will be presented.

Chapter 5 includes some findings, implications and recommendations will be suggested for the future programs of Police-community interactions in the Republic of Korea.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Police and Community Interactions

1. The concepts of police-community interactions

It is believed that the police cannot exist without the community and that the community cannot exist without duties performed by the police. These statements parallel the history of police organization and functions of society. Unlike oriental society, which places an emphasis on general cooperation between individuals and communities in fighting crime and maintaining social order and control (Ames, 1981:1), the idea of the modern-day municipal police of 19th century England (the origin of policing in the United States) was that the police function depends on a considerable amount of self-Policing by every citizen and, therefore, was a system rooted in personal responsibility (Radelet, 1986:3-17). Sir Robert Peel asserted, "the police are the public and the public are the police." The American police system, based on the British model, 'was distinguished at its inception by the idea that local citizens' organizations, pledged to keep the peace, could handle the task of maintaining law and order (Fink and Sealy, 1974:42).

It would be wise here to review the historical development of the PCR programs in the United States

classified according to several stages.¹ In the 1930s or 1940s (the earliest stage of police training) the first systematic programs dealing with police and community relations (PCR) were initiated. During World War II sociological happenings and police training courses in human relations were initiated.

From 1946 to 1955 (program development) workshops in human relations, along with race relations, prejudice, and the like, were dedicated to reduce tensions between elements of the community.

From 1955 to 1967 (community program) the concept of PCR was developed by the National Conference of Christians and Jews (NCCJ), and the National Institute on Police and Community established in 1955 at Michigan State University (led by NCCJ as a cooperative venture of NCCJ, and Michigan State University, School of Police Administration and Public Safety). After the riots and violent upheavals that occurred in various cities during the summer of 1967, it became imperative to think about PCR problems in different terms compared to the traditional approaches that were being used. In this respect, Radelet concluded that although PCR have improved generally compared with what they were one or two decades ago, any realistic hope of further improving PCR depends largely upon reforming the criminal justice system and

¹See for more detail, Radelet, Louis A., The Police and the Community, (4th ed.), New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986, pp. 8-17.

society as a whole (p. 17).

At the outset, PCR was largely one-sided -- its focus was predominantly on changing the community view of the police and to make citizens more supportive and understanding of the police actions (President's Commission, 1967). One of the fundamental problems in PCR is consensus on the proper role of the PCR in contemporary society. As the Movement matured, the focus on PCR become somewhat more reciprocal. Particularly in the late of 1970s police department also regularly incorporated crime prevention programs and Neighborhood Watch with the PCR unit. It was felt that this was an additional step to help the police and community communicate as well as to make an effort to reduce crime (Radelet, 1986).

Coffey (1990) explained that the essential components of successful PCR are a combination of the Human Relations (HR) approach and Public Relations (PR), combined within the framework of specific crime reduction goals and objectives. The goal of the HR component is to gain and hold the respect of the individuals within the community with whom individual Police officers make contact. When achieved, the goal assists in achieving success with public interactions. PR is whatever Police through their agencies say and do for the sole purpose of creating a positive public image. Planned interviews with the media are the primary methods of public reactions. PR also includes speeches to service clubs and churches, as long as the intent is to create a positive public image.

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Earle (1970) indicated that PCR is concerned with the ability of the police within a given jurisdiction to understand and deal appropriately with the community's problems; PCR involves the idea of community awareness of the role and difficulties faced by the police; and PCR involves the honest effort of both the police and the community to share in the common goal of understanding the problems of both with conscientious effort for harmony and cooperation (pp. 5-6).

The main characteristic of PCR is the existence of goal and measurable objectives having to do with specific crime reduction. Neither HR nor PR has specific crime-reduction goals. Developing, achieving, measuring and modifying the goals and objectives are a crucial part of PCR. Furthermore the goals must be related to the mission of the police, Preferably the reduction or control of a specific crime Problem recognized by the general community as significant (Coffey, 1990:261-63).

PCR was the first comprehensive effort which attempted to resolve the endemic issues inherent in community alliance. The Civil Rights Movement recognized that disequilibrium existed between the police and the community, and it developed Programmatic strategies to address this dissonance. The PCR Concept is by no means dead, but it is being rethought. Despite the intent, PCR appeared to have become a veneer for Police inadequacies -- a predominantly reactive method to deal

with problems (Carter, 1988).

As police administrators face serious fiscal stress, increasing crime rates, and decreasing public support, they've come to realize they must begin to work smarter. Community Policing (CP) views police responsibilities in the aggregate, examining consistent problems, determining underlying causes of the problems, and developing solutions to those problems (Trojanowicz and Carter, 1988).

Comparing and contrasting the differences between PCR and CP, Trojanowicz (1990) explains that these two concepts have difference in the theoretical framework, missions and strategy.

Community policing requires a department-wide philosophical commitment to involve average citizens as partners in the process of reducing and controlling the contemporary problems of crime, drugs, and in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in the community. It is based on organizational theory and open systems theory. It also requires everyone in the department to explore how they can carry out the mission through their actions on the job. Police-community relations is not a philosophy, but rather a limited approach that was often viewed as public relations aimed at reducing hostility toward the police among minorities. It implies a narrow, bureaucratic response to a specific problem rather than a fundamental change. It is based on conflict theory and communication theory. It is an isolated specialty unit, made up exclusively of staff personnel whose duties are bound by the narrow definition of their goals (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Oct. 1990:7-8).

The police-community interactions are a matter of striving to achieve mutual understanding and trust, as with any human relationship. Some problems can be solved constructively by working together in the community to anticipate and prevent -- that is, proactive policing compared

to reactive. The primary purposes in community participation should be to solve hard problems, to improve the quality of police services, and to elevate the level of public respect for police officers and the system of government by law that he represents (Radelet, 1986:25).

2. The major issues in police-community interactions

The major issues can be viewed from several perspectives:

(1) a psychological perspective -- the self-image of the police and public image of the police, perceptions and prejudice involving the people and the police force (Radelet, 1986:83-84); (2) a sociological perspective -- social processes, population trends, urban environments, the police and minority groups, collective behavior, terrorism, civil disobedience, youth, women, the elderly, and complaints (pp. 173-74); and (3) a systematical perspective -- other forces and systems in society affecting the police-community relationship of the police to the other elements of the criminal justice system (pp. 309-10). Based on an analysis of the above-mentioned perspectives of approaching police-community interactions, some realistic issues can be deduced as follows.²

Mutual trust is one issue. The police seem to be convinced that a large segment of the community is

² See for more detail, Radelet, Louis A. The Police and the Community (4th ed.). New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986.

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uncooperative and hostile toward them and have little or no respect for the police. The community sees the police as an authoritarian and brutal institution involved in harassment. A second issue is little cooperation, productive interaction and communication between the police and community. The attitudes of both reflect cynicism and ridicule. A third issue is that prejudice stems from historical, regional, and political backgrounds. A fourth issue is an in-depth gap exists among several criminal justice components -- police, prosecutors, courts, and corrections -- in terms of making PCR efficient. A fifth issue is the uncertainty due to the bureaucratic block conflict within police departments. A sixth is the uncertainty of the role of the police. A seventh issue concerns the social situation or social problem aspect of police work. The policeman is expected to know about all kinds of things such as human relations, psychology, and sociology to serve social problems. The final issue is the lack of money and resources to support the police-community interactions programs continuously.

The responsibility of both the police and community, a genuine police and community partnership, police accountability, community awareness of the role, mutual understanding and trust between the police and the community are ideal for solutions sought through police-community interactions. To transfer this idea into reality, the police have to cultivate and motivate public good will, cooperation,

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and involvement. Through communication and cooperation between the police and the citizen, the police can be an integral part of the community. Together with the police officers and the citizens sharing a sense of common purpose, barriers will give way to a participatory partnership in which crime suppression and mutual trust can be transformed from an abstract idea into viable reality (p. 10).

3. The dynamics of the modern police role

As Lindesmith et al. (1975) point out, offices, statutes and roles can be seen as existing apart from specific individuals who might be occupying them at a particular time. Although the acting out of various roles usually consists of a wide variety of acts within a permitted range of variation, an individual's conception of his/her role has an important impact on behavior in that it determines which behaviors will be emitted (p. 399). How, then, does an individual come to conceive of a particular role?

Friday and Sonnad (1978) stated that it is the individual's attitude which ultimately predisposes individuals to react in certain ways. These attitudes are shaped by personal experiences, the experiences of others and through impressions (p. 2). Therefore, in order to develop the context within which citizen perceptions of the police are formed, it will be necessary to examine the general police role as portrayed by the police.

It will be argued that there are inherent characteristics in the police role which operate to reinforce the general conception of police work as law enforcement and it is this emphasis on the law enforcement role that creates problems for police-community interactions. Police officers and citizens seem to be in little agreement about the role of the Korean police. Conflicting role expectations and perceptions between the police and community is a very serious issue in terms of resolving the tension between them.

From a historical perspective, the Korean police have, thus far, focused the role of the police on maintaining the social order. They have neglected the role of social order and social services, which is constantly demanded by the community, on the grounds that social security and order maintenance are of first priority. Namely, Korean policing has emphasized a society-oriented posture rather than an individual-oriented posture. The policing style of a specific country usually reflects the community and the situation of the society.

Some police officers in Korea seem to be confused because of role ambiguities, especially what they are expected to do and what the priorities are, even though top ranking police officers emphasize national/social security and social order. Lee (1984) says that this confusion has been accelerated by incidents involving civil rights in the late 1970s and early 1980s and is an evidence that Korean policing lacks a

philosophical base (p.36). In fact, the road block to proper PCR in Korea has been excessive reliance on force by most police officers. The police force must be made an integral part of the community if they are to be aware of the constantly changing needs and expectations of their community.

4. The characteristics of the police role: Its effects on police-community interactions.

Because the modern police department is supposed to deal with a wide range of problems, the role of the police is extremely complex. The individual police officer is expected to deal directly with violations of law as well as the personal problems of citizens. In addition to these functions the police are called on to preserve peace and maintain a sense of good order (McDowell, 1975). There is often conflict between those duties seen as legitimate to the police role, as formally defined and understood through socialization into that role, and those duties the police actually perform. Despite the fact that there is considerable evidence to support the contention that the police officer's role is one of peace-keeping or community service, the police have often conveyed to the public that law enforcement per se is the highest goal of the police (Misner, 1981:48). Hence, as Parnas (1971) noted, the police tend to view themselves as law enforcers, not social workers. This is because the apprehension of the felon is the most prestigious and

rewarding task in the minds of the police and the public (Bent and Rossum, 1976). However, as McNamara (1967) noted, much of the conflict facing the police results from citizen demands that the police perform other than law enforcement roles.

One way to examine the emphasis placed on law enforcement would be to examine police training requirements. For instance, of the two hundred and forty-six hours required by the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council (1978) only nineteen of those hours could conceivably be related to the area of service, and human relations. Aside from heavy stress on law enforcement during police training, the desire for professionalism among the police has led to the belief that the problems of policing lie not in the system itself but within the individual police officers (Niederhoffer, 1967).

Regardless of how thorough police training is, once he is on the job, the new recruit is subject to the powerful impact of peer-group pressure and the informal socialization patterns of the police subculture. From this point of view, the officer is far more vulnerable to the control of co-workers and first-line supervision, and training may lose its impact. The unique characteristics of the police developed through training and on the job socialization into the police role which stresses conformity, authority, and situation control and necessitates the categorization of individuals as symbolic assailants (Skolnick, 1988), are likely to result in conflict with certain citizens. Therefore, a strict definition of the

police role as one of law enforcement increased the probability of police-citizen conflict and acts as a detriment to positive police relations with community.

Fortunately, the Korean police have come to realize that they must direct their attention to improving the quality of police-community interactions to promote mutual trust and to obtain general agreement from the community about the appropriate role of the police. The police role dilemma can be resolved by developing the police role concept in accord with consensus requirements of the community the police serve and it should be a consensus in role perception among police officers at varying levels of the police organization (Radelet, 1986:44). Priorities of the police role should be focused on community concerns rather than police concerns.

B. Public, Community and Policing

1. The public

The public has lost personal contact with the police since the police moved from the beat to the patrol car. This loss of contact has resulted in less communication to the police from the public. A similar lack in communication and personal relationship between families and next door neighbors or urban communities have also had negative effects upon social problems. Today the home is like a dormitory. People come in, eat, sleep and go their own way. Seldom do

neighboring families communicate and socialize with one another. This adds to people's fear of walking the street since they are unaware who lives next door, who is supposed to be in the area, and which people are neighbor. This fear is reenforced by the news media making it a critical problem for the police to deal with. Other social factors such as illiteracy, drugs and declining manufacturing jobs have increased pressure on the police. This explains how social problems directly relate to the causes of crime and that all social agencies should work together if we are concerned about our future.

2. Police and Public cooperation

In a society as diverse as ours, there are bound to be different priorities placed on police by different people who live in different communities. In addition, police officers are not all the same, do not have similar opinions or expectations, do not perform at the same level, and do not operate with the same style. These differences influence the policies that allocate resources and determine how police departments and its officers should police the neighborhoods in which they work. A strategic factor in the allocation of these resources is the style of law enforcement desired by the community. Community leaders can set reasonable boundaries on police actions. These limits usually depend on the social, economic, and political characteristics of the community.

As Skolnick and Bayley (1986) mentioned, without community feedback and participation, the police are in no position to tailor developmental resources to local needs in any sort of optimal fashion (p. 213). The Manual of the Los Angeles Police Department (1988) shows that public support is an absolute requisite to successful police work: Peace in a free society depends on voluntary compliance with the law. Particularly in a democratic society that ensures great personal freedom, the willingness of citizens to be controlled is crucial. Presence of police officers is not enough to force acceptance of the rules in a free society. Citizens in a free society must be willing. Unwillingness to accept police control, can become the proverbial two way street; the more unwilling the people are to accept police intervention, the more certainly the police may respond in ways that create further unwillingness (Coffey, 1990:37). Public demand for police services is shaped by the public's needs and by their willingness to turn to the police to handle them (Bayley, 1985:131). Conversely, the way the police handle situations also affects the public's willingness to contact the police, thus shaping situations through molding demand (p. 144).

The nature of the term "public support" or "cooperation" differs in many ways depending on a community or a country. The population of a community, the result of differences in population size, composition, culture, and wealth creates its own unique philosophy and politics. The uniqueness of each

community creates differences in the approach needed by the police to gain and hold the support of the community (Coffey, 1990:125).

Korea has had a long tradition of citizen involvement in community-based crime prevention. Today some harmonious and positive citizen participation in police work, including crime prevention does exist. For example, there is the Police Advisory Board, the Traffic-safety Mother's Association, the Traffic-safety Exemplary Taxi-driver's Association, the Juvenile Guidance Association, and the Youth Patrol. The police rely heavily on personal relationships formed with members of these associations. The effectiveness of police work in rural areas rests to a great extent on cooperation from citizens organized into voluntary police-support groups called Resident Patrols. A police Advisory Board, which is installed in each police station and consists of distinguished residents, give financial aid and other assistance to the police station. In 1983, 7,722 auxiliary police were employed to aid police in their work, particularly in crime prevention, though a small monthly fee is collected from the residents of the neighborhood.³

The Traffic-safety Mother's association not only helps children cross streets near schools, but they also urge pedestrian bridges, and they actively participate in traffic-

³Korean National Police Headquarters, Korean National Police Official Report, Seoul, Korea, 1983.

safety campaigns. The police are also aided by uniformed exemplary taxi-drivers who stand at busy street corners to discourage reckless drivers and to aid pedestrians. The most useful way for the police to give out information about crimes and criminals and to get information from the citizens is at the Neighborhood Meeting (Ban Sang Hwea), which meets once a month and is organized according to specific administrative districts throughout the country.

It is almost impossible for police to do their job without citizens' assistance and participation. The more the community is involved in police work, the better the relationship is going to be between the community and the police. Furthermore, the better relationship, the greater the trust (Fink and Sealy, 1974:48). Citizen participation in law enforcement is one way of endowing the police as an organization with the function of protecting the people (p. 50). At the same time, the police must attempt to develop all possible avenues of community involvement which will eventually lead to the creation of better police-community alliances.

3. Traditional reactive policing

Along with technological improvements, law enforcement agencies also recognized the need to become more professional. Therefore, most agencies have gone to great lengths to attract and recruit highly motivated and educated individuals. But,

once these individuals were hired, they were often discouraged, and even punished for performing tasks outside the parameters of standard police work. In doing so, administrators inadvertently systematically eliminated innovative, creative thinking at the line level. [The command and control culture of the police department doesn't treat officers as intelligent, creative and trust-worthy people. In the recent past, many commentators have criticized this form of organization as being inappropriate for the needs of modern police and the educated personnel they are seeking to recruit and retain (Frantz and Jones, 1987:153).] This military approach occurred because formal chain of command and specific operating procedures mandate that someone is in charge, and that departments can be made to work in acceptable ways (Weisburd et al., 1988:31). The frustration of the police of having little or no input (communication) into the system which created the rules and regulations that cover nearly everything is often reflected by the manner which police officers communicate with the public. Such an organizational model is blamed for discouraging upward communication and risk-taking by patrol officers, while at the same time, encouraging the development of authoritarianism in these officers (Sandler and Mintz, 1974). This supervisory system is essentially negative, relying primary on sanctions for non-compliance with police rules and regulations (Weisburd, 1988:32).

Under this mechanistic type system, supervisors are more secure because of communication procedures, formal rules and enforcement of the authoritative style (Shafritz, 1987). Frantz and Jones (1987) states that the American Police Department's use of a military or quasi-military model of organization hindered effective communication among its members, and this poor communication and lack of trust led to morale problems within the organization. 

A line officer's priorities are communicated to him/her by middle management and these priorities are : (1) the apprehension of the accused on crimes in progress, (2) the prompt response and settlement of calls for service, and (3) self-initiated activity such as traffic tickets. Emphasis was not on how creatively an officer reached the underlying reason for the call or the empathy shown, but how fast it could be handled. With this philosophy the police make little time for communicating with the public and the public think they are getting little or no help from the police.

4. Studies in police-community relations (PCR)

One outgrowth of the PCR experience of the 1960's was the initiation, by both the police and various citizens groups, of numerous attitudinal studies to determine how police and citizens perceive one another. Another outgrowth of the problem experienced in PCR in the 1960's was the recognition that effective policing and positive PCR depend heavily on how

both police and citizens perceive and react to one another. With the force of Civil Rights Movement punctuated by civil disturbances and protest marches, it became evident changes had to be made in police practices. The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, and the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice all cited problems in PCR -- particularly excessive force, deprivation of constitutional rights, rudeness, and discriminatory practices (Carter, 1988). At least two types of information are available regarding citizen attitudes toward the police-public opinion poll data and other survey research (Thomas and Hyman, 1977).

Interestingly, public opinion polls conducted by the American Institute of Public Opinion and Louis Harris and Associates display considerable similarity in their findings. In general it has been found that the public is rather favorably disposed toward the police. As a rule, these findings have been true regardless of such factors as ethnicity, residence, age, sex, socioeconomic status, and other factors (Hindelang et al., 1975; Galofalo, 1977; Friday and Sonnad, 1978).

However, this is not to say that all groups within the population give their total support to the police or that there are some discrepancies between the findings of various studies. For instance, Bidderman et al.(1967), Galofalo

(1977), Friday and Sonnad (1978) report that minority persons are generally less favorably disposed toward the police than the whites. In addition, a number of the studies indicate that many citizens feel that while the police generally do a good job, improvements in police operations are needed (Galofalo, 1977; Friday and Sonnad, 1978). With this in mind, a review of some of the earlier studies in PCR would be a necessary first step in providing a framework within which citizen perception of police behavior become meaningful.

In one of the earlier studies of criminal victimization and attitudes toward the police, Biderman et al. (1967) collected information from a sample of more than 500 households in Washington, D.C. in 1966.

Although approximately 79% of the respondents in this study were black, the findings are similar to more recent ones. Despite the fact that respondents felt that there was a serious crime problem, 85% of those responding agreed that people who take on the tough job of being a policeman deserve a lot more thanks and respect than they get from the public (Bideramn et al., 1967). However, 29% of those questioned felt that at least half the force would need to be removed in order to have a good police force.

In their book, Minorities and the Police, Bayley and Mendersohn (1969) used data from a sample of 806 respondents divided into three groups: white (336), blacks (234) and Spanish-surnamed (236). Their findings are similar in some

respects to those already discussed. Close to 75% of those sampled felt the job of the police was more important while the police tended to underestimate citizen ratings of police work. Respondents who were black and those with Spanish names were more likely to regard the police negatively than were whites.

Another study of citizen perceptions of the police was conducted by Smith and Hawkins (1973) in Seattle, Washington. Although the number of minority respondents was low, the sample was representative of the population as a whole. Race was strongly related to the perceptions of police fairness. Young respondents, also, displayed more unfavorable attitudes toward the police than older respondents. Dissatisfaction with the way the police handled a reported victimization was reflected in more negative attitudes toward the police. Another finding similar to the Biderman et al. (1967) study was that perceptions of police wrong-doing had significant influence on attitudes toward the police.

In the report of findings from the National Survey, Garofalo (1977) analyzed observations from a stratified probability sample of about 22,000 respondents in each of eight impact cities (Atlanta, Baltimore, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Newark, Portland, and St. Louis). Respondents were interviewed concerning criminal victimization, attitudes toward crime and evaluations of local police. Like other studies, Galofalo observed that the majority of respondents (82%)

thought that their police were doing either a good (44%) or fair (38%) job (p. 28). However, 68% of the respondents also indicated a need for police improvement. Again, race and age were found to be significantly related to perceptions of the police with blacks being almost twice as likely as whites to rate the police poorly. Younger respondents were found to be critical of the police.

Reporting on a general survey of attitudes toward crime and the police in Toronto, Canada, Courtis (1970) explored citizen attitudes toward various police practices as well as more general attitudes toward the police. Generally, attitudes were found to be rather favorable. Two thirds of the Toronto sample felt that the police were well trained with only some 6% feeling that they were badly trained. Courtis stated, though, that those who felt that the police were insufficiently sensitive to individual differences and lacking in flexibility of response (p. 119). Personal qualities such as forbearance, tolerance, patience and all associated with the ability to exercise discretion were thought to be characteristic of the above average policeman (the good cop) while the below average policeman (the bad cop) were thought to be characterized by officiousness, gruffness and aggressiveness. When asked about the state of police-community relations, respondents expressed only moderately favorable opinions. Among the samples, 47% on the sample rated the police as fair and 33% as good. In contrast only

12% thought that they were poor (pp. 121-22). Reasons for poor PCR were generally that the police displayed aggressive behavior and that the police received unfavorable publicity on television and in the press.

In looking at the perceptions of black Americans toward the police, Crosby and Snyder (1970) provided some interesting findings. Their results indicated that some 31% of those surveyed who had been the victim of a crime indicated that the police response had been less than they expected. Also, younger respondents, males, and those with college education were more critical of the police response than other groups. Of those respondents who reported having a direct experience with the police, 41% stated that the police response was unsatisfactory.

Another study designed to measure victim's evaluations of police performance was carried out by Poister and McDavid (1978). These authors drew on data collected in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania in 1975. What appeared to be the most important variables related to satisfaction with the police were situational and performance variables. Satisfaction with the initial investigation, and satisfaction with response time were found to be important predictors of overall satisfaction with the police. The authors stated that this seems to be an indication that the overall satisfaction of a victim is in part influenced by his or her perception of the effort put forth by the police at the early stages (p. 147). While there

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existed a growing body of literature in PCR field, this section, for the most part, dealt with general attitudes toward the police in contexts other than how specific police behaviors and situations are related to this issues.

During the late 1960's and 1970's, however, the reform strategy ran into difficulty. In 1960's, crime began to rise. Despite large increases in the size of police departments and in expenditures for new forms of equipments (911 system, computer-aided dispatch, etc,), police failed to meet their own or public expectations about their capacity to control crime or prevent its increase. Moreover research conducted during 1970's on preventive patrol and rapid response to call to service suggested that neither was an effective crime control or apprehensive tactic (Kelling et al., 1974; Spelman and Brown, 1982).

The reform of PCR was a successful strategy of police during the relatively stable period of the 1940's and 1950's. The social changes of the 1960's and 1970's, however, created unstable conditions. Some of the more significant changes included: the civil rights movement; migrations of minorities into the cities; increases in crime and fear. It was clear that the reform strategy was unable to adjust to the changing social circumstances of the 1960's and 1970's.

5. Community policing

In theory, Community Policing (CP) seems to be an

excellent way to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of police response. The pure theory of CP includes not only administrative decentralization but also appropriate training, proper interaction with members of the target neighborhoods, and institutionalized monitoring and rewards (Alpert and Dunham, 1992:196).

CP emerged most evidently as a result of the experiments of Neighborhood Foot Patrol in Flint, Michigan; the Citizen-oriented Police Experiment in Baltimore County, Maryland, and Problem-oriented Policing in Newport News, VA (Trojanowicz, 1988; Spelman and Eck, 1987). Carter (1991) indicated that it must be recognized that CP is a philosophy, not a tactic. Because CP is a philosophy, it strives for depth that PCR never achieved through involving a wide range of community members in the policing responsibility as well as designing operational policies which seeks to solve problems.

According to Trojanowicz and Carter (1988), CP is a "proactive, decentralized approach, designed to reduce crime, disorder, and by extension, fear of crime, by intensely involving the same officer in the same community on a long-term basis." Subsequently, one explicit purpose of a CP Police officer is to work toward reducing fear of crime and empowering law-abiding individuals who can work with local police to strengthen communities. To accomplish this, police service must become decentralized and personalized. Ultimately, this strategy should reduce street crime, in

addition to improving perceptions of safety.

[The key characteristics to CP are: having an officer assigned to a specified, manageable geographic area; having officers who work with community members as partners in crime reduction in addition to being responsive service providers; and seeking to resolve the underlying dynamics that contribute to crime. The CP philosophy calls for a number of operational and organizational changes that are inconsistent with a military model of supervision (Trojanowicz and Carter, 1988:29).] The CP model requires more delegating, selling, and coaching than telling. It also includes teaching, reviewing, considering alternatives, training and other similar techniques (Kelling, 1974:4). No one is more familiar with the environment in which they must operate than law enforcement patrol officers. Community policing tactics include foot patrol, problem solving, information gathering, victim counselling and services, community organizing and consultation, education, walk-and-ride and knock-on-door programs, as well as regular patrol, and rapid response to emergency calls for service (Perspectives on Policing, Nov. No.4, 1988).

Various techniques for implementing the CP philosophy among police departments are currently being attempted. Normally, community policing's emphasis is with the quality of police service delivery. It also incorporates relationships between the police and the community, as well as the

relationship within the police agency between management and employees. To utilize these officers, police administrators must re-think the philosophy that requires unquestioned conformity to departmental procedures and discourages individualism.

One innovative approach which is related to CP has come to be known as problem-oriented policing (Eck and Spelman, 1989, and Golestein, 1990). Originally formulated by Goldstein in the late 1970s, this approach to policing is often identified with and linked to community-oriented policing. Goldstein's problem-oriented approach to policing was being tested in several communities: Madison, Wisconsin; Baltimore County, Maryland; and Newport News, Virginia. Problem-oriented policing rejected the fragmented approach in which police deal with each incident as an isolated event with neither history nor future. These changes in policing are not only new police tactics, but they represent a new organizational approach, properly called a community strategy.

Goldstein (1990) argued that police traditionally focused narrowly on specific incidents. He acknowledged that the strategy for most police departments has been to make a large portion of their personnel visible and available to respond to calls and observed incidents. The police have failed to engage in meaningful planning because the communication system has forced them to react to incidents. The response of patrol officers to a call is not problem-

solving, rather it is simply stabilizing a situation or problem. Goldstein argued that the police should group incidents around recurring problems and focus on the underlying causes. Eck and Spelman (1989) have explained the four-stage approach which outlines the benefits of problem-solving:

During the Scanning stage, an officer identifies an issue and determines whether it really is a problem. In the Analysis stage, officers collect information from the sources inside and outside their agency. The goal is to understand the scope, nature and causes of the problem. In the Response stage, this information is used to develop and implement solutions. Officers seek the assistance of other police units, the public and private organizations, and anyone else who can help. Finally, in the Assessment stage, officers evaluate the effectiveness of the response. Officers may use the results to revise the response, collect more data, or even to redefine the problem (Eck and Spelman, 1989:431).

The problem-solving approach permits the police to direct their energy and effort toward preventing crime and solving problems, not incidents. In that way, police will be able to diagnose long-term solutions and assist in the mobilization of public and private resources to attack the problems.

In addition to these considerations, several pragmatic concerns must also be met. The officer should have an office in the community and be accessible to community members. The Community Policing Organization must be allowed the freedom a flexible shift schedule permits.

Ideally, CP should be a fully integrated approach that involves everyone in the department (Trojanowicz and Bucquerroux, 1990:xv). Unfortunately, not many departments

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have adopted CP in this form (for an exception see William and Sloan, 1990). It is currently more common for a specific group of officers to be assigned as Community Policing Organizations. This is understandable when considering that police administrators want to determine the effectiveness of CP before undertaking major department-wide restructuring and commitment. This is yet another reason for limiting the tactics presented in this commentary to what individual line officers, working with the communities, can accomplish.

Most PCR programs have faded away, and unrelenting budget pressures will no doubt mean that others will die -- often so that the department can put those resources directly into community policing. The advent of CP has also threatened budgets for crime prevention units. However, because the goals dovetail so well, many departments find that CP can help reinvigorate crime prevention.

CP programs and strategies nationwide would be introduced to provide the broad possible range of programmatic strategies, so that many community and police officers interested in initiating a similar program can read the synopsis and strategies. All of the programs were gleaned from articles appearing in The Police Chief which is published by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (see Appendix C).

CP most directly address the need to restructure and refocus officer selection, training, evaluation, and

promotion. Trojanowicz (1990) predicts that as we approach the 21th century, we see that CP is the wave of the future because it delivers direct services and challenges the community to do its share (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Oct., 1990). He also indicates that the challenge ultimately will be to drop the community from CP, as everyone recognizes that it is synonymous with quality policing. As the police continue to strive for excellence, CP is rapidly becoming the standard by which all departments will be judged.

C. The factors affecting police-community interactions ⁴

1. Community-related factor.

This section contains a review of literature regarding community cohesion and community-based policing organizations, as associated with police-community interactions (PCI).

a. Community cohesion

Regarding the relationship between community cohesion and PCI, Black (1980) says that people will resort to law when the relational distance between them is greater. The more

⁴The material on these factors affecting the police-community interaction is information from Lee's dissertation (1991), "Factors Affecting Citizen's Cooperative Attitudes Toward Police as Perceived by Japanese, Chinese and American." The present research utilizes Lee's measures in obtaining information on police-community interactions in Korea.

intimate they are in their daily life, the less likely they are to invoke legal processes (p. 40). } Adler (1983) found her cross-national study that low crime rate nations have strong social controls outside the formal criminal justice system and have a strong emphasis on citizen involvement in the criminal justice system. These nations are characterized by a high degree of social integration. } Community or neighborhood character has been an important factor in explaining PCI and the fear of crime.

Sundeen (1977) examines the relationships among the degree of social supports, the perception of safety in the neighborhood, and the fear of specific crimes. According to his study, social supports and interpersonal connections appear to be highly correlated to the fear of specific crimes and the perception of safety. Those who had higher expectations that neighbors would call the police in case of an emergency had a much lower level of fear of burglary, robbery, and fraud, and had increased perception of safety, compared to those who had low expectations. Those respondents who felt closer to their community had less fear of all three crimes and a higher perception of safety, compared to their counterparts.

Korea has experienced rapid social change with high economic growth (over 10 percent per year since 1960). A major social change has been the migration of the population from the rural areas to the more industrialized cities. According

to national census figures, less than 25 percent of the population lives in the cities before 1960. Ten years later, the urban population increased to 40 percent of the total population, and by 1980 it increased to 57 percent of the total population. Population projection forecasts show that the city population will increase up 80 to 85 percent of the country's population by the year 2000 (Cho, 1979:4-5).

The lack of a sense of community solidarity among residents in these urban areas is believed to be related to the increase in crime. The increase in criminal violence is a worldwide phenomenon. The imperatives of industrialization and urbanization, especially create pressure in all societies which inexorably propel them toward change, including growing individualism and impersonalism. This study expects to show that in an intimate society, community cohesion, meaning members having a strong feeling of belonging toward their community and that they maintaining a close relationship with each other, have an impact on the public's cooperation to the police.

b. Neighborhood policing organization

Marenin (1989) also notes the importance of regular police-community contact in community policing. He argues that the community needs and problems may vary, and reflect community characteristics and cultures (p. 75). Agencies need to establish methods to obtain ideas from a variety of

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organizations and individuals outside the agency. Such ideas are obtained through regular meetings with persons who live and work in the area. The present study assumes that a fixed police post or a crime prevention association in a neighborhood may function as a means of enhancing PCR and solving community problems.

Many studies on successful policing in Japan show that neighborhood policing organizations -- a neighborhood police post or a crime prevention association -- play an important role in establishing close PCI, and reducing crime rate and fear of victimization. The common functions of the neighborhood police post include patrolling their own street and maintaining contact points with the police (Lee, 1991:44). Actual police operations in Japan are based on fixed police posts: *koban* (neighborhood police box) in the cities and *chuzaisho* in the rural areas. Korean neighborhood police system which was inherited from the Japanese occupation (1910-45) has similar organization with Japanese police system: *pachulso* (neighborhood police box) in the cities and *jiseo* in the rural areas.

In the case of Singapore, the Neighborhood Police Post (NPP) system is an adaptation of the successful *koban* system of policing in Japan. The purpose of the NPP system is twofold: to improve police-community alliances and to prevent and suppress crime through the cooperation of and support from the community. The NPP also functions as an information

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center for residents, and as a crime prevention center. It also patrols and house visits twice a year (Quah and Quah, 1987). According to the survey regarding the impact of Singapore's 8 neighborhood police posts on crime levels and community residents' attitudes toward the police, as a result of the neighborhood police posts, respondents had a positive attitude toward the police and regarded them as friends rather than merely as law enforcers.

Walker and Walker (1989) examined the effects of five police mini-stations in Victoria, Canada. The goals of the mini-stations were to enhance police-community interactions and bolster proactive services. Crime prevention programs were decentralized into each of the mini-stations, and each station has begun to develop strategies based on the needs of its neighborhood. They found high awareness about the mini-station, a proactive view of its function, and a decrease in fear of crime. They reported that the management and structure of each station has been well conceived, and involvement of the community is more intensive than in any other program of its kind of Canada.

Wycoff (1985) reports the impacts of a storefront police station with a variety of programs to bridge the distance between police and area residents in Houston. Two surveys found statistically significant reductions in fear of personal victimization, as well as in perceptions of area crime, property crime, and social disorder problems. Less effects of

the programs on blacks and renters were reported as a result of their lesser awareness of the program.

2. Political factors

It is important to consider the role of politics as a correlate shaping police-community interactions in a society. There is a variation in the degree of political impact in shaping PCI from one society to another. Bayley (1985) describes well the relations among society, politics, government and police in Japan:

The relation between police and society is reciprocal society shapes what the police are, the police influence what society may become. The deliberated interactions between the police and society belong to the domain of politics and occur primarily through government (Bayley, 1985:159).

The character of the government and police action is virtually indistinguishable. Police affects the character of the government because what they do is in itself and indicator of the character of the government (p. 210). A government is recognized as being authoritarian if its police is repressive; democratic if its police is restrained. The maintenance of social control is fundamentally a political question (p. 189). Police service is the most visible part of governmental process, performing a range of activities far broader than law enforcement (Wasserman, 1986:30).

Concerning the relationship of Korean police with politics, the current Korean police system has been closely

related to the political power since 1948. The police force usually wasted a lot of time on performing political functions such as political intelligence activities and surveillance of political dissenters. Under the Liberal Party in 1960 they had manipulated the presidential election. There was no doubt the government had made the police system its instrument for the purpose of seizing and maintaining political power. W.K. Lee (1984) says that leaders of Korean Police Forces have emphasized a political-oriented posture rather than a people-oriented posture (p. 19).

Regarding determinants of police intervention in politics, Bayley's (1985) findings in contemporary cross-national research show that an active police role in politics is less common in countries that are relatively well developed economically, have democratic regimes, and are administratively decentralized. He specifies the conditions in detail regarding police involvement in politics:

Police will play a more active role in politics if competition for political power is deliberately restricted by government; if police have been created initially to defend political regimes; if an existing political order is threatened by social violence; and if there is a cultural tradition of insistence on right belief (Bayley, 1985:209).

Some police organization are directly affected by the political process, because their hierarchy can be drastically changed by the election results and top ranking police officers are changed at the discretion of the new administration (Hall, 1977:307). The political situation that

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brings about the new laws also has its effects on organization.

Political changes have accompanied major police changes. The police are keenly aware of the extent to which the city government does or does not intervene in the department depending on particular interests. Thus, police work is carried out under the influences of a political culture though not necessarily under day-to-day political direction. The police are in all cases keenly sensitive to their political environment without in all cases being governed by it (Willson, 1978:230).

3. Crime-related factor

The fear of crime is not just a consequence of a direct experience as a victim of crime, and is one of the most vital problems. Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) describe fear of crime as "crime's evil and insidious shadow" that victimizes all (p. 130). The economic and social damage to individuals and a society from the fear of crime has become an important issue today as crime itself. Pollock made a distinction between two basic types of fear of crime: "Concrete fear is the fear of becoming the victim of a specific violent crime; formless fear is the nonspecific, amorphous, almost subconscious fear about general safety (1983:44)."

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perspectives. The fear of crime is not distributed in the same patterns across the whole population. The variation in the level of fear of crime existed between cities as well as within a city, due mainly to the different physical and social characteristics of cities and neighborhoods or communities. Much research supports the finding the level of fear varies in each neighborhood in a city. For example, central city residents were more likely than rural and suburban residents to feel unsafe (Boggs, 1971). The residents of large cities expressed much more fear than those in medium-sized cities, suburbs, small towns, and rural areas (Clemente and Kleiman, 1977). McPherson's study (1978) also indicated that neighborhoods with relatively low crime rates had relatively low level of fear of crime while neighborhoods with high crime rates had a high level of fear.

The social structure in Korea has been changing towards advanced industrialization under the influence of intensive economic growth achieved in the past two decades. In addition to that, adult and juvenile offenses have subsequently been increasing due to the change of traditional family structure and hectic pace of society. In 1985, the crime rate in Korea was 1,223 per 100,000 persons, while the ratio in the United State was 2,829, in England 2,803, in West Germany 4,171, and in France 3,227.⁵ But between 1966 and 1980, reported crimes

⁵Korean National Headquarters, Korean National Police Official Report, Seoul, Korea, 1985, pp. 25-30.

increased 138% in Korea, while its population increased only 28%. During that period, 70% of all crimes occurred in the cities. If we are also to consider crimes which are not reported to the police, the actual increase in crime may have been as much as 200% during this 15-year period.⁶

Regarding juvenile crimes in Korea, juveniles refer to those youths between 14 and 20 years of ages by the law of Juvenile Act. The numbers of all criminals have on the average been increasing by 6.0% every year for last ten years (1980-1989). This rate is far exceeded that of a yearly population growth of 1.5%. We can readily see that the number of criminals has been increasing despite the overall improvement of living conditions considering the rate of economic growth of 7.2%.⁷ The juvenile delinquency has substantially increased by 2.5% every year on the average, though the total rate of juvenile delinquents among all criminals has not increased that much, but the quality of juvenile crime is gradually aggravated. For example, newspaper articles about vicious crimes committed by juveniles, especially crimes relating to home destruction, that is, raping a woman in the face of the victim's family to prevent them from informing to investigative authorities after burglarizing, were deep social concerns nowadays.

⁶Korean National Headquarters, Korean National Police Official Report, Seoul, Korea, 1985, pp. 31-33.

⁷Korean National Headquarters, Korean National Police Official Report, Seoul, Korea, 1990, pp. 20-23.

Such aggravated crimes as robbery, rape and arson have been increasing rapidly, but no big changes have been observed in crimes against property. Aggravated crimes in the year 1989 increased by 5% (502 persons) compared with the preceding year.⁸ The writer think that the recent increase of vicious juvenile crimes is a manifestation of destructive propensity of people who have failed to adapt themselves to the sudden changes in social values that were brought about with rapid industrialization.

The basic role of the police is to control, prevent, and repress crime, and reduce the degree of fear of crime. Police and crime, in nature, cannot be separated. In order to examine the police relations with community, the association of crime issues with this relationship must be considered. Prevalent social controls and policing modes are important elements in shaping the public's reporting behavior or cooperative attitude, and in generating the impact of crime issues on the public's willingness or attitude towards contacting the police.

4. Police-related Factors.

The public perceptions of police have enormous implications for police-citizen encounters, support for police

⁸Korean National Headquarters, Korean National Police Official Report, Seoul, Korea, 1990, pp. 31-32.

work and the legitimacy of the legal order (Alemika, 1988:161). Where police officers are viewed negatively there tends to be hostility towards police work. Policy-makers and police authority also need to appreciate the structure and nature of public perception of police in order to institute measures that maximize public support for police work and minimize police-community discordance (p. 162). Police cynicism and unprofessional conducts usually result from and are promoted by the police alienation from the public (Braithwaite and Sonnad, 1984).

On the whole, the Korean public seems to have negative attitudes toward the police judging from periodical and medical content. Lee (1984) says that the public image of the police in Korea is based on the following causes: (1) environmental factors (historical and political background), (2) general prejudice toward the police, (3) police corruption and misconduct, (4) influence of media (p. 31).

(a) The current public image toward the police is partly rooted in residuals of the historic past during the colonial period by Japan, when police were seen as regressors. Because of these past unhappy experiences, the present generation in Korea has been psychologically taught in childhood that the police are horrible beings. Public perceptions of the police today have been affected by the illusion that police are seen as a symbol of Japanese overload. Under the Liberal Party from 1948 to 1960 and the Republican Party from 1961 to 1979,

Koreans had a habit of seeing the police as instruments of the ruling party. Most Koreans long believed that the police were not doing a good job. Korean police have been, consequently, accused of not dealing with police work for citizens, but for the ruling party.

(b) Usually Koreans have thought of the police as uneducated, low paid, and of low status compared to prosecutors and judges. Police officers are even perceived as dirty workers. These circumstances contribute to prejudice that the public has against the police. This prejudice is a barrier in the relations of police and the community (p. 32). As a reaction to public prejudice, the police have a poor self-image and, in some sense, feel hostile toward the public. Both sides have been caught up in an ascending spiral of antagonism (Wilson, 1978:200).

(c) Police corruption is obvious, the most harmful sort of corruption in Korea, because people have had a tendency to see police wrong-doing as that of the immorality, since the police are a representative body (Manning, 1979:335). So there seems to be a more pronounced condemnation of police corruption compared to the corruption of the other government branches. In fact, police officers are in a vulnerable position, particularly traffic police officers and detectives.

(d) Finally, the recent attack on police misbehavior and poor performance by the media has brought attention to the crimes committed by the police and has caused considerable

criticism of their unlawful behavior, particularly that which has violated civil rights. This lack of regard for civil rights is believed to be one of the most important causes of public alienation.

Much literature on the image of police have of the public is generally consistent with the following points: Police frequently perceive their work environment as hostile and uncooperative, and these perceptions encourage the adoption of attitudes and behaviors which can have important consequences for both police performance and police-community interactions (Thomas and Hyman, 1987:307).

Regarding police visibility, although some suggest the increased level of police visibility as one of the general strategies for crime prevention or reducing the fear of crime, it remains controversial even now. The results of the research on the neighborhood foot patrol in Flint, Michigan showed that the citizens felt especially safe when their foot patrol officer was well known and highly visible (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990:217). The foot patrol officers most frequently cited their familiarity with both the people and places in their beats to explain their feeling of security (p. 224). Based on the above findings, the present study expects that the public's perceptions of the police, the police performance, and police visibility would play an important role in establishing police relations with community.

5. Cultural-Ideological factor.

This factor in this study includes group-oriented values, patriotism, and attitudes toward authoritarianism.

a. Group-oriented values

According to Lee (1991), individualism-collectivism is the major dimension of cultural variability, which affects intergroup processes (p. 48). Individualist cultures emphasizes values that serve the self by making the self feel good, be distinguished, and be independent. The core meaning of collectivism is giving priority to group goals over personal goals. Collectivist cultures emphasize values that serve the group by subordinating personal goals for the sake of preserving group integrity, interdependence of members, and harmonious relationships (Triandis et al., 1985:35).

There is empirical evidence that individualism-collectivism is a dominant value system which differentiates cultural groups and nations (Hofstede, 1984). Societies showing a high degree of individualism -- e.g., the United States, Australia, Great Britain, and Canada -- were described as characterized by features such as their emphases on personal autonomy and self-realization, on individual achievement and initiative, and on identity based on an individual's personal attributes.

In societies reflecting a less individualistic

orientation -- Hong Kong, and Taiwan, (Korea fits into this group) -- Hofstede (1984) said that there was likely to be greater emotional dependence on organizations and groups, less privacy, and a tendency for an individual's identity to be defined by one's place in the social system. The latter set of characteristics reveal a value orientation in which various groups look after the individual's interests in return for loyalty to the group.

Before the 1900's, Korea was an agricultural society built on strong family ties. Almost all the people lived in small villages and worked on farms. People owed their loyalty to their families. The family's interest was most important than that of individual. In many cases, grandparents, parents, their sons and unmarried daughters, and the sons' wives and children lived altogether. This arrangement is called an *extended family*. The oldest male served as the head of the family, and all people were expected to obey their elders without question.

The Korean way of life began to change after Japan seized control of the country in 1910. The Japanese brought industry to Korean cities and took much farmland away from the farmers. As a result, many young Koreans moved to the cities to work. This movement weakened Korea's strong family ties. Life in Korea has also changed since World War II. The Korea's economic and political ties with Western nations have brought Koreans under the influence of Western customs.

Probably the most decisive of Korean social values has been Confucianism which is primarily an ethical system. Confucianism, as an established state ideology, existed until the early part of the twentieth century. Even today, family relationships, political attitudes, ways of solving problems, and many other aspects of Korean life reveal the imprint of Confucianism tradition (Kim and Rho, 1982:122). Paternalistic Confucian ethic are encompassing the value/structure of Korean society and shaping the Korean community. This study expects to show that group-oriented values have an impact on the public's cooperation to the police.

b. Patriotism

The most common definition of patriotism is love of country, which is obviously subjective and psychological. Doob (1964) defines patriotism as:

The more or less conscious conviction of a person that his own welfare and that of the significant groups to which he belongs are independent upon the preservation or expansion (or both) of the power and culture of his society (Doob, 1964:6).

Lee (1991) indicates that there are obviously important differences between societies that give rise to variations in the content of patriotism (p. 23). Certainly, the conviction that there is a significant connection between personal or group welfare and the government or state varies from nation to nation. Although the content of the demands behind the nationalism and the nature of the national actions vary,

patriotism from which they spring have certain ingredients that are roughly the same everywhere (p. 24). Patriotic dispositions are seen as universal, built within each group through repeated reinforcements derived from growing up in a given land, among given people, with a given culture. It is thus simply a psychological correlate of growing up in human groups.

The recollection of the flag, a concrete symbol, or something as a national song may on some occasion arouse an internal response. Generally, people's reactions are likely to reflect feelings to a greater degree than the contents: the name of the nation is heard and they feel happy or proud (p. 33). Under the treat of communist North Korea, the Korean students were usually educated to protect democracy through the anti-communism education from elementary school days. Patriotism in Korea is regarded as one of the most important values of evaluating how good student he/she is.

Regarding the relationship of patriotism with nationalism, Doob says that the step from patriotism to nationalism is unavoidable. He defines nationalism as a set of demands, arising from patriotism, for the strengthening and expansion of the society. Nationalism becomes a prime motivating set of beliefs, and becomes a way of motivating people to work for social change and of harnessing their energies into cooperative and coordinated activities. Common sense suggests that strongly patriotic people willingly

support the policies of their government and are even eager to make sacrifices demanded by their leaders (p. 53).

c. Authoritarianism

Lee (1991) explains that the study regarding the authoritarian personality has sought to answer the following question: How are the ethnocentric attitudes and authoritarian ideology of prejudices individuals reflected and manifested in their beliefs, attitudes, and actions? (p. 54) Most research has produced a common conclusion that prejudiced individuals do live their lives in accordance with their ethnocentric attitudes and authoritarian ideologies (Snyder and Ickes, 1972:385).

The present study focuses on authoritarianism in relation to the state, the family, and social issues (e.g., crime and sexual immorality). It attempts to explore how different attitudes of the public toward authoritarianism have an impact on police-community interactions.

D. Introduction to Korea

1. Location and area

Republic of Korea (South Korea) is located on the southern part of the Korean Peninsula in East Asia. The South Korea is a rugged and mountainous country though only

one peak, the Paektu Mountain, in the extreme north exceeds 2,750 meters (9,000 ft) in elevation. Only 15% of the land is classified as plains, and these are mostly along the coast. The dominant topographical feature is a chain of mountains with the Taebak Range at its core running parallel to the east coast (Kurian, 1987:1085-86).

2. Weather

South Korea has a continental climate with dry, cold winters and hot, humid summers. Even though the winters are less severe than in North Korea, snowfalls are not uncommon in the South in winter. However, there is great climatic range even within the country in the winter. Rainfall is concentrated in the April to September rainy season causing damaging floods. Typhoons occur at least once or twice a year (p. 1086).

3. Population

The population of South Korea was estimated at 42,643,000 in 1985 based on the last official census held in 1980. The population is expected to reach 51.7 million in 2000 and 59.4 million in 2020. The annual growth rate has been steadily declining since the 1960s and is now 1.39% based on the annual birthrate of 21 per 1,000. The majority of the people live in the South and southwestern coastal areas. Seoul is the most populous region with 17.6% of the population followed by North

Kyongsang Province (14.5%), South Cholla Province (12.7%), Kyonggi Province (10.7%), etc.

South Korea is rapidly becoming a predominantly urban nation. In 1984 65.35% of the population lived in towns and cities as against 18.4% in 1950, representing an annual urban growth rate of 4.2%. There are seven cities with over 500,000 inhabitants with 77% of the urban population; there are 28 cities with over 100,000 inhabitants containing 46.8% of the national population and 139 cities with over 20,000 inhabitants containing 58.1% of the national population.

The pace of the urbanization was highest in the large metropolitan cities, such as Seoul and Pusan which averaged 9% annually between 1960 and 1970. Seoul itself contains one out of every six South Koreans. The rural population lives in 35,000 farm villages. Government efforts to stem the flow of the population from these villages to the towns include the New Community Movement, launched in 1971. This Movement was designed to stimulate the rural environment by channeling state development funds to rural areas (pp. 1086-87).

4. Ethnic composition

South Korea is the world's most ethnically and linguistically homogeneous nation. Virtually the entire population is of Korean origin and there is no evidence of non-Mongoloid admixture. There is no national ethnic minority. The total resident, non-Korean population is

estimated at no more than 50,000 of whom the majority are Nationalist Chinese. There are no widespread anti-western feelings among the native population (p. 1088).

5. Social structure and values

It is hard to describe Korean society without considering its value system which acts to shape Korea and to maintain the Korean community. Contemporary social values of the Republic of Korea reflect the synthesis and development of diverse influences, both indigenous and foreign. Probably the most decisive of these has been Confucianism which is primarily an ethical system.

Confucianism, as an established state ideology, existed until the early part of the twentieth century. Even today, family relationships, political attitudes, ways of solving problems, and many other aspects of Korean life reveal the imprint of Confucianism tradition (Kim and Rho, 1982:122). Next to Confucianism, Taoism in Korea, with its mystic and naturalistic inclination, provided psychological freedom in a restrictive Confucian society, but was less successful in maintaining itself as a systematic philosophy because of the very formless and negative nature of it (Joe, 1972:90-95). Buddhism as a religion partially influenced the value system of Korean society.

After World War II, western religious, social, and political values such as Christianity, Individualism,

Democracy, and so on, along with Confucianism as an old traditional values, have been instrumental in shaping social values and social structure in Korea. Korean traditional thought, even in the most conservative rural areas, has been changed into a form of thought in which a democratic society could take firm root. At any rate, a quasi-egalitarian ethic of communitarianism, friendship, and mutual aid coexisting with the inegalitarian, paternalistic Confucian ethic are encompassing the value/structure of Korean society and shaping the Korean community.

6. Religion

South Korea has no state religion, and freedom of worship and conscience are guaranteed. Buddhism claims the most adherents, but Christianity is the most influential organized religion. Buddhism has 18 denominations of which the Chongye-Jong is the largest order, accounting for half the number of believers. Confucianism, though less a religion than a moral and political philosophy, displaced Buddhism as the dominant intellectual force in the middle of the 14th century. Chondogyo is an eclectic faith borrowing heavily from Christianity, Buddhism and Confucianism. Christianity, introduced in the late 16th century, was a persecuted religion until 1882 when, by a treaty of friendship signed with the United States, the country was open to missionary work (Kurian, 1987:1087).

7. Colonial Experience

Korea was under Japanese occupation from 1910 when the Yi Dynasty was abolished to 1945 when the country was liberated by U.S and Soviet forces. Japanese rule was entirely negative and oppressive. Although Japanese rule was accompanied by some economic development, the process represented a systematic national humiliation. The Japanese aimed openly to eradicate the Korean national identity and to this end even the use of the Korean Language was banned. Few Japanese legacies have survived the liberation, though relations between the two countries were normalized in 1965 (p. 1088).

8. Education

The national literacy rate is 92.7% (97.5% for males and 87.9% for females). Education is, in principle, compulsory, free and universal for six years from the ages of 6 to 12. The school enrollment ratio is 100% at the primary level and 89% at the secondary level, for a combined enrollment ratio of 95%. Girls make up 49% of primary enrollment, 46% of secondary school enrollment, and 34% of post-secondary enrollment. Schooling consists of 12 years divided into six years of primary school, three years of middle school and three years of high school. The curricula were standardized in 1954 but have undergone many modifications since then, the latest being in 1973 to reflect the national revitalization movement. The academic year runs from March through February. The medium of

instruction is Korean, but English is taught as a compulsory subject from the secondary grades on.

The overall control of education is vested in the Ministry of education, but the public school system is under the administrative direction of the city, county or provincial school boards. Only the higher educational institutions are directly under the Ministry of Education. In 1983 there were 428 colleges and universities in South Korea, including four-year and two-year colleges. Of these, 67 institutions were privately ran. In 1982, 9,760 South Korean students were enrolled in institutions of higher learning abroad. Of these 6,457 were in the United states, 1,743 in the West Germany, 103 in Canada, 984 in Japan and 76 in the United Kingdom (pp. 1102-03).

9. The political and legal traits of the government

The political and legal structure of South Korea is based on the Korean Constitution, which was first adopted on July 17, 1948, and was amended through a national referendum on Oct 22, 1980.

South korea is divided into four special cities, Seoul, Pusan, Inchon and Daegu, and nine provinces, which are under a national government composed of the Administration (executive), the National Assembly (legislative), and Supreme Court (judiciary). The national government is organized by the Government Organization Law and is also characterized by

a democratic form in accordance with the Korean Constitution. Articles 1 and 2 of the Korean Constitution state: The Republic of Korea shall be a democratic republic, and the sovereignty of the state shall reside in the people and all state authority shall emanate from the people.⁹

a. The Administration (Executive)

The President functions not only as head of the executive branch in domestic affairs but also as head of the State Council (the Cabinet) as well as the Supreme Commander of the nation's armed forces. The President's term is a single seven years, and he has the power to appoint and dismiss public officials, including the Prime Minister, members of the State Council, heads of governmental agencies, ambassadors, provincial governors, judges, prosecutors, and other senior public officials (Oh, 1976:65). Important executive agencies include the Presidential Secretariat and the State Council, which in 1985 were headed by the President and included the prime minister and 22 cabinet ministers defined by function. The prime minister and other ministers are chosen by the president.

In addition to the State Council, the President has a number of presidential agencies and councils under his direct control to formulate and carry out national policies. These

⁹South Korea. Korea Annual (1975). Seoul, Korea: Hab Dong News Agency, 1975, p. 316.

include the National Security Council, the economic and Scientific Council, the Board of Audit and Inspection, the Administrative Improvement Research Committee, and the Agency for National Security Planning (the KCIA, until its name was changed in Dec., 1980), and the Advisory Council for Peaceful Unification Policy (Oh, 1976:33).

b. The National Assembly (Legislative)

The Korean National assembly is a unicameral system composed of 276 members elected for 4-year terms. The major functions of the National Assembly include the power to deliberate and propose and approve or reject legislative bills; to finalize and inspect closing accounts of the national budget; to ratify or reject foreign treaties; and to concur in declaration of war or drafting of treaties of peace (p. 34). The Assembly exercises the right to consent to or reject the appointment of the Prime Minister. The National Assembly may, by means of a vote of non-confidence, call for the dismissal of any individual cabinet member or of the Prime Minister; however, in the latter case, there must be a unanimous vote. Cabinet members are required to submit their resignations along with that of the prime Minister.

c. The Supreme Court (Judiciary)

The judiciary is composed of judges who carry out their duties independently in accordance with the Korean

Constitution and law. The chief Justice is appointed by the President with the consent of the National Assembly upon recommendation of the Judge Recommendation Council.

All judges and prosecutors are appointed by the President, but they must pass an examination and train for two years before the appointment. In South Korea, under the continental judiciary system, a judge or panel of judges decides on a legal case without a jury. Judiciary power is vested in various courts, including the Supreme Court, Appellate Courts, District Courts, Family Court, and Courts-martial (p. 35).

d. Regional and local government

South Korea is divided into nine provinces and four province-level special cities. The four special cities and other large cities are divided into wards and towns and counties. Counties are divided into towns, townships, and villages. The military coup of May 1961 brought the dissolution of elected local councils and ended local self-government. Regional and local government is thus under the control of the national government, with local and regional officials being appointed by the level directly above them. Although there has been talk of restoring provincial and local popularly elected assemblies, the limited financial resources of the provinces and local jurisdictions hamper progress in this direction.

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The mayor of Seoul, the capital, is appointed by the president, while the governors of the provinces and the other special cities are nominated by the ministers of home affairs and approved by the president. Lower-level officials such as the mayors of towns are appointed by the provincial governors (Delury, 1987:647-48).

E. Historical Survey of the Korean National Police

Korea has long been known as the land of the Morning Calm, deriving this expression from the Chinese character (Cho-Sun; old name of Korea). Both during and previous to the Yi Dynasty in 1392, Korea was distinguished in its cultural attainments and in the high order of economic, political and moral virtues displayed by the people. Both law and order were accepted principles under which the Korean people lived. This law was of an authoritarian or autocratic type.

The historical process of the formation of the present police system in South Korea will be chronologically described and explained by dividing it into ten stages;

1. Police service in ancient times, 2. Police service in the Yi dynasty (1392-1910), 3. Japanese rule stage (1910-1945), 4. United State military administrative stage (1945-1948), 5. Korean government establishment stage (1948-50), 6. Korean war stage (1950-1953), 7. Post-war restoration and the 2nd

Republic stage (1954-60), 8. The 3rd and 4th Republic, Growth stage (1961-1979), 9. The transitional emergency of 1980, and the 5th Republic of the 1980's (1980-1987), 10. The 6th Republic, following the free election of 1987 (1988-present).¹⁰

1. Police service in ancient times.

The history of Korea stretches back more than 4,200 years. In the year 7 B.C., tribes united themselves south of the Han River and, following the incorporation of tiny but important Karak, established a great kingdom, Koguryo, which embraced the vast territory of present day Manchuria. In 18 B.C., a third kingdom, Paikche, came into being, thus initiating what is known as the era of the three kingdoms. The Silla Dynasty unified Korea in 668 A.D. and passed its sovereignty to the Koryo Dynasty (918-1392) from which Korea was evidently derived. In 1392 the Yi Dynasty began and maintained its sovereignty until the Japanese government exerted its influence on the peninsula.

The condition of public safety of Koguryo (37 B.C.-668 A.D.) was considerably stable, as the power of enforcing law

¹⁰Park, Bum-Rae. The History of Korean Police (Hanguk Kyongchalsa). National Police College, Seoul, Korea: National Police College, 1990, and Suh, Ki-Young. History of Korean Police Administration (Hanguk Kyongchal heangjeongsa), Seoul, Korea: Bup Mun Sa Co., 1976, and Henderson, Gegory. "Constitutional Changes from the First to the Sixth Republics: 1948 to 1987," and Kim, Ilpyong J., and Young-Whan Kihl. Political Change in South Korea. The Korean PWPA, Inc., 1988.

and order was derived from military authority. Generally, the law was enforced strictly, therefore there were few criminals (Park, 1988:57-60). In Silla (57 B.C.-918 A.D), the general police service was undertaken by the Defense Ministry and Judicial police affairs by the Justice Ministry. In Baekche (18 B.C.-600 A.D.), the government structure differed slightly from the others, however, the maintenance of law and order was the responsibility of military authority (pp. 60-66).

The system of the Koryo Dynasty (918-1392) was not yet the independence one. In general, the police function mingled into all fields of administration. Of special note was the police function that undertook the maintenance of the security for the state. This was carried out by the military, and military administration also included the police administration. The Defense Military, one of the six ministries of what was called the national government, assumed the police function as well as military operation. The judicial police affairs also constituted a phase of the jurisdiction of the Justice Military on the national level (pp. 69-93).

2. Police service in the Yi dynasty: 1392-1910

During the first period of the Yi Dynasty, such conditions as existed above still continued. The police were regarded as a branch of the military administration, and garrisons stationed in the provinces exclusively took charge

of penal affairs. There was no independent and professional police organization until the 18th century when *Podo-chung* (Burglar capturing office) was created. This system had been followed by the Korean government for nearly four centuries.

The first historical predecessor of the current police organization may be found at the time of King Hunjong in the Yi dynasty in 1839 (pp. 116-17). Even in such a disordered society, all of the royal family and the public peace were well protected and maintained by the *Podo-chung* who emphasized its duty to the royal family. The *Podo-chung* could not retain its political neutrality against this flexible and changeable monarchical policy. A policy was determined by the contradictory and vacillating policy of the king's law. The reasons for the army rebellion were the king's law and the ruthless exercise of the power of the *Podo-chung*. During this period, owing to the abuse of police power, the people enjoyed little security in terms of their individual lives and personal properties (Oh, 1976:14-15).

Korean's police system was established on a relatively modern basis after the Kab-Oh reformation in 1894. What was then the Justice Ministry undertook the task of police affairs. In March, 1895 -- about 66 years after the time Sir Robert Peel first entertained the idea of and organized civil police service -- the term "police" was introduced in the Imperial Ordinance No. 52, where the police service was included as the responsibility of the Home Ministry (Park,

1988:36-39).

Podo-chung, as a repressive force, reacted to the loss of Korea's isolation through the persecution of foreigners, Catholics, and confucians. During the transition to complete Japanese domination, a series of modern re-organization acts at the very end of the dynasty nationalized this force during the 1890's and 1900's. The acts represented the first formal rule-of-law enactments establishing the legitimacy, authority and powers of the national police force. In 1984, the government established in the Home Affairs Ministry the police bureau, *Kyoungmu-chung*. After fears arose that a too powerful or politicized Police Ministry could execute a coup d'etat, an abbreviated experiment transforming the bureau into an independent police Ministry ended (Lee, 1971:154-55).

3. Police during the Japanese occupation: 1910-45

Before entering the Japanese rule stage, it is important to understand the police system of the transitional period (1894-1909). There was once a more advanced police system which was reformed by King Kojong (1894). The reformed system of the *Podo-chung* was promoted and its status elevated by amalgamating the previous two *Podo-chungs* (one was central and the other was regional) and placing them under the control of the Chief of Home Affairs. The *Podo-chung* name was also eventually changed to the *Kyoungmu-chung*; its level is similar to the present National Police Headquarters. After

this change, the system of *Kyoungmu-chung* was again promoted strongly by the Ministry of Police affairs in 1900; but its system was abolished in 1901 (Park, 1988:134-51).

The ruthless Japanese occupation of 1910-45 was in large measure enforced through a strongly centralized national police bayonet policy, loathed and resisted by the populace. Especially after the failed March 1 (1919) anti-occupation movement, Japan strengthened its central headquarters and divided the country administratively into regional bureaus, stations, sub-stations, and boxes or detachments for the more efficient enforcement of its imperial goals (Nahm, p. 225).¹¹

During this time, a great number of Korean people were killed by the unprovoked gunfire of policemen (*Sunsa*; this refers to the Japanese policemen who hold the rank of patrolman). Because of the Korean people's strong resistance to the ruthless bayonet policy, the police system was again changed into two separate organizations; these were (1) the police for public peace and order, and (2) the military police for military matters and national defense (Park, 1988:12).

4. Police during the U.S military administration: 1945-48

On Japan's unconditional surrender in 1945, the American military government directed the police (along with a national

¹¹The gendarmerie and the civil police grew enormously under the Japanese. Nahm, Andrew C. Korea: Tradition and Transformation. Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corp., 1988.

constabulary). The structure of the force remained centralized. At the beginning of the Korean National Police, even under the U.S military government, there was one central Police Bureau and ten regional police bureaus under the mayor of Seoul Special City and the governors of provinces throughout South Korea; and new police ranks were changed from the old ranks of the Japanese rule stage (Park, 1988:170-75).

The government established the women's police station in the main cities and regional police schools throughout the provinces (July 1, 1946). In addition to its classical function of maintaining public order, investigating crime, and protecting life and property, the U.S military pressed the police in this era into service in the areas of construction, fire fighting, industry and labor, sanitation, and other welfare activities, following the Japanese occupation model.

The classical police functions assumed by this re-invigorated force resolved themselves into five divisions: the Secretariat, concerned with finance, equipment, personnel, education, inspection, legal affairs, and development; public safety, responsible for prostitution, contraband, construction, gun control, hunting, and traffic control; Criminal Investigation; Fire Fighting and communication, overseeing fire prevention, civilian air defense, flood damage, and wire and wireless communication; and Policewomen, involved with juveniles, homelessness, and alcoholism (pp. 176-87)..

During the U.S military administration, the power of summary conviction by a chief of police of each police station was abolished and the cop-on-the-beat no longer carried a sword. These changes were made to restore the public's respect for its police force by dropping all patterns of the Japanese police system (Oh, 1976:20). Thus, with the goal for realizing the so-called democratic policeman, the Korean National Police System had often been changed or reformed in its beginning days to build an effective, efficient and domestic police images. Therefore, this period of the Korean police is one of the most important stage in the formation of the present police system in Korea today.

The hated Japanese police system was remodeled in order to restore public respect for a new democratized police.¹² Unfortunately many Korean policemen and officers had been in the Japanese police force and learned police tactics from the Japanese. Police brutality and corruption were widely reported and contributed to the people's alienation from the government (Nahm, 1988:351).

5. Police in the First Republic: 1948-50

In 1948, the re-organized Korean government assumed

¹²In a memo to the force in 1945, the first Korean director of the re-organized police set out guidelines for the performance of the duties: 1., the force must re-gain the trust and confidence of the populace; 2., officers must remain rational and composed in the face of their difficulties; 3., police conduct must be guided by a sense of fairness; etc., Ibid.

administrative control of the nation from the transitional American military government. It re-integrated the national police into the Home Affairs Ministry, as it had been under the Japanese occupation, and the police have remained under the Ministry's direction, control and supervision ever since. The police bureaucracy has thus consistently retained a nationalized and centralized identity.

During this period, the Korean police had tried hard to build an effective operational police administration through organizational and functional reformation. The new government gave the National Police Director General -- always responsible to the Home Affairs Ministry -- additional divisional responsibility to meet certain post-war domestic circumstances. It also established the Economic Crime Control Division to combat various white collar offenses, Thought Control Division to combat political and ideological offenses against the government, and Communications Division to create effective national exchange of police information by the latest wire and wireless technology. The government also created a special constabulary of combat police to flush out communist guerrillas thought to be in the rural hinterlands. The functional divisions of the ten regional police bureaus and police stations was applied to the National police Headquarters. The Policewomen's Division was abolished, and its personnel and function under the Public Security Division (Park, 1988:183-85).

6. Police during the War: 1950-53

The Korean War required the police to support the armed forces on the battle-field in addition to maintaining their normal functions. In order to do this, the government expanded the police bureaucracy to create Social Supply, Public Defense, Intelligence, Combat and Maritime Divisions. These units guarded the National Assembly, secured places of public accommodation, opposed the infiltration of espionage forces, and controlled illegal fishing within territorial waters. The police thus took on an expanded, multi-faceted personality as both a military and a civilian force.

The important point to be considered in reference to the police role during the Korean War was the effective performance of the dual functions of a military and civilian police, thus making it the critical national organization for national defense. The Korean police's successful performance of this task is an honorable example of excellence in the face of the continued threat of Communist encroachment (pp. 209-25).

7. Police during the Post-war restoration and the Second Republic: 1954-60

After the armistice of 1950 some anti-guerrilla combat police functions continued. Weighing against the favorable reputation, it had earned in the Korean War was the legacy of the increased power the force had accumulated as a tool of the

Japanese during the occupation, and its enlarged responsibilities in the Korean War.

The stronger power of the police, which evolved during the Korean war, generated a feeling of suspicion for the police in the minds of the people. This suspicion was a result of the unresolved fears of police repression and violence which occurred during the Japanese rule. The people's fears and isolation from the police were some degree caused by the abusive use of the police authority and by the lingering image of the Japanese policemen. Furthermore, there was another tendency of isolation from the police, which was made by the political inability of the Democratic Party's government (pp. 226-41).

Police entanglement with the ruling political party tarnished the police image in the post-war recovery years.¹³ It may be said that the police during this time tended to engage in political matters rather than in their formal duties. On the other hand, the police also contributed to the maintenance of public peace and social order during the unsettled domestic situation after the Korean War.

8. Police in the 3rd Republic and 4th Republic: 1961-79

The police had a new chance to improve and develop their

¹³See for more detail, Han, Sung-Joo. The Failure of Democracy in South Korea. University of California Press, 1974, pp. 7-13.

system by the May 16, 1961, military revolution. The following operational mottoes for police administration were under the military government as guidelines for changes.

In the aftermath of the military coup of 1961, the regime promulgated a new code of ideology in order to clear the air. It attempted to:¹⁴

- a. eliminate personal favoritism and rationalize performance;
- b. adopt scientific methods of personnel management;
- c. maintain the purity of the anti-communist crusade through purges;
- d. investigate and prosecute public corruption;
- e. maintain political neutrality

The vehicle for these changes was the Law of Police as public officers, proclaiming a domestic and politically neutral force, and instituting administrative re-organization, recruitment by examination, merit promotion, and modern concepts of management and training. These concepts were further expanded in the early 1970's.

In the 1960's and 1970's (3rd and 4th Republics), Korean society concentrated very heavily on its economic development and neglected its political liberation (however, this trend somewhat reversed itself in the 1980's under the 5th and 6th Republics). There has been some relative relaxation in the use of the police force as an arm of political repression and abuse as society has grouped its way toward constitutional reform and freer elections and expression.

¹⁴South Korea. General Statistical Documents. Seoul, Korea, National Police Headquarters, 1975, p. 16.

During this stage, there were several notable consolidations or changes, creating a new foundation for the police administration, which were based on the domestic principles. These were:

- a. establishment of a planning and screening division (Oct. 2, 1961).
- b. establishment of foreign affairs division as a new police duty (Jul. 11, 1966).
- c. establishment of the eleven combat police units in the jurisdictions of each regional police bureau (Sep. 1, 1967).
- d. enactment of the new police law (Jan. 7, 1969).
- e. changing the National police Technical Academy to the National Police college (Feb. 22, 1972).¹⁵

¹⁵This National Police College was upgraded to a regular 4-year college system in Dec, 1979, in which the inauguration Act of 4 year-course National Police College was promulgated. In 1981, the first term students were admitted. The National Police College, located at Unnam-Ri, Yongin-Kun, Kyongki-Do, had modern educational facilities. Each class of the college has 120 students; 60 in the department of law, and as many in that of public administration. The total number of the students is 480. The class curriculum of the National Police College is almost three times as great that of the general civilian colleges and runs according to the methods of an all-around service education for the students in order to cope with any situation for maintain public law and order readying themselves for the role of one of the advanced societies in the upcoming 21st century. It also plays a vital role in nurturing a sound police morale and culture, by holding a variety of police seminars and symposia music concerts and athletic meetings.

Police Consolidated Training School

This School, located at Bupyung-Dong, Incheon, provides first class training and education for police advanced studies, basic training for junior police staff, and special and practical training courses for security and investigative officers. It also takes responsibility for the training and education of Maritime Police instructors, key personnel of the Combat Police Force and foreign language staff.

Central Police Academy

This Academy, located at Sangmo-Myeon, Jungwon-Kun,

The most important of the above changes was the enactment of the new Police Law. This was intended to protect the rights and liberties of the police and to maintain public peace and order by keeping the working philosophy of the police as one of political neutrality. This new law is also a democratic law, based on the broad principle of democracy, in accordance with the spirit of the Korean constitution, which guarantees a democratic police operation (Handerson, 1988:33). (for the Police organization, 1978; see Appendix E, Figure 1)

9. Police during the transitional emergency and the 5th Republic: 1980-87

In 1980, a number of the worst features of the Yushin Constitution were removed: forced labor could only be imposed as a consequence of criminal conviction; Habeas Corpus and the exclusion of coerced confession from evidence were guaranteed. Some newly conferred rights appear, but largely as ornaments.

The police organization is a centralized national police system, controlled by the central government.¹⁶ The Minister

Chungchungbuk-Do, was established in September, 1987. It is capable of simultaneously offering the six weeks' training course for the police recruits, the two weeks' training course for the grantees of the Combat Police and a variety of basic specialized training courses for junior police.

¹⁶ The Police Organization is a government organization operated on a lineal command system, comprising 13 nation-wide Police Bureaus in large cities and provinces, 201 Police Stations and 3,220 Police Substations, and Detachments on the bases of 1991 figures. It is responsible for protecting the

of Home Affairs directs and controls the police organization. The hierarchy of authority continues from the Minister of Home Affairs to the Provincial Governors or Mayors of Seoul, Pusan, Taegu, Incheon Special cities and down to the police chief at the end. But, the Director General has direct responsibility for the operation of police objectives. The execution the police operation is in the hands of the Director General, followed by the Directors of the Provincial Police bureaus, and by the Police Chiefs (Lee, 1984:21-22) (for the Police organization, 1987; see Appendix E, Figure 2).

The Korean National Police Force is organized with a central Headquarter,¹⁷ 14 Provincial Police Bureaus,¹⁸ and sub

lives and property and democratic life of the people and for maintaining public peace and order. At the same time, it is national entity composed of six supporting institutions including the National Police College which supports 130,000 policemen (70,000 professional policemen, 60,000 combat policemen and compulsory-status policemen)

¹⁷National Police Headquarters is composed of five departments, twelve bureaus, four offices, 34 divisions, five sections, one center. It exercises the highest authority over all police components for maintain public peace and order; established national policies for public peace and order, disseminates such policies to subordinate commands and police stations in cities and provinces and supervises them.

1st Dept.: Services for internal police administration, personnel affairs and communications.

2nd Dept.: Services for traffic, escort, security and guard, counter-espionage operations and civil aviation.

3rd Dept.: Services for security, investigation, detective duty, crime prevention, criminal cases and arrest of criminals.

4th Dept.: Services for forecast and preliminary announcement of precautions and information to maintain public peace

police system such as Police Stations¹⁹ and Police Boxes.²⁰ The Police Headquarter has 5 divisions and each division has several sections (4-8) which are specialized by function and each section is subdivided into several units. The Provincial Police Bureaus are organized with specialized sections such as Administration, Security, Public Safety, Criminal Investigation, Intelligence, Anti-Communist, and Communication. A Police Station is commanded by a senior

and order through collecting, producing and disseminating intelligence and information concerned.

5th Dept.: Services for preventing conspiracy and insurgency activities to overthrow the government and to disrupt the liberal and democratic political system of the nation, and services for international cooperation for the containment of international crimes and criminal organizations.

¹⁸Metropolitan Police Bureau and Provincial Police Bureau are operated and supervised under the authority of the National Police Headquarters, and are responsible for maintaining public peace and order over their own jurisdictional district, respectively, by directing and supervising their own police stations. There are 4 municipal police bureaus and 9 provincial police bureaus.

¹⁹A police station is operated and supervised by the Metropolitan, Municipal and Provincial Police Bureau as the lowest executive forward organization of the police. It is charged with the responsibility of maintaining public peace and order over its own precinct. The chief of police station is charged with the police duties relative to the keeping of public peace and order within the precinct aided by the staff officers of 7 sections, police substations and boxes. The police station carries out duties through seven functioning section.

²⁰The Police Substations and Boxes take preliminary police actions in all criminal incidents, civic services, and accidents as it is the foremost forward Police Post to take first action against any crimes and offenses occurring within its own designated district ward of responsibility.

superintendent (Police Chief), and it has an average of 12 to 14 police boxes. Police substations and boxes are commanded by a lieutenant or sergeant according to the size of the precinct.²¹

10. Police in the 6th Republic: 1988-present.

The 1987 constitutional amendment, unlike the previous amendment, was genuinely reform-oriented in the sense that it expanded the rights of the citizenry and also restored and strengthened the power of the legislature, thereby reversing the historical trend of augmenting executive power. There have been no major changes as to basic structure of the police organization since the beginnings of the 6th Republic in 1988.

However, in 1990 the government accepted the 1989 National Administrative Reform Commission's proposal for a new Police Law which would create a "non-partisan" policy board within the Ministry of Home Affairs to review and advise the police system as to its rules and regulations. The proposal was sent to the National Assembly for action in May of 1991, and begun to be effective in August of 1991 (for the new Police organization, 1991; see Appendix E, Figure 3).

The reform proposal of the current 6th Republic government seems to be silent on the question of implementation by law of the principle of neutralization, for

²¹Korean National Police Headquarters. The Law of Police Officers Execution. 1985, p. 30.

example by the constitutional provision which the scholars recommend. The weight of opinion of those scholars who have considered the question of police neutralization is that the de-politicization of the force should be accomplished by the constitutional provision. It would help to protect the police and the people from politicization in a fundamental way.

The government proposal supported the independent commission proposal in name because its own proposal would place such a commission within the Ministry of Home Affairs -- and thereby obviously keep it political. The police force can not be independent of the government and politics, because the police commission is placed within the Ministry of Home Affairs. In doing so it continues support of current system of strict centralization.

In addition, the major reform for which there was strong consensus is the necessity to establish an independent watchdog commission to review police behavior from the point of view of assuring political neutralization. The government supports the unified police law idea, but on the ground of efficiency rather than democracy. It also supports a police structure independent of Ministry of Home Affairs but makes no mention of the issue of decentralization. Overall, the government's proposal is political and self-serving. It seemed to be an attempt to comprise with the forces of protest, criticism and reform i.e., the media, the opposition party, general public opinion, and the police themselves by

giving as little as possible while claiming to be moving in a progressive direction.

However, this reform would be a first step of the police progress in police political neutralization and police organizational development in Korean police history. On the other hand, the traditional police force in Korea was too efficient from the point of view of democracy, whereas a completely decentralized force would become more democratic but might lose too much in the way of efficiency. Thus, the degree of decentralization would depend on the stage of Korean development and social security.

In conclusion, a constitutional provision on neutralization, an independent commission, and a balanced decentralization will be necessary and beneficial to police political neutralization.

F. The Analysis of Korean Police

1. The interaction of three factors.

It is wise here to discuss the interaction between policemen as individuals, the police as an organization, and historical and political backgrounds as environments, in order to facilitate an analysis of each factor's identity. To derive an identity of the Korean police, who are the chief subject of police-community interactions (PCI), these three factors must be taken into account: the individual factor-- as

a policeman within the organization; the form of organization; the environment of the organization. Individuals make up an organization, but within structural constraints. Organizations change as a result of external and internal forces, but the changes themselves occur within the limits of the preexisting organizational structure and the environment in which the organization operates (Lee, 1984:14).

The present Korean police system can be characterized as authoritarian, powerful, and highly centralized as well as democratic. It is based on a continental German and French model which places the national police force on a level above the people, and the American small-scale police force model which places the police on the same level with the people (p. 15). The major functions of the Korean police force are to prevent crime, protect life and property, preserve peace, safeguard civil rights, and maintain social order. Beyond that, they have the responsibility of regarding public health facilities, factories, construction, and business; and to meet these responsibilities, they issue permits, licenses, and orders mandated by law.²² Compared to other countries, another important function is to maintain the national defense.

As shown above in the historical section, Koreans have had negative bias towards police for a long time, most likely

²²Korean National Police Headquarters. The Law of Police Officers Execution. Seoul, Korea, 1985, p. 35.

stemming from the colonial period by Japan. Because of this fear, they tend to fear the police and obey police orders and directives. This fear of police officers is inculcated early in children, whose mothers, in an attempt to curb their misbehavior, threaten to call the police to take them away. Seemingly, the Korean police have been, by and large, immune to criticism by the public due to dissatisfaction with various conditions, low social status, and confusion due to the co-existence of the quasi-egalitarian ethic with that of the Confucian ethic.

2. The policemen as individuals

In most instances, to be a policemen in Korea means a lifetime commitment to the profession. A survey by Choi (1978) shows the following: more than 60 percent of all policemen surveyed had chosen to be a policeman for the professional reasons -- that is, they think police work is a good job for a man; about 40 percent of the policemen surveyed chose to join the police so they could serve their society and country (policemen often make this choice because they have been oriented toward the official values of the government, influenced by the traditional values of the Korean society, and they have been driven by an ambition to be a higher ranking police officer) (pp. 30-63).

The fundamental values of Korean policemen, as indicated by their mottoes, are loyalty to the organization and to the

spirit of serving society and country. These values reflect traditional Korean values. A large number of Korean policemen are of rural origin. Their social status usually is that of the middle working class, which favors a conservative stance on the subject of the social phenomenon and tends to legitimize the moral authority of the upper strata. These policemen tend to be decent, obedient, law-abiding people who would like to live in a well-ordered society in which people respect laws and law enforcement officers as well (Lee, 1984:24). Their conservative background leads them to believe that a challenge to a policeman is a challenge to authority and such a challenge is in itself a form of criminal behavior (Fink and Sealy, 1974:16-17).

Basically, Korean policemen are suffering from low pay, low social status, a heavy working load, and serious public prejudice against the police. Traditionally, policemen have been held in lower esteem than other government officials, who have passed higher levels of civil service examinations or those who have passed examinations to become lawyers and prosecutors. Obviously, the relatively low social status of most policemen, excluding high ranking police officers above the senior superintendent level, has resulted in little recognition for the people who do police work. Therefore, they receive low pay for the duty work which affects the quality of their life style, their performance on the job, their morale, and so on.

It is commonly accepted that police self-respect and self-confidence, as well as community support, are essential prerequisites to efficient and effective policing in the community interactions (Janeksela and Deming, 1979:74-76). The self-image of the police is basic to PCI because individual policemen deal with PCI and police perceptions of self depending what and how they have been thinking of themselves. In this regard, the self-image of police in Korea are in danger, since almost all Korean policemen are dissatisfied because they receive little acclaim or respect and are often severely criticized and even scorned. The following are causes of low police morale and poor self-image in Korea: (1) lack of understanding and support by citizens resulting in a bad public image, (2) inadequate pay and, consequently, low social status, (3) lack of professionalism, (4) poor ethics, (5) little chance for advancement, (6) incredibly poor administrative leadership and supervision (unfair practices in terms of assignment and promotion, no recognition of differences in performance by individual officers, aloofness of police chiefs and top officers), and (7) inability to relax at home due to manpower shortage and much paperwork (Lee, 1984:30-31). Such conditions cannot but make police officers frustrated and cynical about their jobs and contribute to a low morale and negative self-image. As a result, the police become weak, passive shallow, dependent, and lacking in self-respect and awareness (Souryal, 1979:77-

79).

Choi indicated that Korean policemen have to work on the average 18 hours a day, five days a week and pointed out that Korean police, compared to other countries, have the heaviest population burden per police officer (in 1980, 664 people per policeman in Korea compared with 363 people per policeman in the United States, and 552 people in Japan) (p. 61).²³ Given these difficult circumstances, it is hard for policemen to see their job as a decent, respectable mission. It is hard for them to fully perform their job as fighters against crime and disorder, since they are expected to be obedient to their seniors as well as be loyal or faithful to the organization, society, and country. Because of these difficulties, it is unlikely that policemen can be expected to be ethical, clean, and elegant.

As a matter of fact, Korean society has excessively expected the police to be much more moral, clean, and decent than any other government officials, while the former are paid less than the latter. The real problem can be found in the gap between the values and perception of the policemen about their job and the expectations of the society. It is not unusual to find younger police officers publicly complaining about their low pay, low social status, lack of communication with the top ranking police officers (due to the authoritarian

²³In 1990, 535 people per policeman in Korea compared with 354 people per policeman in the United States, and 555 people in Japan.

nature of the police organization), and their hard working load compared with experienced old police officers who believe that complaining is not a virtue. In any case, the perception and values of the police and the social status of the police profession are key factors in terms of overall police performance and police-community interactions.

3. Korean police system as an organization

Traditional Korean bureaucracy has not been based on the "rule of law" but on the "rule of man," particularly elites called Yang-Ban by the Yi dynasty. The ruling elites exercised Korean bureaucracy by means of their ethic and ascribed status. In historical perspective, the contemporary Korean police force still apparently retains, to some extent, this traditional legacy of police organization of elites rather than that of the rule of law. The value system of Korean police has been influenced by the following factors: a compulsive drive for power, a submissive attitude toward authority and its consequent administrative behavior of "dependence and loyalty" rooted in authoritarianism; a lack of professionalism; a Confucian hierarchical subordination; and the morality of Buddhism and Taoism (Kim and Rho, 1982:117-38).

Subscribing to those values, the central government alone provides leadership and executes police authority. All of the Korean National Police Forces work along with executive ideas.

Provincial Police Directors supervise and control the police stations in their jurisdiction, but the Provincial Police Directors cannot move or assign duties to the police chiefs. Subsequently, the police are controlled by the central government.²⁴

Thus, all of the police officials are centralized by a pyramid structure, with rigid superior-subordinate relationships divided by eleven ranks from the Director General down to the patrolman. It reveals a one-way downward communication in the form of orders, stressing the repressive nature of the work of the organization. Lee (1984) says that the police seem to be more authoritarian and powerful than necessary, because they have played the strong "right hand" of the authoritative government, particularly under the Liberal Party; the people, as a whole, are very obedient to police directives (p. 21).

4. The police relationships to the political environment

Some police organization are directly affected by the political process, because their hierarchy can be drastically changed by the election results and top ranking police officers are changed at the discretion of the new administration (Hall, 1977:307). The political situation that brings about the new laws also has its effects on

²⁴The department of the Army. South Korea, A Country Study. Washington, D.C: American University, 1982, pp. 230-60.

organization. Organizations in the private sector are less directly affected than public ones, but they must still be attuned to the political climate. Namely, power-oriented organizations such as schools, social work agencies, and hospitals (p. 318).

Theoretically, it would be wise to take a look at the interaction between the police organization and politics. Political changes have accompanied major police changes. The police are keenly aware of the extent to which the city government does or does not intervene in the department depending on particular interests (Wilson, 1978:223). Thus, police work is carried out under the influences of a political culture though not necessarily under day-to-day political direction. The police are in all cases keenly sensitive to their political environment without in all cases being governed by it (p. 230).

Some democracies have expressed great reservation, even fears, over police participation in politics (Berkeley, 1967:172). Police in the United States cannot run for office or take an active role in politics on the grounds that the mixing of police power with political power might produce conditions unhealthy for a democratic state (p. 174).

Historically, policing tends to be viewed primarily as a political institution, inextricably tied to the executive responsibility for enforcement for laws enacted by legislatures and interpreted by courts. It is difficult to

evaluate the police system without considering the background of its government (Radelet, 1986:305).

How the political environment has shaped the Korean police system and how the Korean Police system has fitted and reacted to the political environment is to be considered in many respects. The current Korean police system has been closely related to political power since 1948. The police force usually wasted a lot of time on performing political functions such as political intelligence activities and surveillance of political dissenters. Under the Liberal Party in 1960 they had manipulated the presidential election. There was no doubt the government had made the police system its instrument for the purpose of seizing and maintaining political power. The majority of police chiefs and high ranking police officers were replaced at once with other government officials by the new political power in 1962. Since then the police system has suffered from uncertainty due to political influences. The Korean police system was characterized in its early years by a low degree of professionalism, factionalism, endemic corruption, and political manipulation (Lee, 1984:19).

The application of constitutional protection has fluctuated according to political preference. Leaders of Korean Police Forces have emphasized a political-oriented posture rather than a people-oriented posture. Because they have suffered from uncertainty due to political influences,

they cannot help but respond to the pressure of the political environment. The police system of a dictatorship's state is the chief instrument of political dominating, answerable to no one and to no institution except the will of the leader of oligarchy. One of the most prominent distinctions between law enforcement in a democratic society and that of a totalitarian society is the sharp democratization of the police role. When law enforcement is the servant of the state, rather than of the people, the individuals of the state may live as a free people, or in virtual serfdom, depending on the will of those in power, or of an oligarchy regime (pp. 19-20).

Organizations of every kind contain their own internal radicals and reactionaries in terms of their responses to environmental conditions. According to Strabuck, organizations go about constructing or inventing their environments -- organizing to develop a set of strategies for dealing with.

The Korean police system, however, has been sensitive to the political party and, therefore, deprived of efforts to control the political environment. In addition, the loyalty of the police chiefs to the government was checked, promotions and assignments of the positions were granted according to their degree of loyalty. Until 1980, for police chiefs to continue their careers with security, it was necessary to have a good relationship with influential members of the political party. With political power, police chiefs can be strong and

feel comfortable. In fact, most police chiefs had informal relationships with politicians. As discussed above, the Korean Police Forces have been too dependent on the political environment and vulnerable because of it.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

All data in this study is assumed to be derived from the subjects' experiences in their home countries. The study also attempts to compare similarities and differences of major factors. This chapter includes research hypotheses, statistics, methodology and procedure, and operationalization.

A. Sampling procedures

1. Justification for selecting sample

The purpose of the study is to assess public attitudes toward the police in Korea through a field survey. To conduct a field study, some scientific method must be applied. That is, a sample must be selected as a representative of the whole population to be studied. In order to do that, the total number must be known by either having the list of their names or the location and the number of each house; but due to the fact that there was no list available nor numbered houses, the writer found that the telephone listing was not enough for selection nor was car registration. Not everyone has a telephone nor everyone has a car.

Faced with the reality and the importance of the issue to be studied, the study decided to use another alternative, the only logical one of this time, mainly studying the public attitudes through its youngsters. The high school students as well as college or university students have been living in the

system over sixteen years; therefore, measuring their attitudes reflects not only their own reactions, feelings and experiences, but also reflects, to some extent, their parents', and society's attitudes through the socialization process. Another advantage of studying those students is the availability of their total number and their school location, which makes the study easily accomplished and readily employed the scientific method of social research.

For these reasons, it was decided to conduct a field inquiry to measure the students' attitudes toward the police in Seoul, Korea, and restrict this study to a city, selecting the largest city, the capital of Korea, Seoul.

2. Respondents

This study was accomplished through questionnaire surveys and interviews. The sample consisted of Korean high school, college or university students residing in the city of Seoul, Korea. The sample size of these groups would be supposed to be made of about 1,150 students -- 650 high school students and 500 college or university students.

The primary data for the study was collected by the self-administered anonymous questionnaires to 650 male students (11th grade) in the selected high schools and 500 university students in Seoul during the summer, 1991. Due to analytic rather than descriptive characteristics of the research the primary concern in the sampling procedure was to obtain an

adequate amount of variation in terms of respondents. In this sense, the present study employed a multi-stage cluster sampling method. Before the actual sampling, the permission for the use of students as the research subjects was obtained from the city of Seoul Board of Education. Seoul is the capital of Korea. All ministries and most large business firms are located in Seoul. The central-decision-making process for the whole nation for major issues and the matters of the importance to all citizens are originated and declared from Seoul. Most government employees work in Seoul for at least some time because of the job opportunities and due to the fact that the administrative headquarters are located there.

The City of Seoul is geographically divided into the two parts by the Han River. The northern part of the city is the original territory of the city, while the southern part is the newly developed and expanded urban area. In a variety of ways, the northern part is somewhat more old fashioned and traditional, while the southern part is more westernized and modernized in many respects, for example, in its housing patterns. Seoul, as a whole, is estimated to have about 145 male high schools, 49 in the northern part and 96 in the southern part. At the first stage, two high schools were randomly selected from each part of the city. As a result, four high schools were accordingly selected, one located in Young-Dung-Po District and another from Kang-Nam District,

both from the southern part of the city, two high schools from Seo-Dae-Mun District were chosen from the northern part of the city.

Three 11th grade classes were randomly selected from each school. Therefore, there were a total of twelve 11th classes selected. In general, the normal estimated size of each class is about 54 students (based on 1991 school year). All of the students in those 12 classes selected were thus eligible to participate in the survey. The reason for using 11th graders as the potential survey participants was based on the assumption they would enter colleges or universities or get various jobs and participate in the decision-making process of their nations as responsible individuals in the near future.

Seoul, as a whole, is estimated to have about 34 universities and colleges, 19 in the northern part and 15 in the southern part. At the first stage, one university or college was randomly selected from each part of the city. As a result, one University located in Yong-San District from the southern part, and another university from Seo-Dae-Mun District from the northern part were selected. First, 5 major departments out of about 30 departments were selected from each university. The students out of the 5 departments were randomly selected by the class time schedules.

After having chosen the schools and classes, an appropriate time and date for the administration of the survey questionnaire was arranged in cooperation with the Board of

the Education, the School District, and each school. The questionnaire was administered in the class rooms. The students participating in the survey were assured of anonymity and encouraged by the survey administrator to request private assistance in understanding or responding to any particular item.

As a result, a total of 650 high school students participated in the survey, and, among them, 612 cases were collected. However, since there were 37 incomplete cases, they were automatically excluded from the analysis. After examining the responses, the illogical response cases were also excluded. For example, if a student answered 2 in Q.94, he must skip from Q.95 to Q.97 (see Appendix A, Questionnaire in English). In the same way, if a student answered 2 in Q.98, he should not answer from Q.99 to Q.101. If it was not, all of them were excluded. There were 77 illogical cases.

In addition, the researcher excluded intentionally some of answer cases which were completed with insincerity. For example, if cases were answered more than 15 same number continuously, they were regarded as insincere cases by the researcher. There were 48 insincere cases. Therefore, a total of 450 cases provided the data for analysis in this study.

In the same procedure, the questionnaire was administered in the university class rooms. As a result, a total of 500 male university students participated in the survey, and,

among them, 490 cases were collected. However, since there were 14 incomplete cases and they were automatically excluded from the analysis. The 14 illogical answer cases were also excluded. In addition, the researcher excluded intentionally some of answer cases which were completed with insincerity. For example, if cases were answered more than 15 same number continuously, they were regarded as insincere cases by the researcher. There were 45 insincere cases. Therefore, a total of 415 cases provided the data for analysis in this study.

B. Measurement scales

In developing the measurement scales, previous studies provided a general outline. Through a thorough and comprehensive review of the literature on the topic, a broad range of items were collected. From those already published items, those relevant to the present study were screened and selected. A few more specific items for the study were also added. The English version of the questionnaire was then translated into the Korean language by the present investigator, however, with regard to the measurement in any kind of cross-cultural study, it seems that standardization and comparability are the two most important concerns for the researchers (Newman, 1977; Blalock, 1982). To address this concern, the back and forth translation methods in which items are translated into the Korean language first then translated

back into English by a different interpreter was employed (Triandis, 1976). In case any significant differences were found between the original items and the back-translated items, the appropriate changes were made until they reasonably matched each other.

After these procedures, the translated Korean questionnaire was pretested. The primary Korean questionnaire was given to 20 male high schools and 10 male university students in Seoul, Korea. They were asked to assess the questionnaire in terms of concept clarity and applicability of each item. Through this assessment procedure, certain changes and modifications were made in order to make the final survey instrument to be clearer, easier, and quicker to complete.

Regardless of how well the instruments are developed, organized, and written, it seems necessary to pay special attention in terms of reliability and validity whenever the items are translated. Although there is no way to say that every translated item is reliable and valid, there is an increasing consensus in the field the most translated items are reasonably reliable and valid. Although they may not be better than the original items, they are certainly as reliable and valid as the original ones, when they are well developed, organized and written.

C. Research hypotheses

As mentioned previously, the general purpose of this study is the beginning of inquiry into the nature of police-community interactions in Korea. This study will be basically inquisitive and explorative in nature. At the same time, this approach might serve to increase both the precision of our findings by limiting the number of variables and simplify comparison of this study with its prototypes conducted in heterogenous societies. Yet, some generality is desirable to broaden the scope of observation in a preliminary effort. Also, one should consider that constructing hypotheses in advance runs the risk of missing some real-life problems.

In this section, the hypotheses are developed based on the literature review and interviews with the professionals in the field of policing. As mentioned in chapter 2, the definition or nature of the term "public cooperation" differs in many ways from society to society. The uniqueness of each society in its culture, political situation, population size, composition, and wealth generates differences in the approach taken by the police to obtain the cooperation of the community with the police. Therefore, the factors associated with the public's cooperative attitude toward the police vary among different societies. This study assumes that there would be variations in the subjects' perception toward major factors associated with the public's cooperative attitude toward the police and willingness to make contact with the police.

In this study, the cooperative attitude of the public

towards the police indicates whether or not the subjects would turn to the police in situations they face as a witness of even a minor crime; whether the subjects would be willing to cooperate with the police when they were asked to be collaborators by the police. Along with this major examination, the study also attempts to explore what factors are related with the subjects' willingness to contact the police when they were a victim or in need. In addition, the study will also attempt to find out about general attitudes toward police.

In this study, the public's cooperation towards the police and the public's willingness to contact the police, as perceived by the subjects, is assumed to be a function of the following variables as indicated;

$$\begin{aligned} Y1 \text{ (ACWC)} &= f \text{ (X1- X23)} \quad (\text{Q76, to Q80, Q88 to Q93})^1 \\ Y2 \text{ (WTVN)} &= f \text{ (X1- X23)} \quad (\text{Q81 to Q87}) \\ Y3 \text{ (GATP)} &= f \text{ (X1- X23)} \quad (\text{Q14 to Q24}) \end{aligned}$$

where, Y1 (ACWC) = Attitude of the public to cooperate with the police as a witness or collaborator

Y2 (WTVN) = Willingness of the public to make contact with the police as a victim and a person in need

Y3 (GATP) = General attitudes toward police

1. Community-Related factors: (CORF) (Q60, Q61, Q63)

X1 = Community cohesion (CC) (Q60, Q61)

X2 = Perception of the community-related policing organizations (PCRPO) (Q63)

¹y=dependent variable, f=functions, X=independent variable, Q=question

X3 = Awareness of the community-related policing organizations (ACRPO) (Q62, Q65)

2. Political factors: (PF) (Q11, Q13, Q54 to Q56)

X4 = Trust in government (TG) (Q54 to Q56)

X5 = Political efficacy (PE) (Q11, Q13)

3. Crime-Related Factors: (CRF)
(Q35, Q57 to Q59, Q94, Q98)

X6 = Perception of crime (PC) (Q35, Q57)

X7 = Fear of crime (FC) (Q58, Q59)

X8 = Experience of victimization (EV) (Q94, Q98)

4. Police-Related Factors: (PRF)
(Q14 to Q24, Q36, Q37, Q67, Q68)

X9 = Perception of the police (PP) (Q14 to Q24)

X10 = Evaluation of the police performance (EPP)
(Q36, Q37)

X11 = Visibility of the police (VP) (Q67, Q68)

5. Cultural-Ideaogical Factors: (CIF)
(Q1 to Q4, Q6 to Q10, Q50 to Q53)

X12 = Group-oriented values (GOV) (Q6 to Q9)

X13 = Attitude towards authoritarianism (AAU)
(Q1 to Q4, Q10)

X14 = Patriotism (PAT) (Q50 to Q53)

6. Other variables

X15 = Friend's perception of the police (FPP)
(Q25 to Q27)

X16 = Vocational preference factor (VPF) (Q38 to Q42)

X17 = Self-reporting delinquency (SRD) (Q43 to Q49)

7. Demographic Variables (Q105 to Q112)

X18 = Age (Q105)

X19 = Academic grade (Q106)

X20 = Religious activities (Q107)

X21 = Father's job (Q108)

X22 = States of family (Q109, Q110)

X23 = Family income(month) (Q111, Q112)

As mentioned earlier, the unique conjunction of socio-cultural environments of these countries would create the

differences in factors affecting the public's cooperative attitudes. In Korean cases, for the high school students, the study anticipated that the crime-related factors and cultural-ideological factors would be more critical than community-related, police-related and political factors in explaining police relations with community. For the university students groups, the study expected that the police-related factors and political factors would play a more important role in forming the police relations with community than community-related, crime-related, and cultural-ideological related factors.

Since each factor consisted of more than two operational variables, the hypotheses were developed based on both the five factors and the operational variables.

1-A. For the high school students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with the police will be associated with cultural-ideological factors more than any other factors.

1-B. For the high school students, the general attitudes toward the police will be associated with crime-related factors more than any other factors.

2-A. For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with the police will be associated with police-related factors more than any other factors.

2-B. For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police will be associated with political factors more than any other factors.

3. The attitudes toward police of high school students seem to be more favorable than those of university students.

4. There tends to be a significant association between the attitudes of an individual toward the police, and certain identifiable characteristics of that individual such as academic performance, father's occupation, family income, peer groups attitudes, and previous contact with the police.

5. There is a difference in attitudes toward the police between groups of higher and lower socioeconomic status.

6. Much of the delinquency literature suggested a negative response by youths who have been in contact with the criminal justice system. On this point, Dr. Giordano in her analysis of juvenile reaction to the justice system found out that "youths with greater system contact actually expressed more positive attitudes than did their less experienced counterparts (Giordano, 1976:45)." If her conclusion is valid, then the following hypothesis will not stand in the affirmative.

There is a positive correlation between self-reported delinquency and crime with an increase in negativity of attitudes toward the police.

7. There is a relationship between the extent of the actual plan of individuals to enter police career (Q.69) and certain identifiable characteristics of that individuals (demographic variables, other person's reaction to the career plan).

D. Statistical Methods

The study will utilize descriptive statistics, T-test, chi-square test and multiple regression analysis as major statistical techniques. The initial task is to compare the mean scores of the variables as perceived by the respondents, using all the variables used in this study. As a following step, T-test, chi-square test and regression analysis will be performed in order to examine the factors associated with the attitudes of the students toward cooperation with the police and willingness of the public to contact the police.

Initially, in order to check the internal consistency of multi-item summed indices, the values of Cronbach's alpha was examined through reliability analysis. The range was from .45 to .79. Factor analysis was conducted to identify these

factors that are substantially meaningful. According to the SPSS/PC+ Advanced Statistics, factor analysis is a technique used to identify a relatively small number of factors that can be used to represent relationships among sets of many interrelated variables (Norusis, 1988:B-41). Even though most items for factor analysis were chosen from the indices already identified as having high validity and reliability in a Lee's study (1991), the present study expected to find differences in the items represented as a factor in Korea.

In the present study the researcher will make use of both descriptive and inferential statistics in reporting the findings of the study. As a first step of the analysis, the mean scores of all variables will be compared in order to examine the differences in them .

Descriptive statistics

- (1) Frequencies of responses to selected questions of special interest.
- (2) Mean, range, and variances measuring the cooperative attitudes toward the police as a collaborator, the willingness to contact with the police as a victim, general attitudes toward the police, self-reporting delinquency, demographic variables and so on.
- (3) contingency tables displaying the observed frequencies within each cell.

Inferential statistics.

As a second step, T-test was conducted in order to examine the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. T-test is a statistical test conducted to examine whether two means scores differ in a population. The null hypothesis for such a comparison is that of no difference between the group means. If the observed significant level is less than .05, the null hypothesis (H_0) that the population means are equal will be rejected. According to the SPSS/PC+ Base Manual, the observed significant level is the probability that a difference at least as large as the one observed would have arisen if the means were really equal" (Norusis, 1988:122). In this study, hypothesis verification was tested at a significant level of $P < .05$. This relatively high level was set due to the fact we are measuring attitudes, which are imprecise at best.

The chi-square test of independence was used to test for significant deviation from independence in contingency tables where no directional alternative hypothesis seemed appropriate. The null hypothesis for such a test is that of independence of the two variables and/or classification considered. This hypothesis is rejected for $P < .05$ and otherwise accepted. The test for an (row) by (column) table involves calculation of a normalized sum of squared deviations of observed from expected frequencies and comparison of the resulting statistic to the chi-square distribution with (row-

1) by (column-1) degrees of freedom.

The strength and nature of the dependence of variables is of central concern. According to the SPSS User's Guide, indexes that attempt to quantify the relationship between the variables in a cross-classification are called *measures of association* (Norusis, 1990:131). No single measure adequately summarizes all possible types of association.

The chi-square statistic itself is not a good measure of the degree of association between two variables. But its widespread use in the tests of independence has encouraged the use of measures of association based on it (p. 132).

When directional alternatives seemed appropriate, tests were based on the Spearman ordinal data rank correlation coefficient. The Spearman correlation coefficient is a commonly used measure of correlation between two ordinal variables (p. 137). This statistic was chosen over the more familiar Pearson continuous data product-moment correlation coefficient due to the ordinal nature of the data. This test differs from the chi-square test of independence in that it is more powerful against directional alternatives. Again, the null hypothesis was rejected for $P < .05$ and accepted otherwise. This Spearman correlation analysis between the independent and dependent variables were conducted to validate the results of the T-test. This analysis is done in order to measure association between two ordinal variables that estimate the direction of linear relationship. The Spearman

correlation coefficient is symbolized "Rs" in the table. Values of correlation coefficient range from 0; no relation to + 1; a perfect positive relationship and -1; a perfect negative relationship. In interpreting a correlation coefficient, the closer to zero the weaker the relationship, while the stronger correlation is closer to 1.0 (Hagan, 1982: 251-52). Through T-test and chi-square test, the study attempted to examine factors that are associated with the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police.

To evaluate the hypotheses, the study needs to state the null hypothesis, H_0 , that can be tested and presumably rejected by the data. Since the substantial hypothesis is that the two means are unequal, the null hypothesis must be that the means are equal (Bohrnstedt and Knoke, 1988:188-91).

As a third step, multiple regression analysis was employed to evaluate the relative importance of the various variables in their contribution to variation in the criterion variable (Kachigan, 1986:239). It is measure of association showing the amount of increase or decrease in a continuous dependent variable for a one-unit difference in the independent variable, controlling for the other independent variables in the equation (Bohrnstedt, 1988:381).

Stepwise regression, although its ultimate results will be the same as the linear regression model, is capable of providing additional information concerning the order of relative importance of the contribution for each of

independent variables in regards to the dependent variable. In stepwise regression, the researcher specifies only the dependent variable and a list of possible explanatory variables rather than the exact model to be estimated. The program doing the regression then successively selects variables for inclusion in the equation on the basis of which one will yield the greatest increase in R^2 (Hanushek and Jackson, 1977). Through a multiple regression test, the study attempted to extract influential factors affecting (1) attitude of the student to cooperate with the police, (2) willingness of the student to contact the police, (3) the general attitudes toward the police, out of fourteen independent variables and three demographic variables -- academic grades, father's job and socioeconomic status -- as perceived by the respondents themselves. A regression model was established:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1 &= a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_{19}X_{19} + e \\ Y_2 &= a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_{19}X_{19} + e \\ Y_3 &= a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_{19}X_{19} + e \end{aligned}$$

where Y_1 = Attitude of the public to cooperate with the police
as a witness or collaborator

Y_2 = Willingness of the public to make contact with the
police as a victim and a person in need

Y_3 = General attitudes toward police,

a = constant

X_1, X_2, X_3 = community-related factors

X_4, X_5 = political factors

X_6, X_7, X_8 = crime-related factors

X_9, X_{10}, X_{11} = police-related factors

X_{12}, X_{13}, X_{14} = cultural-ideological factors

X_{15}, X_{16} = other factors

X17, X18, X19 = demographic variables
b1, b2,b19 = coefficients of X1, X2,X19.
e = errors

Hypothesis verification was tested at a significant level of $P < .05$.

E. Operationalization

After having collected the data, the next step is to derive an appropriate measurement model based on the sample responses. In developing clusters, a provisional synthesis of the content analysis and exploratory factor analysis of the items provided the input for provisional confirmatory factor analysis. A number of items were grouped as a variable in a way that conceptually and theoretically seemed to measure the same construct based on previous relevant studies.

As a result, 93 items formed 16 independent variables and 3 dependent variables. Due to different characteristics, these variables were subjected to the separated multiple group factor analysis. The results of cluster analysis were not statistically satisfactory in terms of internal consistency. At this point, the explanatory factor analysis (a principle axis factor analysis with communalities followed by a varimax rotation) was conducted to see the formation of subclusters.

Based on the content of all items within each cluster, the conceptual homogeneity of each cluster was examined and some corrections were made by comparing items within each cluster on their communalities with low communality items

removed to other clusters, and were then subjected to another confirmatory factor analysis where they were shown to be in agreement. In other words, items with low communalities were moved around the clusters until all the clusters were substantively homogenous and internally and externally consistent. The cluster items showed higher correlations with their own cluster true scores as compared to all other scores. In terms of measurement error, all other clusters were evaluated as relatively reliable due to their standard coefficient alpha scores. The actual clusters of the study are presented below, by reporting their standard coefficient alpha.

Y1 (ACWC) = Attitude of the public to cooperate with the police as a witness or collaborator
(alpha= .7342)

Y2 (WTVN) = Willingness of the public to make contact with the police as a victim and a person in need
(alpha= .6378)

Y3 (GATP) = General attitudes toward police
(alpha= .7186)

1. Community-Related factors: (CORF) (alpha= .6188)

X1 = Community cohesion (CC) (alpha= .7124)

X2 = Perception of the community-related policing organizations (PCRPO) (alpha= .4730)

X3 = Awareness of the community-related policing organization (ACRPO) (alpha= .4670)

2. Political factors: (PF) (alpha= .5042)

X4 = Trust in government (TG) (alpha= .6656)

X5 = Political efficacy (PE) (alpha= .5168)

3. Crime-Related Factors: (CRF) (alpha= .5163)

X6 = Perception of crime (PC) (alpha= .3595)

X7 = Fear of crime (FC) (alpha= .5810)

X8 = Experience of victimization (EV) (alpha= .4555)

4. Police-Related Factors: (PRF) (alpha= .7247)
 - X9 = Perception of the police (PP) (alpha= .7186)
 - X10 = Evaluation of the police performance (EPP) (alpha= .5289)
 - X11 = Visibility of the police (VP) (alpha= .6672)
5. Cultural-Ideological Factors: (CIF) (alpha= .7440)
 - X12 = Group-oriented values (GOV) (alpha= .4993)
 - X13 = Attitude towards authoritarianism (AAU) (alpha= .4508)
 - X14 = Patriotism (PAT) (alpha= .7938)
6. Other variables
 - X15 = Friend's perception of the police (FPP) (alpha= .4653)
 - X16 = Self-reporting delinquency and crime (SRD) (alpha= .6961)

This chapter provided sampling procedure, measurement scales, research hypothesis, statistical methods, and operationalization. In the next chapter, data analysis and results will be presented.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This study attempted to compare major factors associated with cooperative attitudes of the public towards the police among two groups of Korean students by examining their perceptions of and experiences with the police. The subjects consisted of high school and university students. In the first section of this chapter, mean scores of all variables will be compared to examine the differences in them. In the second, the hypotheses of the study will be tested. In the final section, all these findings will be compared with those of the United States and Japan.

A. Explanations of personal characteristics

A proper beginning for the analysis of this data is to briefly explain the independent variables, or personal characteristics, against which the dependent variables in the study will be tested. These items are numbered Q.105 through Q.112 in the questionnaire.

Table 1 shows the frequencies of the demographic variables. The sample size is 450 for the 11th grade high school group ranging from ages 16 to 18, 415 for the university group ranging from ages 18 to 26. The average age of the high school students is 16.8, and that of university students is 20.9. The median grade point of high school is 70-79 (average), and that of university ones was 80-89

(average). The percentage of high school and university students who have religious activities more than once is 86.1%, 87.8% respectively. Of the ~~father's occupation~~, self-employed businessman is the most frequent job with two groups. ~~Father's job~~ question is intended to determine the ~~respondent's socioeconomic status with Q.111 and Q.112~~. Regarding socioeconomic status, about 86.9% of high school students and 80.5% of university students indicated that they belonged to the middle class. Interestingly, more 10% of the respondents than the respondents of Q.111 answered that they feel themselves as belonging to the middle class, although they are actually classified as the other class by social indicators.

Table 1. Demographic Variables

	High School	University	Total ¹
Sample Size	450	415	865
Means of Age	16.8	20.9	18.8
Average Grade point			
Over 90	36 (8.4)	43 (10.6)	79 (9.5)
80-89	87 (20.3)	273 (67.4)	360 (43.2)
70-79	130 (30.3)	75 (18.5)	205 (24.6)
60-69	112 (26.1)	11 (2.7)	123 (14.7)
Below 60	64 (14.9)	3 (0.7)	67 (8.0)
Religion			
Most time	152 (34.5)	156 (38.4)	308 (36.4)
Activities	Sometimes	227 (51.6)	200 (49.3)
Participation	Never	61 (13.9)	50 (12.3)
			111 (13.1)

¹Total is the average of both the high school and university students. Total will be useful in comparing Korean students group with foreign countries students as a cross-cultural study.

Table 1 (cont'd)

	High School	University	Total
Father's occupation			
Government officials	39 (9.3)	66(16.7)	105(12.9)
Self-employed business	134(31.8)	117(29.6)	251(30.8)
Skilled or semi-skilled worker	30 (7.1)	20 (5.1)	50 (6.1)
Company-employed business	86(20.4)	81(20.5)	167(20.5)
Father unemployed	10 (2.4)	12 (3.0)	22 (2.7)
Unskilled worker	79(18.8)	74(18.7)	153(18.8)
Other	43(10.2)	25 (6.3)	68 (8.3)
The State of Family (Are Both living your parents non-both living living ?)			
	394(92.1)	370(92.3)	764(92.2)
	34 (7.9)	31 (7.7)	65 (7.8)
The State of Family (Are your parent No divorced or separated?) Yes			
	418(95.4)	391(96.8)	809(96.1)
	20 (4.6)	13 (3.2)	33 (3.9)
Monthly Family Income (W)			
2,500,000 W or more	36 (8.3)	47(11.6)	83 (9.9)
2,500,000-1.250,000 W	129(29.6)	103(25.5)	232(27.6)
1,250,000-500,000 W	250(57.3)	222(55.0)	472(56.2)
Less than 500,000 W	21 (4.8)	32 (7.9)	53 (6.3)
The Socio-economic Status of Your Family As You Perceive it			
Upper	10 (2.3)	11 (2.7)	21 (2.5)
Upper middle	248(56.5)	212(52.3)	460(54.5)
Lower middle	160(36.4)	163(40.2)	323(38.3)
Low	21 (4.8)	19 (4.7)	40 (4.7)

Frequency/(Percentage)

W refers to Korean currency "Won" is the equivalent of \$.00133 (1\$=750 W)
United States currency (based on exchange rate of 1992)

Korean percentage grade point can be interpreted into American letter grade point as follows: over 90 equals A, 80-89 equals B, 70-79 equals C, 60-69 equals D, and below 60 equals E.

The criteria of family income (monthly) was based on the social research done by Korean Development Institute (KDI) (See Cho-Sun Il Bo, Jan. 9, 1991).

B. Comparisons of Mean Scores

The initial task was to examine the differences among the groups using all the variables in the study. The study

compared the mean scores of the variables. The results are presented in Tables 2-1 and 2-2.

Attitude of the public to cooperate with the police as a witness or collaborator (Questions 76, 77, 79, 80, 88 to 93) and willingness of the public to make contact with the police as a victim and a person in need (Questions 81, 83, 86, 87) were scored from 1 to 3, with 1 indicating *doing nothing about it* and 3 indicating *reporting it to the police*. ~~General~~ *attitude toward police* (Questions 14 to 20, 22, 23, 24) were ^{Table} scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *strongly negative attitude toward police* and 4 indicating a *strongly positive attitude toward police*.

Regarding the cooperative attitudes of the public towards the police (Table 2-1), the mean score of university respondents was higher than high school mean score (2.42 and 2.32). It may suggest that the university respondents have a more cooperative attitude towards the police than the high school ones. University students would usually be regarded as more socialized than high school students, and have a strong consciousness of reporting accidents to the police as a collaborators. The results of T-test shows that the two groups have different means in cooperative attitudes toward the police ($d.f=717$, $p=.000$).

Regarding the willingness of the public to contact the police (Table 2-1), university students also had slightly more willingness to contact the police than high school students

(2.05 and 1.99), but there was no significant difference (d.f=822, $p=.079$).

Concerning general attitudes toward the police (Table 2-1), high school students had a better attitude toward the police than university students (2.37 and 2.26). The results of the T-test also showed that the two groups have different means in general attitudes toward the police (d.f=822, $p=.000$). Both the Confucian philosophy itself and the social mechanism provide for authority -- e.g., government officers, older persons, heads of families or units, and adult males in general -- everywhere in society. Re-enforcement of proper behavior has always been expected of nearly everybody. However, the Korean people have never been treated very well by the government. The Korean government has earned very little trust and respect of the people, despite its ideological legitimization by Confucianism.

**Table 2-1. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables:
Dependent Variables**

	High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Cooperation of the Public Toward the Police as a Witness and a Collaborator	2.32	2.42	.000 *
Willingness of the Public to Contact with the Police as a Victim and a Person in Need	1.99	2.05	.079
General Attitude toward the Police	2.37	2.26	.000 *

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

~~Table 2-2 shows comparisons of means scores of major variables,~~ High school students' mean scores were higher than university students in political factors (1.84 and 1.79), police-related factors (2.41 and 2.32) and cultural-ideological factors (2.64 and 2.63). However, university students mean scores were higher than high school students in community-related factors (2.54 and 2.50) and crime-related factors (2.64 and 2.58). Among those five factors, police-related factors was found out to be statistically significant (d.f=787, p=.000).

**Table 2-2. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables:
Major Independent Factors**

	High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Community-related Factors	2.50	2.54	.590
Political Factors	1.84	1.79	.168
Crime-related Factors	2.58	2.64	.087
Police-related Factors	2.41	2.32	.000 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	2.64	2.63	.664

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

Community-related factors (Questions 60, 61, 63, 66) were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *less strong attitude toward community* and 4 indicating a *more strongly attitude toward community*. Concerning community cohesion (Table 2-3), the mean score of the university group was higher than that of

the high school one (2.54 and 2.50), but there was no significant difference (d.f=858, $p=.352$).

The Korean society is preeminently a family and group-oriented society. Many scholars pointed out that the Korean moral theory relied only on the surrounding people and circumstances, while the western moral theory was based on absolute or universally applicable moral principles (Backer, 1988:427). Therefore, the notion of community has always been psychologically important to the Korean. Such community activities as publishing neighborhood newspapers, organizing *Ban Sang Hwea* (monthly neighborhood meeting), or debating societies, responding to depersonalization and lack of community in the metropolises, play an important role in encouraging and reinstating a sense of community belonging (pp. 427-32). Besides, traditional and cultural heritage also facilitate cohesive community control mechanisms. Concerning perceptions of the community-related policing organizations (Table 2-3), the mean score of the university group was higher than that of the high school one (3.32 and 3.13) but there was no significant difference (d.f=518, $p=.974$).

Community-policing organizations like neighborhood police stations or crime prevention associations exist as a part of the community. Along with it, a police officer also exists as a member of the community. When asked whether they knew of a police post or station in their neighborhood, 55% of the high school and 69% of the university participants answered yes.

50% and 60% of the high school and university participants believed they felt safe due to the existence of the police post in their neighborhood.

As to the awareness of the police officers working in their neighborhood (Table 2-3), 18% of the high school and 3% of the university participants answered that they knew at least more than one police officer. A figure of 14% of high school and 5% of the university participants believed they felt friendly with the police officer in their neighborhood, while 51% of the high school and 39% of the university ones felt unfriendly, and 35% of high school and 56% of the university students gave no answer. Regarding the crime prevention association in their neighborhood (Table 2-3), 9% of the high school and 12% of the university students knew of their existence.

Table 2-3. Comparisons of Mean Scores and Frequencies of Major Variables: Community-related Factors

		High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Community Cohesion		2.20 ²	2.25	.352
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organization		3.13	3.32	.974
Awareness of Neighborhood Police posts	No	199/441 (45.1) ³	127/404 (31.4)	326/845 (38.6)
	Yes	242/441 (54.9)	277/404 (68.6)	519/845 (61.4)

²Mean score of major variables.

³Response Num. / Response population Num. (Percentage)

Table 2-3 (cont'd)

		High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Feeling Safer Due to the Existence of Neighborhood Police Posts	No	97/194 (50.0)	91/230 (39.6)	188/424 (44.3)
	Yes	97/194 (50.0)	139/230 (60.4)	236/424 (55.7)
Knowing the Police Officer in the Neighborhood	No	217/265 (81.9)	285/296 (96.3)	501/560 (89.5)
	Yes	48/265 (18.1)	11/296 (3.7)	59/560 (10.5)
Feeling the Police Officer in the Neighborhood Friendly	No	136/265 (51.3)	115/296 (38.8)	251/560 (44.8)
	Yes	37/265 (14.0)	15/296 (5.1)	51/560 (9.1)
	No Answer	92/265 (34.7)	166/296 (56.1)	258/560 (46.1)
Awareness of the Neighborhood Crime Prevention Association	No	376/416 (90.4)	346/393 (88.0)	722/809 (89.2)
	Yes	40/416 (9.6)	47/393 (12.0)	87/809 (10.8)
Feeling Safer Due to the Existence of the Neighborhood Crime Prevention Association	No	32/189 (38.1)	29/104 (27.9)	61/189 (32.3)
	Yes	54/84 (61.9)	75/104 (72.1)	127/189 (67.7)

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
 2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

Political factors (Questions 11, 13, 54, 55, 56) were scored from 1 to 4 , with 1 indicating a *strongly negative attitude toward political situations* and 4 a *strongly positive attitude toward political situations*. Table 2-4 shows comparisons of mean scores of political factors among two groups. Regarding the trust in government, the mean score of the high school group was higher than that of the university group (1.80 and 1.78), but there was no significant difference ($d.f=862$, $p=.587$). High school students seem to have a more

positive valulative orientation towards their government and government officers than the university ones. In relation with the political efficiency, the mean score of high school group was higher than that of the university group (2.03 and 1.79), and there was a significant difference ($d.f=862$, $p=.000$). High school students seem to have a more positive attitudes of political efficiency. The two groups of participants have a very different degree of confidence in their ability to understand politics and their impact on government.

**Table 2-4. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables:
Political Factors**

	High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Trust in Government	1.80	1.78	.587
Political Efficiency	2.03	1.79	.000 *

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

Crime-related factors (Questions 35, 57, 58, 59) were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *less serious attitude toward crime situations* and 4 a *more serious attitude toward crime situations*.

Concerning crime-related factors (Table 2-5), the two groups showed almost the same mean score in their perception of crime (3.11 and 3.11), and there was no significant difference ($d.f=860$, $p=.918$). Concerning fear of crime, the

university students had a higher mean than high school ones (2.17 and 2.06), and these was significantly different ($d.f=860$, $p=.011$). Therefore, the university groups seem to be more fearful of victimization than high school groups.

However, high school students had more experience of victimization. Table 2-5 showed that, concerning the experience of being victim of crime (Q.94), 188 out of 448 high school respondents (42%) had experience of victimization, while 103 out of 415 university respondents (24.8%) had a similar experience within the previous three years. Especially, 127 out of 448 high school respondents (28.4%) had experienced victimization more than twice, while 65 out of 415 university ones (15.6%) had.

Concerning the experience of seeing someone else committing a crime (Q.98), 161 out of 450 high school respondents (35.8%) had experience of victimization, while 131 out of 415 university respondents (31.6%) had a similar experience within the previous three years. Especially, 109 out of 450 high school respondents (24.2%) had experienced more than twice, while 80 out of 415 university ones (19.3%) had. As shown in the Table 1-5, the high school respondents experienced victimization of crime more than the university respondents (42% and 24.8%), but had a more positive attitude towards the police and the police performance than the university groups (2.370 and 2.263) (see Table 2-1, p. 128). This is why the high school students don't feel it more

seriously than university ones. The university groups perceived crime much more seriously, and were much more afraid of being victimized than the high school respondents. This seems that university students think crime as a serious social problem.

Table 2-5. Comparisons of Mean Scores and frequencies of Major Variables: Crime-related Factors

		High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Perception of Crime		3.11 ⁴	3.11	.918
Fear of Crime		2.057	2.169	.011 *
Experience of Having been a Victim of Crime During last three years	No	260/450(58.0) ⁵	312/415(75.2)	572/865(69.4)
	Yes	188/450(42.0)	103/415(24.8)	252/865(30.6)
	More than			
	Twice	127/450(28.4)	65/415(15.7)	153/865(18.6)
Experience of Having Seen someone else Commit a Crime During last three years	No	289/450(64.2)	284/415(68.4)	573/865(70.1)
	Yes	161/450(35.8)	131/415(31.6)	244/865(29.9)
	More than			
	Twice	109/450(24.2)	80/415(19.3)	141/865(17.3)

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

(Police-related factors (Questions 14 to 24, 36, 37, 67, 68) were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a strongly negative attitude toward police and 4 indicating a strongly positive attitude toward police.) Regarding the perception of

⁴Mean Score of major variables.

⁵Response Num. / Response population Num. (Percentage)

the police (Table 2-6), the mean score of the high school group was higher than the university group (2.37 and 2.24), and the two means are significantly different (d.f=822, $p=.000$). This seems that the high school students have a more positive attitude than the university ones.

Concerning evaluation of the police performance (Table 2-6), the mean score of the high school group was slightly higher than the mean scores of the university group (2.13 and 2.11), but there was no significant difference (d.f=845, $p=.685$). The mean score of high school students for the visibility of the police was higher than that of university ones (2.93 and 2.80), and there was significantly different (d.f=829, $p=.006$).

**Table 2-6. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables:
Police-related Factors**

	High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Perception of the Police	2.37	2.26	.000 *
Evaluation of the Police Performance	2.13	2.11	.685
Visibility of the Police	2.93	2.80	.006 *

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

Cultural-ideological factors (Questions 1, 9, 50 to 53) were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *less strong attitude toward cultural-ideological spirit* and 4 indicating

a more strong attitude. With respect to the cultural-ideological factors (Table 2-7), the high school group showed higher mean scores in the two variables of authoritarianism (3.19 and 3.02) and group-oriented values (3.06 and 2.93). While the university group showed a higher score in the variable of patriotism (2.45 and 2.41). There was a significant difference in group-oriented values ($d.f=855$, $p=.011$) and attitudes toward authoritarianism ($d.f=862$, $p=.000$). This means that the high school students seems to be more authoritarian and more group-oriented than the university group.

Regarding the attitude toward authoritarianism (Table 2-7), the results were somewhat consistent with the finding of Leader's research (1982) on the attitudes of adolescents towards authoritarianism in West Germany and in the United States. In the late 1970's American adolescents were far more authoritarian than those in West Germany. There seems to be a new trend in Korea -- unwillingness of Korean youngsters to obey authority and authority's relative unwillingness to exert authority. Increasing teenage crime rate including violence in schools and against parents, joyriding, the use of narcotics and alcoholism in Korea can be seen as a reflection of youth's unwillingness to obey the authority.

**Table 2-7. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables:
Cultural-Ideological Factors**

	High School	University	2-tailed Sig.
Group-oriented Values	3.06	2.93	.011 *
Patriotism	2.41	2.45	.263
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	3.19	3.02	.000

Number of Cases: High school students= 450, University students= 415
2-tailed Significance: * - $P < .05$

Consequently, the mean score of all variables were compared to examine the differences of high school and university students groups. The findings of the study are:

1) The university respondents had more cooperative attitudes towards the police than the high school students.

2) Regarding the willingness of the public to contact the police, university students had almost the same willingness to contact as high school students. However, concerning general attitudes toward the police, high school students had better attitudes toward the police than university students.

3) University students had higher means in community-related factors and crime-related factors than high school students, while high school students had higher means in political, police-related, and cultural-ideological factors. Among those factors, police-related factors had a statistically significant difference.

In the next section, the study will attempt to find the most influential factors that are associated with the cooperative attitudes of the students toward the police in the test of hypothesis 1 and 2. In addition, some other related factors with attitudes toward the police will be tested to find some meaningful implications of the police-community interactions.

C. Test of Hypotheses

1. Test of Hypothesis 1

Hypotheses

1-A. For the high school students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with police will be associated with cultural-ideological factors more than any other factors.

1-B. For the high school students, the general attitudes toward the police will be associated with crime-related factors more than any other factors.

Results

The results of testing hypothesis 1 are following;

For the high school students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact the police were more related to cultural-ideological factors than with any other factors. That is, group-oriented values and patriotism were found to be more slightly related with cooperative attitudes and willingness to contact the police than any other factors.

For the high school students, the general attitudes toward the police was more related with police-related factors than any other factors. This may mean that evaluation of the police performance and visibility of the police were more related with general attitudes toward the police than any

other factors.

As a first step, T-test was conducted in order to examine whether the two means scores differ in a population. In the present study, hypothesis verification was tested at a significant level of $P < .05$. This relatively high level was set due to the fact we are measuring attitudes, which are imprecise at best.

There was no significant difference in the mean of community-related factors, political factors, crime-related factors, cultural-ideological factors between two groups ($p=.590, .168, .087, .664$), but difference in police-related factors ($p=.000$) (see Table 2-2, p. 129). Concerning crime-related factors, there was no significant difference in perception of crime ($p=.918$), but there was a significant difference in fear of crime ($p=.011$) between two groups (see Table 2-5, p. 135). Concerning police-related factors, high school students had a more positive perception of the police (2.37 and 2.26) and visibility of police (2.93 and 2.80) (see Table 2-6, p. 136).

As a second step, Spearman's correlation analysis was conducted to examine the direction of the association between the variables. When directional alternatives seemed appropriate, tests were based on the Spearman ordinal data rank correlation coefficient. This statistic was chosen over the more familiar Pearson continuous data product-moment correlation coefficient due to the ordinal nature of the data.

⌈The null hypothesis was rejected for $p < .05$ and accepted otherwise⌋

Table 3-1 shows a summary of the results of Spearman's correlation analysis of the two groups for cooperative attitude toward the police, while Table 3-3 shows willingness to contact the police, and Table 3-5 shows the general attitudes toward the police.

In the case of high school students, Table 3-1 shows that community-related factors ($p=.019$), police-related factors ($p=.007$) and cultural-ideological factors ($p=.001$) were statistically significant to the cooperative attitudes toward the police, but community-related factors ($r=.18$) and police-related factors ($r=.15$) had a small relationship, and cultural-ideological factors ($r=.28$) had a slight relationship with cooperative attitudes toward the police. They included community cohesion ($r=.16$, $p=.002$), political efficiency ($r=.15$, $p=.032$), evaluation of the police performance ($r=.15$, $p=.005$), visibility of police ($r=.11$, $p=.031$), group-oriented value ($r=.24$, $p=.001$), patriotism ($r=.27$, $p=.001$), attitude toward authoritarianism ($r=.17$, $p=.001$). Among these, group-oriented values ($r=.27$) and patriotism ($r=.24$) which belong to cultural-ideological factors were more slightly related with the cooperative attitudes toward the police than the other variables.

Table 3-1. Spearman's correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.18(161)p=.019 *
Political Factors	p=.950
Crime-related Factors	p=.515
Police-related Factors	.15(335)p=.007 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.28(364)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	.16(370)p=.002 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.215
Trust in Government	p=.685
Political Efficiency	p=.066
Perception of Crime	p=.240
Fear of Crime	p=.319
Perception of the Police	.15(410)p=.005 *
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.15(370)p=.005 *
Visibility of the Police	.11(360)p=.031 *
Group-oriented Values	.24(367)p=.001 *
Patriotism	.27(370)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.17(371)p=.001 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases) / 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

The results of Spearman's correlation test were the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 3-2). Interestingly, for high school respondents, fear of crime ($r = -.11$, $p = .035$) was negatively related with the cooperative attitudes toward the police. This means those who perceive fear of crime more seriously are more inclined to avoid the police than those who perceive it less seriously.

Table 3-2. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.24(161)p=.003 *
Political Factors	p=.106
Crime-related Factors	p=.154
Police-related Factors	.30(335)p=.001 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.39(364)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	.20(370)p=.001 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.107
Trust in Government	p=.129
Political Efficiency	p=.455
Perception of Crime	p=.917
Fear of Crime	-.11(371)p=.035 *
Perception of the Police	.24(349)p=.001 *
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.20(370)p=.001 *
Visibility of the Police	.18(360)p=.001 *
Group-oriented Values	.32(367)p=.001 *
Patriotism	.34(370)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.18(371)p=.001 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

Table 3-3 shows that community-related factors ($p=.039$), crime-related factors ($p=.019$) and cultural-ideological factors ($p=.008$) were statistically significant to the willingness to contact with the police, but community-related factors ($r=.11$), crime-related factors ($r=.11$) and cultural-ideological factors ($r=.11$) had a only small relations with the willingness to contact the police. They included community cohesion ($r=.13$, $p=.001$), visibility of police ($r=.16$, $p=.001$), group-oriented value ($r=.11$, $p=.024$), patriotism ($r=.10$, $p=.032$). Among these, group-oriented values and patriotism which belong to cultural-ideological factors were more related with the willingness to contact the police than the other variables.

Table 3-3. Spearman's Correlation Comparisons with Correlated Variables with Willingness to Contact with the Police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.11(189)p=.039 *
Political Factors	p=.981
Crime-related Factors	.11(255)p=.019 *
Police-related Factors	p=.781
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.13(433)p=.008 *
Community Cohesion	.13(439)p=.001 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.106
Trust in Government	p=.710
Political Efficiency	p=.317
Perception of Crime	p=.384
Fear of Crime	p=.501
Perception of the Police	p=.126
Evaluation of the Police Performance	p=.635
Visibility of the Police	.16(426)p=.001 *
Group-oriented Values	.11(433)p=.024 *
Patriotism	.10(440)p=.032 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	p=.267

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

The results of Spearman's correlation test were also the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 3-4).

Table 3-4. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Willingness to Contact with the Police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.22(189)p=.003 *
Political Factors	p=.971
Crime-related Factors	p=.366
Police-related Factors	.26(398)p=.042 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.17(433)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	.17(439)p=.001 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.155
Trust in Government	p=.723
Political Efficiency	p=.414
Perception of Crime	p=.358
Fear of Crime	p=.663

Table 3-4 (cont'd)

Perception of the Police	p=.577
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.11(439)p=.020
Visibility of the Police	.21(426)p=.001
Group-oriented Values	p=.104
Patriotism	.16(440)p=.001
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	p=.074

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

Table 3-5 shows that community-related factors ($r=.18$, $p=.013$), political factors ($r=.15$, $p=.001$), police-related factors ($r=.19$, $p=.001$) and cultural-ideological factors ($r=.15$, $p=.003$) were statistically significant to the general attitudes toward the police, but all those factors had a small relationship with the general attitudes toward the police. They included trust in government ($r=.19$, $p=.001$), political efficiency ($r=.11$, $p=.026$), perception of crime ($r = -.10$, $p=.050$), evaluation of the police performance ($r=.33$, $p=.001$), group-oriented value ($r=.14$, $p=.005$), patriotism ($r=.12$, $p=.018$), attitude toward authoritarianism ($r=.15$, $p=.002$). Among these, evaluation of the police performance which belongs to police-related factors was more slightly related with the cooperative attitudes toward the police than the other variables.

Table 3-5. Spearman's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with General Attitudes toward the Police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.18(190)p=.013 *
Political Factors	.15(423)p=.003 *
Crime-related Factors	p=.402
Police-related Factors	.19(407)p=.001 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.15(433)p=.003 *
Community Cohesion	p=.096
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.509
Trust in Government	.19(423)p=.001 *
Political Efficiency	.11(430)p=.026 *
Perception of Crime	-.10(422)p=.050 *
Fear of Crime	p=.322
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.33(421)p=.001 *
Visibility of the Police	p=.404
Group-oriented Values	.14(419)p=.005 *
Patriotism	.12(421)p=.018 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.15(422)p=.002 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

The results of Spearman's correlation test were the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis (see Table 3-6).

Table 3-6. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with General Attitudes toward the police: High School Students

Community-related Factors	.21(190)p=.005 *
Political Factors	.22(423)p=.001 *
Crime-related Factors	p=.620
Police-related Factors	.28(407)p=.001 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.17(433)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	p=.537
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	.15(191)p=.038 *
Trust in Government	.22(423)p=.001 *
Political Efficiency	p=.076
Perception of Crime	p=.680
Fear of Crime	p=.745

Table 3-6 (cont'd)

Evaluation of the Police Performance	.43(421)p=.001 *
Visibility of the Police	p=.260
Group-oriented Values	.17(419)p=.001 *
Patriotism	.18(421)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.22(422)p=.001 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

As a third step, the regression analyses were done to obtain more valid interpretations by comparing the results of correlation and regression tests, because the results of Spearman's correlation test was the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis. The regression analysis was conducted to examine the strength of the association between the variables.

Concerning cooperative attitudes toward police, Table 3-7 shows that cultural-ideological factors ($R^2=.238$) were more strongly related with cooperative attitudes toward the police than the other factors. The two factors were included in the final regression equation with .299 of R^2 value -- cultural-ideological factors and police-related factors. The R^2 value (.299) indicates that nearly 29.9% of the variability of the cooperative attitudes toward police can be explained by the two factors. The result of the correlation test for cooperative attitudes were identical with those of the regression test. They were consistent in a certain degree.

Therefore, the cooperative attitudes toward police were most influenced by the cultural-ideological factors among factors.

Table 3-7. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: High School Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsqr	AdjRsqr	SigF	BetaIn
Cultural -Ideological Factors	1	.488	.238	.238	.000	.488
Police -related Factors	2	.547	.299	.289	.000	.271

Table 3-8 also shows that cultural-ideological factors ($R^2=.063$) were more strongly related with willingness to contact than the other factors.

Table 3-8. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for Willingness to Contact with the Police: High School Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsqr	AdjRsqr	SigF	BetaIn
Cultural -Ideological Factors	1	.250	.063	.056	.000	.250
Community -related Factors	2	.303	.092	.081	.000	.183

Concerning the general attitude toward the police, Table 3-9 shows that police-related factors ($R^2=.118$) were more strongly related with general attitudes toward the police than the other factors. All these results of regression tests were in consistent with those of correlation analysis.

Table 3-9. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for the General Attitudes toward the police: High School Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsq	AdjRsq	SigF	BetaIn
Police -related Factors	1	.344	.118	.123	.000	.344
Political Factors	2	.407	.166	.156	.000	.232
Cultural -Ideological Factors	3	.452	.205	.191	.000	.208

2. Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypotheses

2-A. For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with police will be associated with police-related factors more than any other factors.

2-B. For the university students, the general attitudes toward the police will be associated with political factors more than any other factors.

Results

The results of testing of hypothesis 2 are following;

For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with the police were more related with cultural-ideological factors than any other factors. Patriotism and attitudes toward authoritarianism were more related with cooperative attitudes and willingness to contact with the police than any other factors.

For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police will be associated with political factors more than any other factors. That is, trust in government and political efficiency were more related with general attitudes toward the police than any other factors.

In the case of university students, Table 4-1 shows that police-related factors ($r=.13$, $p=.012$) and cultural-ideological factors ($r=.15$, $p=.012$) were statistically significant to the cooperative attitudes toward the police, but these factors had a small relationship with cooperative attitudes toward the police. They included evaluation of the police performance ($r=.16$, $p=.002$), patriotism ($r=.17$, $p=.001$), and attitudes toward authoritarianism ($r=.12$, $p=.016$). Among these, patriotism ($r=.17$) which belongs to cultural-ideological factors was more slightly related with the cooperative attitudes toward the police than the other variables.

Table 4-1. Spearman's correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: University Students

Community-related Factors	p=.875
Political Factors	p=.109
Crime-related Factors	p=.835
Police-related Factors	.13(363)p=.012 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.13(376)p=.012 *
Community Cohesion	p=.497
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.572
Trust in Government	p=.065
Political Efficiency	p=.147
Perception of Crime	p=.797
Fear of Crime	p=.664
Perception of the Police	p=.066
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.16(373)p=.002 *
Visibility of the Police	p=.339
Group-oriented Values	p=.144
Patriotism	.17(370)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.12(379)p=.016 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases) / 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

These results of the Spearman's correlation test were the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4-2).

Table 4-2. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: University Students

Community-related Factors	p=.191
Political Factors	.14(379)p=.005
Crime-related Factors	p=.550
Police-related Factors	.20(363)p=.001
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.31(376)p=.001
Community Cohesion	.12(377)p=.020 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.370
Trust in Government	.14(379)p=.005 *
Political Efficiency	p=.316
Perception of Crime	p=.207
Fear of Crime	p=.860

Table 4-2 (cont'd)

Perception of the Police	.16(375)p=.002 *	
Evaluation of the		
Police Performance	.16(373)p=.003 *	
Visibility of the Police	.11(372)p=.029 *	
Group-oriented Values	.15(377)p=.003 *	
Patriotism	.28(378)p=.001 *	
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.19(379)p=.001 *	.15(750)p=.001

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

Table 4-3 shows that political factors ($r=.13$, $p=.006$) and cultural-ideological factors ($r=.15$, $p=.002$) were statistically significant to the willingness to contact with the police, but these factors had only a small relationship with the willingness to contact with the police. They included perception of police ($r= -.13$, $p=.007$), evaluation of police performance ($r=.11$, $p=.033$), visibility of police ($r=.11$, $p=.032$), group-oriented value ($r=.10$, $p=.042$), patriotism ($r=.18$, $p=.001$), and attitudes toward authoritarianism ($r=.13$, $p=.010$). Among these, patriotism ($r=.18$) which belongs to cultural-ideological factors was more related with the willingness to contact with the police than the other variables.

Table 4-3. Spearman's Correlation Comparisons with Correlated Variables with Willingness to Contact with the Police: University Students

Community-related Factors	p=.757
Political Factors	.13(412)p=.006 *
Crime-related Factors	p=.238
Police-related Factors	p=.457
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.15(410)p=.002 *
Community Cohesion	p=.084
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.764
Trust in Government	p=.108
Political Efficiency	p=.099
Perception of Crime	-.13(355)p=.007 *
Fear of Crime	p=.232
Perception of the Police	p=.741
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.11(355)p=.033
Visibility of the Police	.11(405)p=.032 *
Group-oriented Values	.10(355)p=.042 *
Patriotism	.18(412)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.13(413)p=.010 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - P < .05

This results of Spearman's correlation test were also the same as those of Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4-4).

Table 4-4. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with Willingness to Contact with the Police: University Students

Community-related Factors	.13(418)p=.007
Political Factors	p=.243
Crime-related Factors	p=.622
Police-related Factors	.14(394)p=.005 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.19(410)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	.12(411)p=.012 *
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.716
Trust in Government	p=.232
Political Efficiency	p=.305

Table 4-4 (cont'd)

Perception of Crime	p=.140
Fear of Crime	p=.531
Perception of the Police	.11(407)p=.028 *
Evaluation of the Police Performance	p=.059
Visibility of the Police	.09(405)p=.048 *
Group-oriented Values	p=.052
Patriotism	.17(412)p=.001 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.10(413)p=.036 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - $P < .05$

Table 4-5 shows that political factors ($r=.17$, $p=.001$), and police-related factors ($r=.12$, $p=.001$) were statistically significant to the general attitudes toward the police, but all these factors had a small relationship with the general attitudes toward the police. They included trust in government ($r=.15$, $p=.001$), political efficiency ($r=.19$, $p=.026$), evaluation of the police performance ($r=.28$, $p=.001$), and attitudes toward authoritarianism ($r=.24$, $p=.001$).

Table 4-5. Spearman's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with General Attitudes toward the Police:

Community-related Factors	p=.824
Political Factors	.17(407)p=.001 *
Crime-related Factors	p=.571
Police-related Factors	.12(395)p=.001 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	p=.086

Community Cohesion	p=.019
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	p=.201
Trust in Government	.15(408)p=.002 *
Political Efficiency	.19(407)p=.001 *

Table 4-5 (cont'd)

Perception of Crime	p=.496
Fear of Crime	p=.230
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.28(402)p=.001 *
Visibility of the Police	p=.674
Group-oriented Values	p=.558
Patriotism	p=.418
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.24(408)p=.001 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - P < .05

These results of the Spearman's correlation test were also the same as those of the Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4-6).

Table 4-6. Pearson's Correlation Comparisons of Correlated Variables with General Attitudes toward the police:

Community-related Factors	p=.097
Political Factors	.35(407)p=.001 *
Crime-related Factors	p=.229
Police-related Factors	.27(395)p=.001 *
Cultural-Ideological Factors	.19(410)p=.001 *
Community Cohesion	p=.591
Perception of the Community-related Policing Organizations	.14(226)p=.037 *
Trust in Government	.30(408)p=.001 *
Political Efficiency	.23(407)p=.001 *
Perception of Crime	-.12(406)p=.013 *
Fear of Crime	p=.665
Evaluation of the Police Performance	.40(402)p=.001 *
Visibility of the Police	p=.150
Group-oriented Values	p=.621
Patriotism	.12(407)p=.012 *
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	.31(408)p=.001 *

Contingency Coefficient /(Cases)/ 2-tailed Sig. * - P < .05

As a second, the regression analyses were also done to obtain more valid interpretations by comparing the results of the correlation and regression tests. Concerning cooperative attitudes toward police, Table 4-7 shows that cultural-ideological factors ($R^2=.101$) were more strongly related with cooperative attitudes toward the police than the other factors. The results of the correlation test for cooperative attitudes were identical with those of the regression test. They were consistent in a certain degree. Therefore, the cooperative attitudes toward police were most influenced by the cultural-ideological factors among factors. These results were found to be the same as that of high school students.

Table 4-7. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for Cooperative Attitudes toward the Police: University Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsqr	AdjRsqr	SigF	BetaIn
Cultural -Ideological Factors	1	.318	.101	.099	.000	.318
Police -related Factors	2	.346	.120	.115	.000	.141

Table 4-8 also shows that cultural-ideological factors ($R^2=.031$) were more strongly related with willingness to contact than the other factors. These results were found to be the same as that of high school students.

Table 4-8. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for Willingness to Contact with the Police: University Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsqr	AdjRsqr	SigF	BetaIn
Cultural -Ideological Factors	1	.176	.031	.028	.000	.176
Police -related Factors	2	.208	.043	.038	.000	.114

Concerning the general attitude toward the police, Table 4-9 shows that political factors ($R^2=.137$) were more strongly related with general attitudes toward the police than the other factors. These results were found to be different from that of high school.

Table 4-9. Results of Multiple Stepwise Regression by Independent Factors for the General Attitudes toward the police: University Students

Variable	Step	MultR	Rsqr	AdjRsqr	SigF	BetaIn
Political Factors	1	.370	.137	.135	.000	.370
Police -related Factors	2	.425	.181	.177	.000	.213
Cultural -Ideological Factors	3	.436	.190	.183	.000	.096

Consequently, concerning cooperative attitude toward police and willingness to contact with the police, the responses of both high school and university students were consistent, and more related with cultural-ideological factors than the other factors. The cooperative attitudes seemed to be more based on cultural and ideological heritage than the social and political issues of Korea. (However, concerning general attitudes toward the police, the results of two groups were different. High school students responded that police-related factors were more related with general attitudes toward the police than the other factors, while university students responded to political factors.) This may seem that university students perceive the police as a representative of the government more than high school students do. People usually perceive that University students think themselves as a critical part of in making society better through sound criticism. If the government does something wrong, it would affect the general attitudes of the university students toward the police, and vice versa.

3. Test of Hypothesis 3

⌞ Hypothesis

The attitudes toward police of high school students are more favorable than those of university students.

Results

The result of testing hypothesis 3 is following;

The attitudes toward police of high school students were found to be more favorable than those of university students. ↘

↗The results of T-test shows that the means of these two groups are different from each other (d.f= 822. p=.000). The mean of high school students (M=2.37) is higher than that of university (M=2.26) as seen in Table 2-1 (p. 128). This seems that high school students have more favorable attitudes toward the police than university. ↗

Another findings which supports this hypothesis are as follows:

Of high school students, 34.3% think being a policeman is a good job for a capable and intelligent person as compared to 26.5% of university students (see below results).

	High School		University		Total	
	Valid Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Frequency	Valid Percent
Q.28. Do you think that being a policeman is good job for capable and intelligent person?						
S. Disagree	109	24.3	83	20.1	192	22.3
Disagree	186	41.4	220	53.4	406	47.2
Agree	118	26.3	95	23.1	213	24.7
S. Agree	36	8.0	14	3.4	50	5.8

Of high school students, 51.2% think they are qualified to become policemen as compared to 52% of university students (see below results).

Q.29. Do you think that you are qualified to become a policeman if you wanted to?

S. Disagree	45	10.0	46	11.1	91	10.5
Disagree	174	38.8	150	36.1	324	37.5
Agree	151	33.6	170	41.0	321	37.2
S. Agree	79	17.6	49	11.8	128	14.8

More high school students have less regard for police work-68% disagreed that entering police work is wasting one's talents and abilities as compared to 32% who agreed, while 50.5% disagreed compared to 49.5% who agreed (see below results).

Q.30. Do you think that you would be wasting your talents and abilities by entering police work as a career?

S. Disagree	33	7.3	38	9.2	71	8.2
Disagree	111	24.7	167	40.3	278	32.2
Agree	218	48.6	170	41.1	388	45.0
S. Agree	87	19.4	39	9.4	126	14.6

Of high school students, 65% think police work as a challenging profession as compared to 48.1% of university students (see below results).

Q.31. Do you think that police work as a challenging profession?

S. Disagree	41	9.1	44	10.6	85	9.8
Disagree	116	25.8	171	41.3	287	33.3
Agree	215	47.9	187	45.2	402	46.6
S. Agree	77	17.1	12	2.9	89	10.3

High school students view police work important as a chance for helping others (79.5% agreed) as compared to the university students percentage of 74.2% (see results below).

Q.32. Do you think that police career offers a good chance to help people?

S. Disagree	16	3.6	18	4.3	34	3.9
Disagree	76	16.9	89	21.4	165	19.1
Agree	263	58.6	267	64.3	530	61.3
S. Agree	94	20.9	41	9.9	135	15.6

The percent of high school students who agreed on Q.33 (65.2%) is higher than that of university students (60.5%).
(see below results)

Q.33. Do you think that a career in police work is a good way to personally attack some of our country's social problems?

S. Disagree	30	6.7	22	5.3	52	6.0
Disagree	125	26.0	143	34.5	268	31.1
Agree	220	49.3	210	50.6	430	49.9
S. Agree	71	15.9	40	9.6	111	12.9

University students think much less of police work as offering good opportunities for advancement (89% disagreed) as compared to 10.9% who agreed, while 86.2% of the high school students disagreed compared to 13.8% who agreed (see results below).

34. Do you think that police work offers good opportunities for advancement?

S. Disagree	138	30.7	99	23.9	237	27.5
Disagree	249	55.5	270	65.2	519	60.1
Agree	50	11.1	40	9.7	90	10.4
S. Agree	12	2.7	5	1.2	17	2.0

4. Test of Hypothesis 4**Hypothesis**

There tends to be a significant difference between the

attitudes of an individual toward the police, and certain identifiable characteristics of that individual such as academic performance, father's occupation, family income, and peer groups attitudes, previous contact with the police.

Results

The results of testing hypothesis 4 are following;

For high school students, the attitudes of an individual toward the police were found not to be significantly different with such variables as academic performance, the father's occupation, the state of the family, and family income. However, the attitudes toward the police had a significant difference only with peer groups attitudes. This may seem that the more positive students perceive their friends' attitudes to be, the more positive their own tend to be.

For university students, the attitudes of an individual toward the police were found not to be significantly different from such variables as academic performance, the state of the family, and family income. However, the attitudes toward the police had significant differences in regards to the father's occupation and peer group's attitudes. The means of university students' attitudes were different according to their father's occupations. Their attitudes were also almost the same as those of their peer group's attitudes.

Questions 15 through 25 were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *strongly positive attitudes toward the police* and 4 indicating a *strongly negative attitude*. GATP will be used in this study as an abbreviation for the term General Attitudes Toward the Police. Q.15 through Q.25 were designed to measure the students' personal attitudes toward the police directly. T-test was used to compare the mean GATP for each demographic variable.

Table 5-1 shows that both student groups' GATP scores were classified as high or low above the mean and below the

mean (based on the mean scores) and compared with Chi-square analysis. Table 5-1 displays the joint distribution of general attitudes toward the police (GATP) and academic grade for high school; in this table GATP was collapsed to the two categories, and Academic grade was not collapsed in order that all data could be observed. As can be seen, there was no significant difference ($CC=.0730$, $p=.4269$). Of the 169 low GATP, 31.4% belonged to the 70-79 grade range, 25.4% to the 60-69. Concerning grade over 90, the percent of high GATP (58%) is twice as much as that of low GATP (30.3%), but on below 60, the percent of high GATP (50.8%) is as much as the low GATP (49.2%). This seems that the higher the grade are, the better GATP.

Table 5-1. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Academic Grade: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Academic Grade					Row Total
	Below 60	60-69	70-79	80-89	Over 90	
Low GATP	30	43	53	33	10	169
	17.8	25.4	31.4	19.5	5.9	41.9
	49.2	41.3	43.8	39.3	30.3	
High GATP	31	61	68	51	23	234
	13.2	26.1	29.1	21.8	9.8	58.1
	50.8	58.7	56.2	60.7	69.7	
Column Total	61	104	121	843	33	403
	15.1	25.8	30.0	20.8	8.2	100.0
Chi-Square 3.5788	D.F. 4	Sig. .4659	Min E.F 13.84	:	C.C. .0730	Rs C.C. .0730

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-2 shows that the difference was not statistically significant ($CC=.0461$, $p=.9316$). Of the 181 low GATP, 68.5% belonged to the 80-89 grade range, 17.7% to the 70-79. Concerning grade below 60, the percent of high GATP (66.7%) is twice as much as that of low GATP (33.3%), but on below 60, the percent of high GATP (50.8%) is as much as low GATP (49.2%).

Table 5-2. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Academic Grade: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Academic Grade					Row Total
	Below 60	60-69	70-79	80-89	Over 90	
Low GATP	1	6	32	124	18	181
	0.6	3.3	17.7	68.5	9.9	45.4
	33.3	54.5	43.2	46.1	42.9	
High GATP	2	5	42	145	24	218
	0.9	2.3	19.3	66.5	11.0	54.6
	66.7	45.5	56.8	53.9	57.1	
Column	3	11	74	269	42	399
Total	0.8	2.8	18.5	67.4	10.5	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E. F	:	C.C.	Rs C.C.
0.8484	4	.9316	1.361	:	.0461	.0016

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-3 displays the joint distribution of general attitudes toward the police (GATP) and the father's job for high school; in this table GATP was collapsed to the two categories, and the father's job was not collapsed in order that all data could be observed. The results of GATP are

shown in Table 5-3. This combination of GATP scores are independent of this grouping of fathers' occupations ($CC=.0809$, $p=.8561$). Of 169 low GATP, 31.4% belonged to the self-employed, 21.3% unskilled. Of 227 high GATP, 31.3% also self-employed and 22% company-employed. Of the government officers, 63% belongs to high GATP, 55.6% of the government officers belonged to the low GATP.

Table 5-3. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Father's Job: High School Students

		Father's Job						
Count								
Row %	Government Officer	Self-employed	Skilled Worker	Company-employed	Unemployed	Unskilled	Other	Row Total
Col %								
Low	14	53	12	32	5	36	17	169
GATP	8.3	31.4	7.1	18.9	3.0	21.3	10.1	42.7
	36.8	42.7	40.0	39.0	55.6	48.0	44.7	
High	24	71	18	50	4	39	21	227
GATP	10.6	31.3	7.9	22.0	1.8	17.2	9.3	57.3
	63.2	57.3	60.0	61.0	44.4	52.0	55.3	
Column Total	38	124	30	82	9	75	38	396
	9.6	31.3	7.6	20.7	2.3	18.9	9.6	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	:	C.C.	Rs C.C.		
2.6088	6	.8561	3.84	:	.0809	-.0468		

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-4 displays data similar to those shown in table 5-3 except that the father's job was dichotomized. This was initiated by grouping the occupations into two occupational groups: mainly pro-government tendency occupations vs. anti-

government tendency occupations. GATP scores are independent of this occupational grouping ($\Phi=.0300$, $p=.5501$).

Table 5-4. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Father's Job: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job			Row Total
	Gvnt Officer, Self-employed, Skilled Worker	Company-employed, Unemployed, Unskilled Worker, Other		
Low GATP	79	90		169
	46.7	53.3		42.7
	41.1	44.1		
High GATP	113	114		227
	49.8	50.2		57.3
	58.9	55.9		
Column Total	192	204		396
	48.5	51.5		100.0
Chi-Square 0.3571	D.F. 1	Sig. .5501	Min E.F : 81.94 :	Phi .0300
				Rs C.C. -.0300

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Φ = 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-5 shows data relevant to the GATP for university students by father's occupations. There was significant difference with GATP ($p=.0152$), but only a slight relationship ($CC=.2026$). Of 180 low GATP, 22.2% belongs to the self-employed, 21.7% unskilled. Concerning the unemployed, the percent of low GATP (66.7%) is twice as much as high GATP (33.3%).

Table 5-5. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Father's Job: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job							Row Total
	Government Officer	Self- employed	Skilled Worker	Company- employed	Unem- ployed	Unski- lled	Other	
Low	32	40	8	35	8	39	18	180
GATP	17.8	22.2	4.4	19.4	4.4	21.7	10.0	46.3
	49.2	35.1	40.0	48.8	66.7	53.4	72.0	
High	33	74	12	45	4	34	7	209
GATP	15.8	35.4	5.7	21.5	1.9	16.3	3.3	53.7
	50.8	64.9	60.0	56.3	33.3	46.6	28.0	
Column Total	65	114	20	80	12	73	25	389
	16.7	29.3	5.1	20.6	3.1	18.8	6.4	100.0
Chi-Square 16.6521	D.F. 6	Sig. .0106	Min E. F 5.53	:	:	C.C. .2026	Rs C.C. -.1230	

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-6 displays data similar to those shown in table 5-5 except that the father's job was dichotomized. This initiated grouping the occupations into two occupational groups. There was significant difference with GATP ($p=.0140$), but a small relationship ($CC=.1237$).

Table 5-6. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Father's Job: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job		Row Total
	Gvnt Officer, Self-employed, Skilled Worker	Company-employed, Unemployed, Unski- lled Worker, Other	
Low GATP	80	100	180
	44.4	55.6	46.3
	40.2	52.6	

Table 5-6 (cont'd)

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job				Row Total
	Gvnt Officer, Self-employed, Skilled Worker	Company-employed, Unemployed, Unskil- led Worker, Other			
High GATP	119 56.9 59.8	90 43.1 47.4			209 53.7
Column Total	199 51.2	190 48.8			389 100.0
Chi-Square 6.0412	D.F. 1	Sig. .0140	Min E.F 87.92	: C.C. : .1237	Rs C.C. -.1246

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 5-7 shows the comparisons of GATP scores for students whose parents are both living versus all other students. GATP scores are statistically independent of whether or not both parents are living (Phi=.0635, p=.2034).

Table 5-7. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by State of Family: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	State of Family			Row Total		
	Both Parents		Other			
	Living					
Low GATP	158		10	168		
	94.0		6.0	41.9		
	42.8		31.3			
High GATP	211		22	233		
	90.6		9.4	58.1		
	57.2		68.8			
Column	369		32	401		
Total	92.0		8.0	100.0		
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	:	Phi	Rs C.C.
1.6189	1	.2034	13.41	:	.0635	-.0635

Table 5-8 shows that the university students' results are the same as that of high school ($\Phi=.0250$, $p=.6204$).

Table 5-8. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by State of Family: University Students

Count Row % Col %	State of Family		Row Total
	Both Parents Living	Other	
Low GATP	169 92.9 41.9	13 7.1 46.6	182 46.2
High GATP	194 91.5 53.4	18 8.5 58.1	212 53.8
Column Total	363 92.1	31 7.9	394 100.0
Chi-Square 0.2454	D.F. 1	Sig. .6204	Min E.F 14.32
			: :
			Phi .0250
			Rs C.C. .0250

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Φ = 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

5. Test of Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis

There is a difference in attitudes toward the police between groups of higher and lower socioeconomic status (Q.111).

Results

The result of hypothesis 5 is following;

There was no significant difference in attitudes toward the police between groups of higher and lower socioeconomic status for both high school and university students.

Mean scores for GATP were computed for various family income groups. GATP scores were classified as high or low and compared to family income with chi-square analysis. The results are shown in Table 6-1 through 6-4.

Table 6-1 displays the joint distribution of general attitudes toward the police and family income (monthly) for high school; in this table GATP was collapsed to the two categories, and family income was not collapsed in order that all data could be observed. The results of GATP are shown in Table 6-1. This combination of GATP scores are independent of this grouping of fathers' occupations ($CC=.1098$, $p=.1714$). Of 173 low GATP, 52% belonged to the 500,000-1,125,000 W, and 44.3% 1,125,000-2,500,000 W. Of 237 high GATP, 60.8% belongs to 500,000-1,250,000 W, and 28.7% 1,125,000-2,500,000 W.

Table 6-1. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Family Income: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Family Income (Monthly)				Row Total
	Less Than 500.000W	500,000- 1,250,000W	1,250,000- 2,500,000W	More Than 2,500,000W	
Low GATP	10	90	54	19	173
	5.8	52.0	31.2	11.0	42.2
	47.6	38.5	44.3	57.6	
High GATP	11	144	68	14	237
	4.6	60.8	28.7	5.9	57.8
	52.4	61.5	55.7	42.4	
Column Total	21 5.1	234 57.1	122 29.8	33 8.0	410 100.0
Chi-Square 5.0050	D.F. 3	Sig. .1714	Min E.F 8.66	: C.C. : .1098	Rs C.C. -.0753

W refers to Korean currency "Won" which is the equivalent of \$.00133 (1\$=750 Won) United States currency (based on exchange rate of 1992).

Table 6-2 shows that the results of university students are the same as those of high school. The difference was not statistically significant ($CC=.1326$, $p=.0680$). Of 183 low GATP, 59.6% was belonged to the 500,000-1,125,000 W, and 21.9% 1,125,000-2,500,000 W. Of 215 high GATP, 50.7% belongs to 500,000-1,250,000 W, and 28.4% 1,125,000-2,500,000 W. Concerning more than the 2,500,000 W group, the percent of high GATP (60%) is twice as much as that of the low (34%).

Table 6-2. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Family Income: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Family Income (Monthly)				Row Total
	Less Than 500.000W	500,000- 1,250,000W	1,250,000- 2,500,000W	More Than 2,500,000W	
Low GATP	18	109	40	16	183
	9.8	59.6	21.9	8.7	46.0
	56.3	50.0	39.6	34.0	
High GATP	14	109	61	31	215
	6.5	50.7	28.4	14.4	54.0
	43.8	50.0	60.4	60.0	
Column Total	32 8.0	218 54.8	101 25.4	47 11.8	398 100.0
Chi-Square 7.1268	D.F. 3	Sig. .0680	Min E.F 14.71	: : .1326	C.C. Rs C.C. .1334

W refers to Korean currency "Won" which is the equivalent of \$.00133 (1\$=750 Won) United States currency (based on exchange rate of 1992).

(In ~~Table 6-3~~ and 6-4, four income groups were combined into three groups (high, middle and low income)).

(Table 6-3 shows that GATP scores are independent of this

income grouping ($CC=.0970$, $p=.1424$). Concerning the 500,000-2,500,000 W (middle class), 40.4% belongs to low GATP, 59.6% high GATP. This seems that the middle class has a more favorable attitudes toward the police. However, on more than 2,500,000 W (high class) 57.6% belongs to low GATP, 42.4% high GATP. ▶

Table 6-3. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Family Income: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Less Than 500,000W	Family Income (Monthly) 500,000- 2,500,000W			More Than 2,500,000W	Row Total
Low GATP	10 5.8 47.6	144 83.2 40.4		19 11.0 57.6	173 42.2	
High GATP	11 4.6 52.4	212 89.5 59.6		14 5.9 42.4	237 57.8	
Column Total	21 5.1	356 86.8		33 8.0	410 100.0	
Chi-Square 3.8987	D.F. 2	Sig. .1424	Min E.F 8.861	: :	C.C. .0970	Rs C.C. -.0549

W refers to Korean currency "Won" which is the equivalent of \$.00133 (1\$=750 Won) United States currency (based on exchange rate of 1992).

Table 6-4 shows that the results of university students are almost the same as those of high school ($CC=.1013$, $p=.1272$).

Table 6-4. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Family Income: University Students

Count	Family Income (Monthly)				
Row %	Less Than	500,000-	More Than		Row
Col %	500,000W	2,500,000W	2,500,000W		Total
Low GATP	18	149	16		183
	9.8	81.4	8.7		46.0
	56.3	46.7	34.0		
High GATP	14	170	31		215
	6.5	79.1	14.4		54.0
	43.8	53.3	66.0		
Column	32	319	47		398
Total	8.0	80.2	11.8		100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	:	C.C.
4.1235	2	.1272	14.71	:	.1013
					.1025

W refers to Korean currency "Won" which is the equivalent of \$.00133 (1\$=750 Won) United States currency (based on exchange rate of 1992).

6. Test of Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis

Much of the literature on delinquency suggested a negative response by youths who have been in contact with the criminal justice system. Regarding this point, Giordano (1976) in her analysis of juvenile reaction to the justice system, found out that "youths with greater system contact actually expressed more positive attitudes than did their less experienced counterparts." If her conclusion is valid, then the following hypothesis will not stand in the affirmative.

There is a positive correlation between self-reported

delinquency and crime with an increase in negativity of attitudes toward the police.

Results

The result of testing hypothesis 6 is following;

For high school students, self-reported delinquency was significantly related with an increase in negativity of attitudes toward the police. However, concerning university students, there was no significant difference between self-reporting delinquency and the attitudes toward the police. This may mean that high school students reporting less delinquency tend to have more positive attitudes toward the police.

Questions 43 through 49 were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating none of self-reporting delinquency and 4 indicating very often. The total score for self-reported delinquency is the sum of these score. The Summary statistics are as follows;

Table 7-1 displays data relevant to the general attitudes toward the police by self-reporting delinquencies. As can be seen, the difference was statistically significant ($p=.0344$), but there was a small relationship ($CC=.1415$). Of 180 low GATP, 71% falls into the never responses, and 24.2% once or twice responses. Concerning response on never, the percentage of high GATP (61.1%) is twice as much as that of the low (38.9%). This seems that high school students reporting less delinquency tend to have more positive attitudes toward the police than those with more reported delinquency.

**Table 7-1. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes
Toward the Police by self-Reporting Delinquency:
High School Students**

Count Row % Col %	Self-reporting Delinquency				Row Total
	Never	Once or Twice	Several Times	Very Often	
Low GATP	128	44	7	1	180
	71.1	24.4	3.9	0.6	42.6
	38.9	57.1	46.7	50.0	
High GATP	201	33	8	1	243
	82.7	13.6	3.3	0.4	57.4
	61.1	42.9	53.3	50.0	
Column Total	329	77	15	2	423
	77.8	18.2	3.5	0.5	100.0
Chi-Square 8.6444	D.F. 3	Sig. .0344	Min E.F: .851	C.C. : .1415	Rs C.C. -.1338

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 7-2 shows that the results of university students were not statistically significant (CC=.1129, p=.0722). Of 185 low GATP, 58.4% belongs to the *never* responses, and 36.8% belongs to the *once or twice* responses. Concerning response on *several* times, the percent of low GATP (75%) was much higher than that of high (25%). This seems that university students reporting very much delinquency tend to have more negative attitudes toward the police than those with less reported delinquency.

**Table 7-2. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes
Toward the Police by self-Reporting Delinquency:
University Students**

Count Row % Col %	Self-reporting Delinquency				Row Total
	Never	Once or Twice	Several Times	Very Often	
Low GATP	108	68	9	.	185
	58.4	36.8	4.9	.	45.5
	46.6	41.7	75.0	.	
High GATP	124	95	3	.	222
	55.9	42.8	1.4	.	54.5
	53.4	58.3	25.0	.	
Column Total	232	163	12	.	407
	57.0	40.0	2.9	.	100.0
Chi-Square 5.2557	D.F. 2	Sig. .0722	Min E.F: 5.455	C.C. : .1129	Rs C.C. .0093

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 7-3 shows that there is no significant relationship between general attitudes toward the police and self-reporting crime (Phi=.0791, $p=.0136$).

Of 180 low GATP, 93.9% belongs to the *never* responses, and 6.1% *more than once*. Concerning response on more than once, the percentage of low GATP (61%) was higher than that of high (38.9%). This seems that high school students reporting much crime tend to have more negative attitudes toward the police than those with less reported crime.

**Table 7-3. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes
Toward the Police by Self-reporting Crime:
High School students**

Count	Self-reporting Crime				
Row %		More than			
Col %	Never	Once		Row Total	
Low GATP	169	11		180	
	93.9	6.1		42.6	
	41.7	61.1			
High GATP	236	7		243	
	97.1	2.9		57.4	
	58.3	38.9			
Column Total	405	18		423	
	95.7	4.3		100.0	
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F:	Phi	Rs C.C.
2.6486	1	.1036	7.660 :	.0791	-.0791

Table 7-4 shows that the results of university students was the same as that of high school students ($\Phi = .0310$, $p = .5325$). Of 185 low GATP, 95.7% belongs to the never responses, and 4.3% to the more than once.

**Table 7-4. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward
the Police by Self-reporting Crime:
University students**

Count Row % Col %	Self-reporting Crime		Row Total		
	Never	More than Once			
Low GATP	177 95.7 45.2	8 4.3 53.3	185 45.5		
High GATP	215 96.8 54.8	7 3.2 46.7	222 54.5		
Column Total	392 96.3	15 3.7	407 100.0		
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F:	Phi	Rs C.C.
0.3899	1	.5323	6.818 :	.0310	-.0310

7. Test of Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis

There is a relationship between the extent of the actual plan of individuals to enter a police career (Q.69) and certain identifiable characteristics of those individuals (demographic variables, other person's reaction to the career plans).

Results

The results of testing hypothesis 7 are following;

For high school students, the extent of the actual plan of individuals to enter police career was found to not be significantly different with all demographic variables. However, high school student's career plans had significant relations with the perception of parents' reaction and girl friend's reaction to career plans concerning police work. This seems that students who perceive their parents and girl friend's reaction to be expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

For university students, the extent of the actual plan of individuals to enter police career was found to be significantly different only in regards to the father's occupation among all demographic variables. University student's career plans a had significant relationship with perceptions of such person's reactions as a best friend's, other friend's, parents', favorite teacher's, and girl friend's reactions to career plans concerning police work.

Those related person's opinions were very important factors in making the decision of being a police officers as a career.

Students' Career Plans Regarding Police Work

Question 69 on the questionnaire asked: Which of the following best describes your career plans at this time concerning police work? The possible responses and their corresponding frequencies are listed below: Korean students tend to look less favorably on entering police work as a

career. The percentage of high school and university students was 67.9%, 88.2% respectively. High school students tend to look more favorably on entering police work as a career. The percentage for high school students was 17.5% as compared to 5.5% for the university ones.

High School		University		Total	
Valid Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Frequency	Valid Percent

Q.69. Which of the following best describes your career plans at this time concerning police work?

I definitely plan to become a policeman	11	2.4	3	0.7	14	1.6
I might someday consider a possible career in police work	68	15.1	20	4.8	88	10.2
I probably will never enter a police career	141	31.4	117	28.3	258	29.9
I am certain I will definitely never enter a police career	164	36.5	248	59.9	412	47.7
No idea whatsoever	65	14.5	26	6.3	91	10.5

Q.70. What do we consider the most attractive aspect of a police career?

Prevention of crime	186	42.3	111	27.0	297	34.9
Authority and power	23	5.2	32	7.8	55	6.5
Chance to help others	176	40.0	219	53.3	395	46.4
Strict enforcement of law	38	8.6	40	9.7	78	9.2
Good pay and benefits	17	3.9	9	2.2	26	3.1

Q.71. Which of the following would be most important in discouraging you from entering a police career?

Low pay	48	10.8	51	12.5	99	11.6
Low prestige	132	29.7	114	27.9	246	28.8
Poor advancement opportunities	19	4.3	18	4.4	37	4.3
Dangerous work	159	35.8	117	28.6	276	32.4
Poor working conditions	86	19.4	109	26.7	195	22.9

The Results of test are listed below:

Table 8-1 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and academic grade for high school; in the table career plans, academic grade was not collapsed in order that all data could be observed. As can be seen, there was no significant difference ($CC=.2157$, $p=.1814$). Of the 74 who answered yes, 31.1% belonged to the 70-79 grade range, 28.4% to the 60-69. No matter what the grades are, the percent who answered yes is extremely lower than that of those who answered no.

Table 8-1. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans Concerning Police Work by Academic Grade: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Academic Grade					Row Total
	Below 60	60-69	70-79	80-89	Over 90	
Definitely No	22 14.0 34.4	35 22.3 31.3	42 26.8 32.3	42 26.8 48.3	16 10.2 44.4	157 36.6
Probably No	19 13.9 29.7	31 22.5 27.7	51 37.2 39.2	25 18.2 28.7	11 8.0 30.6	137 31.9
Probably Yes	11 17.2 17.2	20 31.3 17.9	20 31.3 15.4	9 14.1 10.3	4 6.3 11.1	64 14.9
Definitely Yes	2 20.0 3.1	1 10.0 0.9	3 30.0 2.3	3 30.0 3.4	1 10.0 2.8	10 2.3
Unsure	10 16.4 15.6	25 41.0 22.3	14 23.0 10.8	8 13.1 9.2	4 6.6 11.1	61 14.2
Column Total	64 14.9	112 26.1	130 30.3	87 20.3	36 8.4	429 100.0
Chi-Square 20.9253	D.F. 16	Sig. .1814	Min E.F: 0.839	C.C. :	Rs C.C. .2157	-.1356

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-2 shows that the difference was not statistically significant ($CC=.2029$, $p=.3529$). The results of university students was the same as those of high school students. Of the 355 who answered no, 68.7% fell into the 80-89 grade range, and 18.3% into the 70-79. No matter what the grades are, the percentage of yes answers is extremely lower than that of no answers. No matter what the grades are, the percentage of yes answers is extremely lower than that of no answers.

Table 8-2. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans Concerning Police Work by Academic Grade: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Academic Grade					Row Total
	Below 60	60-69	70-79	80-89	Over 90	
Definitely No	2 0.8 66.7	3 1.2 27.3	45 18.7 60.0	164 68.0 60.3	27 11.2 62.8	241 59.7
Probably No	.	5 4.4 45.5	20 17.5 26.7	80 70.2 29.4	9 7.9 20.9	114 28.2
Probably Yes	.	1 5.0 9.1	4 20.0 5.3	14 70.0 5.1	1 5.0 2.3	20 5.0
Definitely No	.	.	1 33.3 1.3	1 33.3 0.4	1 33.3 2.3	3 0.7
Unsure	1 3.8 33.3	2 7.7 18.2	5 19.2 6.7	13 50.0 4.8	5 19.6 11.6	26 5.4
Column Total	3 0.7	11 2.7	75 18.6	272 67.3	43 10.6	404 100.0
Chi-Square 17.356	D.F. 16	Sig. .3529	Min E.F .022	: C.C : .2029	Rs C.C. -.0468	

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-3 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and father's occupation for high school; in this table career plans, father's occupation was not combined in order that all data could be observed. As can be seen, there was no significant difference ($CC=.1934$, $p=.8762$). Of the 291 who answered no, 30.2% belonged to the category of self-employed, 22% to the company-employed. No matter what the father's occupations are, the percent of yes answers is extremely lower than that of no answers.

Table 8-3. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans Concerning Police Work by Father's Job: High School Students

		Father's Job						Row Total
Count	Row %	Government Officer	Self-employed	Skilled Worker	Company-employed	Unemployed	Unskilled Other	
Definitely No	14 8.9 35.9	49 31.0 36.8	12 7.6 40.0	34 21.5 39.5	5 3.2 50.0	28 17.7 35.4	16 10.1 37.2	158 37.6
Probably No	15 11.3 38.5	39 29.3 29.3	8 6.8 30.0	30 22.6 34.9	2 1.5 20.0	25 18.8 31.6	13 9.8 30.2	133 31.7
Probably Yes	4 6.6	23 37.7	4 6.6	10 16.4	3 4.9	9 14.9	8 13.1	61 14.5
Definitely Yes	.	3 30.0 2.3	1 10.0 3.3	1 10.0 1.2	.	5 50.0 6.3	.	10 2.4
Unsure	6 10.3 15.4	19 32.8 14.3	4 6.9 13.3	11 19.0 12.8	.	12 20.7 15.2	6 10.3 14.0	58 13.8
Column Total	39 9.3	133 31.7	30 7.1	86 20.5	10 2.4	79 18.8	43 10.2	420 100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.		Min E.F	:	C.C.	Rs C.C.	
16.3208	24	.8762		0.238	:	.1934	-.0006	

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-4 shows that the results of university students are different from those of high school students. As can be seen, there is statistically significant difference ($CC=.3206$, $p=.0056$), but a slight relationship. Of 348 who answered no, 29% belonged to the self-employed category, 19.8% respectively to the company-employed and unskilled. Of 22 who answered yes, 40.9% fall into the company-employed.

Table 8-4. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans for Concerning Police Work by Father's Job: University Students

		Father's Job						Row Total
Count	Row %	Government Officer	Self-employed	Skilled Worker	Company-employed	Unemployed	Unskilled	
Definitely No	42 17.5 63.6	66 27.5 56.9	8 3.3 40.0	52 21.7 64.2	12 5.0 100.0	43 17.9 58.1	17 7.1 68.0	240 60.9
Probably No	18 16.7 27.3	35 32.4 30.2	7 6.5 35.0	17 15.7 21.0	.	26 24.1 35.1	5 4.6 20.0	108 27.4
Probably Yes	4 21.1 6.1	4 21.1 3.4	.	9 47.4 11.1	.	1 5.3 1.4	1 5.3 4.0	19 4.8
Definitely Yes	.	3 100.0 2.6	.	.	.	.	.	3
Unsure	2 8.3 3.0	8 33.3 6.9	5 20.8 25.0	3 12.5 3.7	.	4 16.7 5.4	2 8.3 8.0	24 6.1
Column Total	66 16.8	116 29.4	20 5.1	81 20.6	12 3.0	74 18.8	25 6.3	394 100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.		Min E.F :	C.C.	Rs C.C.		
45.139	24	.0056		.091 :	.3206	-.0316		

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-5 displays data similar to those shown in table 8-3 except that the father's job was dichotomized. This initiated by grouping the occupations into two occupational groups. There was no significant difference with GATP ($CC=.0367$, $p=.1762$). The table shows that career plans for concerning the police work was also independent of the father's job grouping.

Table 8-5. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans for Concerning Police Work by Father's Job: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job		Row Total
	Gvnt Officer, Self-employed, Skilled Worker	Company-employed, Unemployed, Unski- lled Worker, Other	
Defini- tely No	75 47.5 37.1	83 52.5 38.1	158 37.6
Probab- ly No	63 47.4 31.2	70 52.6 32.1	133 31.7
Probab- ly Yes	31 50.8 15.3	30 49.2 13.8	61 14.5
Defini- tely Yes	4 40.0 2.2	6 60.0 2.8	10 2.4
Unsure	29 50.0 14.4	29 50.0 13.3	58 13.8
Column Total	202 48.1	192 51.9	394 100.0
Chi-Square 6.3240	D.F. 4	Sig. .1762	Min E. F : 1.462 : C.C. .0372 Rs C.C. -.0752

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-6 shows that the results of university students are the same as those of high school ($CC=.1257$, $p=.1762$).

Table 8-6. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans for Concerning Police Work by Father's Job: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Father's Job		Row Total
	Gvnt Officer, Self-employed, Skilled Worker	Company-employed, Unemployed, Unskilled Worker, Other	
Definitely No	116 48.3 57.4	124 51.7 64.6	240 60.8
Probably No	60 55.6 29.7	48 44.4 25.0	108 27.4
Probably Yes	8 42.1 4.0	11 57.9 5.7	19 4.8
Definitely Yes	3 100.0	. 1.5	3
Unsure	15 62.5 7.4	9 37.5 4.7	24 6.1
Column Total	202 51.3	192 48.7	394 100.0
Chi-Square 6.3240	D.F. 4	Sig. .1762	Min E.F : 1.462 : C.C. .1257 Rs C.C. -.0752

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-7 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and family income for high school; in this table career plans, family income was not consolidated in order that all data could be observed separately. As can be seen, there was no significant difference ($CC=.1884$, $p=.1911$). Of the 299 who answered no, 57.2% belongs to the 500,000-1,250,000 W, and 30% to the

1,250,000-2,500,000 W. Of 75 who answered yes, 35% belongs to the less than 500,000 W.

Table 8-7. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans for Concerning Police Work by Family Income: High School Students

Count		Family Income (Monthly)			
Row %	Less Than	500,000-	1,250,000-	More Than	Row
Col %	500.000W	1,250,000W	2,500,000W	2,500,000W	Total
Defini-	3	85	54	17	159
tely No	1.9	53.5	34.0	10.7	36.6
	15.0	34.0	41.8	47.2	
Probab-	9	86	36	9	140
ly No	6.4	61.4	25.7	6.4	32.2
	45.0	34.4	27.9	25.0	
Probab-	6	36	18	5	65
ly Yes	9.2	55.4	27.7	7.7	14.9
	30.0	14.4	14.0	13.9	
Defini-	1	5	2	2	10
tely Yes	10.0	50.0	20.0	20.0	100.0
	5.0	2.0	1.6	5.6	
Unsure	1	38	18	3	61
	1.6	62.3	31.1	4.9	14.0
	5.0	15.2	14.7	8.3	
Column	20	250	129	36	435
Total	4.6	57.5	29.7	8.3	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	: C.C.	Rs C.C.
16.0028	12	.1911	.460	: .1884	-.0915

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-8 shows that the results of university students are the same as those of high school (CC=.1542, p=.6327).

Of the 355 who answered no, 54% belongs to the 500,000-1,250,000 W, and 25.9% to the 1,250,000-2,500,000 W. Of 22 who answered yes, 55% belongs to the 500,000-1,250,000 W, and 31.8% 1,250,000-2,500,000 W.

Table 8-8. Cross-Tabulation of Career Plans for Concerning Police Work by Family Income: University Students

Count		Family Income (Monthly)			
Row %	Less Than	500,000-	1,250,000-	More Than	Row
Col %	500.000W	1,250,000W	2,500,000W	2,500,000W	Total
Defini-	19	139	58	29	245
tely No	7.8	56.7	23.7	11.8	60.8
	59.4	62.6	56.3	63.0	
Probab-	8	56	34	12	110
ly No	7.3	50.9	30.9	10.9	27.3
	25.0	25.2	33.0	26.1	
Probab-	2	11	5	1	19
ly Yes	10.5	57.9	26.3	5.3	4.7
	6.3	5.0	4.9	2.2	
Defini-	.	.	2	1	3
tely Yes			66.7	33.3	0.7
			1.9	2.2	
Unsure	3	16	4	3	26
	11.5	61.5	15.4	11.5	6.5
	9.4	7.2	3.9	6.5	
Column	32	222	103	46	403
Total	7.9	55.1	25.6	11.4	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	: C.C.	Rs C.C.
9.8094	12	.6327	.238	: .1542	.0093

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-9 through 8-18 shows a comparison of career plans regarding police work and other influentially related persons reaction to expressed interest in police work.

Table 8-9 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and best friend's reaction to career plans concerning police work for high school; in this table career plans, reaction responses were not combined in order that all data could be observed separately. As can be

seen, there was no significant difference ($CC=.1876$, $p=.1824$). Of 303 who answered *no*, 42.6% students thought that their best friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 78 who answered *yes*, 70.5% students expected their best friend's reaction to agree.

Table 8-9. Cross-Tabulation of Best Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Best Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	21 13.0 52.5	52 32.1 37.1	67 41.4 32.2	22 13.6 39.3	162 36.5
Probab- ly No	12 8.5 30.0	44 31.2 31.4	68 48.2 32.7	17 12.1 30.4	141 31.8
Probab- ly Yes	4 6.0 10.0	14 20.9 10.0	38 56.7 18.3	11 16.4 19.6	67 15.1
Defini- tely Yes	.	5 45.5 3.6	4 36.4 1.8	2 18.2 3.6	11 2.5
Unsure	3 4.8 7.5	25 39.7 17.9	31 49.2 14.9	4 6.3 7.1	63 14.2
Column Total	40 9.0	140 31.5	208 46.8	56 12.6	444 100.0
Chi-Square 16.1973	D.F. 12	Sig. .1824	Min E.F: .991	C.C. : .1876	Rs C.C. .0544

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-10 shows that the results of university students were different from those of high school. There was a statistically significant difference ($CC=.3248$, $p=.0000$). Of 361 who answered *no*, 74% students thought that their best

friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 23 who answered *yes*, 47.8% students expected their best friend's reaction to *agree*. This means that students who perceive their best friend's reaction to expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-10. Cross-Tabulation of Best Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Best Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	76 30.8	127 51.4	40 16.2	4 1.6	247 60.4
Probab- ly No	18 15.8	46 40.4	43 37.7	7 6.1	114 27.9
Probab- ly Yes	2 10.0	9 45.0	8 40.0	1 5.0	20 4.9
Defini- tely Yes	. 2.0	1 4.7	1 7.8	1 6.7	3 6.7
Unsure	3 12.0	9 36.0	11 44.0	2 8.0	25 6.1
	3.0	4.7	10.7	13.3	
Column Total	99 24.2	192 46.9	103 25.2	15 3.7	409 100.0
Chi-Square 48.2225	D.F. 12	Sig. .0000	Min E.F: .110	C.C. : .3248	Rs C.C. .3069

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

As can be seen in Table 8-11, there was no significant difference (CC=.1333, $p=.7826$). Of 302 who answered *no*, 38.7% students thought that their other friend's reactions would

disagree. Of 78 who answered *yes*, 73% students expected their other friend's reaction to *agree*.

Table 8-11. Cross-Tabulation of Other Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Other Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	9 5.6 40.9	55 34.2 39.9	88 54.7 34.0	9 5.6 36.0	161 36.3
Probab- ly No	8 5.7 36.4	45 31.9 32.6	79 56.0 30.5	9 6.4 36.0	141 31.8
Probab- ly Yes	2 3.0 9.1	14 20.9 10.1	48 71.6 18.5	3 4.5 12.0	67 15.1
Defini- tely Yes	1 9.1 4.5	4 36.4 2.9	5 45.5 1.9	1 9.1 4.0	11 2.5
Unsure	2 3.1 9.1	20 31.3 14.5	39 60.9 15.1	3 4.7 12.0	64 14.4
Column Total	22 5.0	138 31.1	259 58.3	25 5.6	444 100.0
Chi-Square 8.0320	D.F. 12	Sig. .7826	Min E.F : .545	C.C. .1333	Rs C.C. .0610

The results of university students were different from those of high school. There was a statistically significant difference ($CC=.3365$, $p=.0000$). Of 360 who answered *no*, 63.9% students thought that their other friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 23 who answered *yes*, 52.1% students expected their best friend's reaction to *agree*. This seems that student who perceive their other friend's reaction to expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to

exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-12. Cross-Tabulation of Other Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Other Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	31 12.6 75.6	143 58.1 68.8	70 28.5 45.8	2 0.8 33.3	240 60.3
Probab- ly No	8 7.0 19.5	48 42.1 23.1	55 48.2 35.8	3 2.6 50.0	114 27.9
Probab- ly Yes	.	10 50.0 4.8	10 50.0 6.5	.	20 4.9
Defini- tely Yes	.	1 33.3 0.5	1 33.3 0.7	1 33.3 16.7	3 0.7
Unsure	2 8.0 4.9	6 24.0 2.9	17 68.0 11.1	.	25 6.1
Column Total	41 10.0	208 51.0	153 37.5	6 1.5	408 100.0
Chi-Square 52.1045	D.F. 12	Sig. .0000	Min E.F : .044	C.C. : .3365	Rs C.C. .2533

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-13 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and parent's reaction to career plans concerning police work for high school. As can be seen, there was a significant difference (CC=.2314, $p=.0143$). Of 302 who answered no, 68.9% students thought that their other friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 78 who answered yes, 56.4% students expected their best friend's

reaction to agree. This seems that students who perceived their parent's reaction to be expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-13. Cross-Tabulation of Parents' Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Parents' Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	58 36.0 45.0	54 33.5 35.5	37 23.0 30.3	12 7.5 29.3	161 36.3
Probab- ly No	39 27.7 30.2	57 40.4 37.5	34 27.9 27.9	12 26.8 26.8	141 31.8
Probab- ly Yes	14 20.9 10.9	17 25.4 11.2	25 37.3 20.5	11 16.4 25.8	67 15.1
Defini- tely Yes	1 9.1 0.8	2 18.2 1.3	5 45.4 4.1	3 27.3 7.3	11 2.5
Unsure	17 26.6 13.2	22 34.4 14.5	21 32.8 17.2	4 6.3 9.8	64 14.4
Column Total	129 29.1	152 34.2	122 27.5	41 9.2	444 100.0
Chi-Square 25.1189	D.F. 12	Sig. .0143	Min E.F : 1.016	C.C. : .2314	Rs C.C. .1440

Table 8-14 shows that the results of university students are the same as those of high school ($CC=.2913$, $p=.0000$). Of 360 who answered *no*, 78.1% students thought that their parent's reactions would *disagree*. Of 23 who answered *yes*, 26.1% students expected their best friend's reaction to agree.

Table 8-14. Cross-Tabulation of Parents' Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Parents' Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	124 50.4 72.5	87 35.4 56.5	30 12.2 41.7	5 2.0 45.5	246 60.3
Probab- ly No	34 29.8 19.9	46 40.4 29.9	30 26.3 41.7	4 3.5 36.4	114 27.9
Probab- ly Yes	7 35.0 4.1	8 40.0 5.2	4 20.0 5.6	1 5.0 9.1	20 4.9
Defini- tely Yes	. . .	2 66.7 1.3	. . .	1 33.3 9.1	3 0.7
Unsure	6 24.0 3.5	11 44.0 7.1	8 32.0 11.1	. . .	25 6.1
Column Total	171 41.9	154 37.7	72 17.6	11 2.7	408 100.0
Chi-Square 37.8352	D.F. 12	Sig. .0000	Min E.F : .081 :	C.C. .2913	Rs C.C. .2332

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

As can be seen in table 8-15, there was no significant difference ($CC=.1554$, $p=.5444$). Of 296 who answered *no*, 34.8% students thought that their favorite teacher's reactions would *disagree*. Of 77 who answered *yes*, 76.6% students expected their favorite teacher's reaction to *agree*.

Table 8-15. Cross-Tabulation of Favorite Teacher's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Favorite Teacher's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	15 9.6 53.6	43 27.6 38.1	77 49.4 31.4	21 13.5 41.2	156 35.7
Probab- ly No	7 5.0 25.0	38 27.1 33.6	80 57.1 32.7	15 10.7 29.4	140 32.0
Probab- ly Yes	2 3.0 7.1	12 18.2 10.6	45 68.2 18.4	7 10.6 13.7	66 15.1
Defini- tely Yes	.	4 36.4 3.5	6 54.5 .4	1 9.1 2.0	11 2.5
Unsure	4 6.3 14.3	16 25.0 14.2	37 57.6 15.1	7 10.9 13.7	64 14.6
Column Total	28 6.4	113 25.9	245 56.1	51 11.7	437 100.0
Chi-Square 10.8199	D.F. 12	Sig. .5444	Min E.F : .705	C.C. : .1554	Rs C.C. .0559

Table 8-16 shows that the results of university students was different from those of high school. There was a significant difference ($CC=.3246$, $p=.0000$). Of 359 who answered *no*, 71.3% students thought that their favorite teacher's reactions would *disagree*. Of 23 who answered *yes*, 60.8% students expected their favorite teacher's reaction to be *agreed*. Table 8-16 shows that university student who perceive their favorite teacher's reaction to expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-16. Cross-Tabulation of Favorite Teacher's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Favorite Teacher's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	64 26.1 79.0	121 49.4 62.4	57 23.3 46.3	3 1.2 33.3	245 60.2
Probab- ly No	14 12.3 17.3	57 50.0 29.4	39 34.2 31.7	4 3.5 44.4	114 28.0
Probab- ly Yes	.	8 40.0 4.1	12 60.0 9.8	.	20 4.9
Defini- tely Yes	.	1 33.3 0.5	1 33.3 0.8	1 33.3 11.1	3 0.7
Unsure	3 12.0 3.7	7 28.0 3.6	14 56.0 11.4	1 4.0 11.1	25 6.1
Column Total	81 19.9	194 47.7	123 30.2	9 2.2	407 100.0
Chi-Square 47.9290	D.F. 12	Sig. .0000	Min E.F : .066	C.C. : .3246	Rs C.C. .2659

Table 8-17 displays the joint distribution of career plans concerning police work (Q.69) and girl friend's reaction to career plans concerning police work for high school. As can be seen, there was a significant difference ($CC=.2257$, $p=.0284$). Of 291 who answered no, 72.2% students thought that their girl friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 77 who answered yes, 42.9% students expected their girl friend's reaction to agree. This means that students who perceived their girl friend's reaction to expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-17. Cross-Tabulation of Girl Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Girl Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	63 40.4 43.4	58 37.2 38.2	26 16.7 26.3	9 5.8 29.0	156 36.5
Probab- ly No	49 36.3 33.8	40 29.6 26.3	39 28.9 39.4	7 5.2 22.6	135 31.6
Probab- ly Yes	13 19.7 9.0	24 36.4 15.8	22 33.3 22.2	7 10.6 22.6	66 15.5
Defini- tely No	3 27.3 2.1	4 36.4 2.6	2 18.2 2.0	2 18.2 6.5	11 2.6
Unsure	17 28.8 11.7	26 44.1 17.1	10 16.9 10.1	6 10.2 10.2	59 13.8
Column Total	145 34.0	152 35.6	99 23.2	31 7.3	427 100.0
Chi-Square 22.9188	D.F. 12	Sig. .0284	Min E.F : .799	C.C. : .2257	Rs C.C. .1403

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 8-18 shows that the results of university student are the same as those if high school (CC=.3483, p=.0000). Of 355 who answered no, 86.5% students thought that their girl friend's reactions would *disagree*. Of 23 who answered yes, 21.7% students expected their girl friend's reaction to be agreed. This means that student who perceive their girl friend's reaction to expressed interest in police work more negatively tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

Table 8-18. Cross-Tabulation of Girl Friend's Reaction to Career Plans Concerning Police Work as perceived by the Students: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Girl Friend's Reaction to Career				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Defini- tely No	111 45.9 73.5	108 44.6 57.8	20 8.3 37.0	3 1.2 33.3	242 60.3
Probab- ly No	27 23.9 17.9	61 54.0 32.6	20 17.7 37.0	5 4.4 55.6	113 28.2
Probab- ly Yes	5 25.0 3.3	11 55.0 5.9	4 20.0 7.4	.	20 5.0
Defini- tely No	1 33.3 0.7	1 33.3 0.5	.	1 33.3 11.1	3 0.7
Unsure	7 30.4 4.6	6 26.1 3.2	10 43.5 18.5	.	23 5.7
Column Total	151 37.7	187 46.6	54 13.5	9 2.2	401 100.0
Chi-Square 55.3692	D.F. 12	Sig. .0000	Min E.F : .067	C.C. : .3483	Rs C.C. .2489

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

D. Comparative Analysis

Although such researchers as Friday (1973), and Clifford (1976) have discussed the necessity of expanding the scope and inclusiveness of theoretical models, most current criminological studies are limited in that they pertain to only criminal behavior of a particular population in particular culture.

Traditionally, cross-cultural methods have been used to determine the generosity and applicability of theories originally developed for use in a particular culture (Clinard and Abbott, 1973). Since this sections of the present study is meant to test the cross-cultural generosity of police-community interactions, it employs an evaluative approach to cross-cultural testing.

It is interesting to compare police-community interactions in Korea with foreign countries' police-community interactions that have already been studied by the researchers, because a cross-cultural comparative analysis has never been done in Korea. Lee (1991) researched the factors affecting the police-community interactions in three countries, such as the United States, Japan, and China.⁶ The present study will try to compare Korea with the United States and Japan on police-community interactions by adopting questionnaires which were used in previous studies.

While crime and delinquency rates in the United States and Europe have been soaring, crime rates in Japan seem to have stabilized or declined during the last forty years. The stabilization or decline of crime in Japan occurred in the

⁶Lee's study (1991) was done mainly through mailed questionnaire surveys and partially interviews conducted from August through December, 1990. The sample consisted of American, Japanese and Chinese nationals residing temporarily, in a midwestern university town in the United States. All the respondents were in the progress of college education or graduate education. The sample size of the three groups was made of 121 Americans, 119 Japanese, and 91 Chinese.

midst of a rapid industrial growth and urbanization-events that are usually associated with increase in rates of crime and delinquency (Martin and Conger, 1986).

The social structure in Korea has been changing towards advanced industrialization under the influence of intensive economic growth achieved in the past two decades. In addition to that, adult and juvenile offenses have subsequently been increasing due to the change of the traditional family structure and hectic pace of society. The numbers of all criminals have on the average been increasing by 6.0% every year for last ten years (1980-1989). This rate far exceeded that of a yearly population growth of 1.5%. We can readily see that the number of criminals has been increasing despite the overall improvement of living conditions considering the rate of economic growth of 7.2%.⁷ The juvenile delinquency has substantially increased by 2.5% every year on the average, though the total rate of juvenile delinquents among all criminals has not increased that much, but the quality of juvenile crime is gradually aggravated. Newspaper articles about vicious crimes committed by juveniles, especially crimes relating to home destruction, for example, rape of a woman in the presence of the victim's family in order to prevent them from informing investigative authorities after being burglarized, are deep social concerns nowadays.

⁷Korean National Police Headquarters. Annual Crime Statistics. Seoul, Korea, 1990.

Such aggravated crimes as robbery, rape and murder and etc. have been increasing rapidly, but no big changes have been observed in crimes against property. Aggravated crimes in the year 1989 increased by 5% (502 persons) compared with the preceding year.⁸ I think that the recent increase of vicious juvenile crimes is a manifestation of the destructive propensity of people who have failed to adapt themselves to the sudden changes in social values that were brought about with rapid industrialization.

As seen in table 9-1, the American group may be said to have more cooperative attitudes toward the police as a collaborator (2.66), and more willing to contact with the police when victimized (2.54) than the Japanese and Korean groups. When factors associate with the student's cooperative attitudes were examined for the American groups, Lee (1991) indicated that crime-related, police-related, and ideological-related elements were represented as factors with the student's cooperative attitudes (p. 160). This may seem that those who perceive crime seriously and have seen the police frequently tend to have cooperative attitudes toward the police. The Korean group has the lowest mean in the two dependent variables (2.37 and 2.02) among the three countries (for the reasons; see Chapter 2, The analysis of Korean police).

⁸Ibid.

**Table 9-1. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables
among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Dependent Variables**

	USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Cooperation of the Public Toward the Police as a Witness and a Collaborator	2.66	2.47	2.37
Willingness of the Public to Contact with the Police as a Victim and a Person in Need	2.54	2.51	2.02

Range (1-4)

The unique feature for the Japanese group lies in co-existence of the police with the citizens in the network of informal social control mechanisms (Lee, 1991:161). Table 10-2 shows that the Japanese student's mean and frequencies of community-related factors -- having a greater sense of belonging toward the neighborhood (2.86), awareness of neighborhood police posts and crime prevention association (48%), and knowing police working in the neighborhood (74%) -- are the highest among the three countries.

These community-related factors are major reasons for the Japanese group's willingness to contact the police regardless of the situations they face as a witness, as a victim, or in an emergency. The Japanese police may act as members of their community rather than as law enforcers. Therefore, the average Japanese student would have greater opportunity to know police officers than the American students, whose contact

is limited to stressful circumstances like receiving a traffic ticket or in situations of victimizations (p. 162). Interestingly, the Korean group has a high degree of feeling safer due to the existence of crime prevention associations (67.7%), while the degree of knowing of crime prevention association (10.5%) is comparatively low. This may seem that if the police will try to make it known and to build it more in the neighborhood, the students may feel safer.

Table 9-2. Comparisons of Means Score of Major Variables among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Community-related Factors

		USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Community Cohesion		2.65 ⁹	2.86	2.22
Awareness of Neighborhood Police Posts	Yes	37/121(30) ¹⁰	91/119(76)	519/845(61.4)
Feeling Safer Due to the Existence of Neighborhood Police Posts	Yes	22/121(18)	51/119(74)	236/424(55.7)
Knowing the Police Officer in the Neighborhood	Yes	33/121(27)	88/119(74)	59/560(10.5)
Awareness of the Neighborhood Crime Prevention Associations	Yes	44/121 (36)	57/119(48)	87/809(10.8)
Feeling Safer Due to the Existence of the Neighborhood Crime Prevention Associations	Yes	26/121 (21)	36/119(31)	127/189(67.7)

Range (1-4)

⁹Mean score of major variables

¹⁰Response Num. / Response population Num. (Percentage)

Table 9-3 shows that the mean scores of political factors of the Korean group (1.79 and 1.90) was found to be the lowest among the three countries. Particularly political factors -- trust in government and political efficiency -- were found to be significantly related with the Korean university student's willingness to contact with the police (see the result of hypothesis 2). This result may reflect a strong political impact in Korean police policing. Police may be regarded to be tools of the much feared political system in the midst of political turmoil (see Chapter II, F. The Analyses of Korean police). This political impact makes existing police organizations less effective in raising the public cooperative attitudes toward the police.

Table 9-3. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Political Factors

	USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Trust in Government	2.47	2.61	1.79
Political Efficiency	2.72	2.57	1.90

Range (1-4)

In the Table 9-4, if the level of fear of crime (1.78) or perception of the seriousness of the crime (2.63) can be seen as indicators of successful policing, then policing in Japan appears to be more successful than in the United States and Korea. For the Japanese group, Lee indicated that crime-

related problems such as fear of crime are not serious concerns in their daily life (p. 161). Therefore, this data does not indicate that the Japanese group has more a positive perception of their police or a greater willingness to turn to the police than the other groups.

**Table 9-4. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables
among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Crime-related Factors**

	USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Perception of Crime	3.37	2.63	3.11
Fear of Crime	1.93	1.78	2.11

Range (1-4)

For the American group, table 9-5 shows that police-related factors such as the public's perception of the police (2.72) and police performance (3.09) was the highest among the three countries. This may seem that the American police system is more based on democratic ideology, and is more emphasized on effective operating techniques which were supported by sophisticated modern science. Concerning visibility of the police, the mean of the Korean group (2.87) was the highest, mainly because the foot patrol method is regarded as a basic principle in patrol.

Table 9-5. Comparisons of Mean Scores of Major Variables among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Police-related Factors

	USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Perception of the Police	2.72	2.64	2.32
Evaluation of the Police Performance	3.09	3.13	2.12
Visibility of the Police	2.69	2.64	2.87

Range (1-4)

Table 9-6 displays that students in Korea have become more group-oriented (2.99), authoritarian (3.11). These cultural-ideological factors were found to be significantly related to the cooperative attitudes and willingness to contact the police (see the result of hypothesis 1 and 2). Unlike a popular belief, the Japanese were less group-oriented (2.74), patriotic (2.36), and authoritarian (2.65) than the American group. Although such ideological variables were not found significantly related to the police-community interactions, Lee (1991) explained that these trends could be a warning of an emerging problem in Japan, a problem which has already existed for a long time in the United States (p. 164).

Table 9-6. Comparisons of Means Scores of Major Variables among the USA, JAPAN, and KOREA: Cultural-Ideological Factors

	USA	JAPAN	KOREA
Group-oriented Values	2.99	2.74	2.99
Patriotism	3.22	2.36	2.45
Attitude toward Authoritarianism	2.85	2.65	3.11

These five factors discussed in the present study can hardly explain all aspects of the public's attitudes toward its cooperation with the police. The statistical data of the present study could not comprehensively include the unique hesitance or experience of the three countries, for example, homogeneity of race and culture, economic prosperity and political stability in Japan; heterogeneous ethnic composition, broad social unrest, and intermittent recessions in the United States; occasional political turmoil, mixed oriental and western ideology, and the under developing economy in Korea.

Consequently, the finding are;

1. The American group may be said to have more cooperative attitudes toward the police as collaborators, and be more willing to contact the police as victims than the Japanese and Korean groups.

2. For the Japanese group, the means of community-related factors -- knowing police working in the neighborhood, awareness of neighborhood police posts and crime prevention associations -- were the highest among the three countries.

3. The mean scores of political factors of the Korean group were the lowest among the three countries. These results may reflect a strong political impact in Korean police policy. Sometimes, this political impact makes existing police organizations less effective in raising the public's cooperative attitudes toward the police.

4. Regarding crime-related factors, the perception of crime and fear of crime of Japanese group were considerably less serious than other groups.

5. Concerning police-related factors, the American group had better attitudes toward the police and good evaluation on police performance.

6. Korean students were more group-oriented and patriotic than other groups.

E. Additional analysis

Student's attitudes toward police and Perceptions of friend's attitudes toward police.

Questions 25 through 27 were scored from 1 to 4, with 1 indicating a *strongly negative attitudes toward the police* and 4 indicating a *strongly positive attitude toward the police*. The total scores were used as a measure of the students' perceptions of their friends' attitudes toward the police. Spearman correlation coefficients were computed to test whether the variable was correlated with GATP.

Table 10-1 shows data relevant to the general attitudes toward the police by the friend's perception of the police. As can be seen, there was a statistical difference ($CC=.3406$, $p=.0000$), but it was a slight relationship. Of 241 high GATP, 67.2% fall into the disagree responses, 32.4% agree responses. Concerning to agree responses, the percent of high GATP (84.8%) was much higher than that of the low (15.2%). This seems that the more positive students perceive their friends' attitudes toward the police to be, the more positive their own tend to be.

Table 10-1. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Friend's Perception of the Police: High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Friend's Perception of the Police				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Low	17	146	14	.	177
GATP	9.6	82.5	7.9		42.3
	100.0	47.4	15.2		
High	.	162	78	1	241
GATP		67.2	32.4		57.7
		52.6	84.8	100.0	
Column	17	308	92	1	418
Total	4.1	73.7	22.0	0.2	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	: C.C.	Rs C.C.
54.8394	3	.0000	.423	: .3406	.3496

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Phi= 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Table 10-2 shows that the results of university students are the same as those of high school students (CC=.2608, $p=.0000$).

Table 10-2. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Friend's Perception of the Police: University Students

Count Row % Col %	Friend's Perception of the Police				Row Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Low	9	165	10	1	185
GATP	4.9	89.2	5.4	0.5	45.8
	81.8	49.7	16.7	100.0	
High	2	167	50	.	219
GATP	0.9	76.3	22.8		54.2
	18.2	50.3	83.3		
Column	11	332	50	1	404
Total	2.7	82.2	14.9	0.2	100.0
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	: C.C.	Rs C.C.
29.4801	3	.0000	.458	: .2608	.2552

Student's attitudes toward police and knowing National Police College (4 year)

The National Police College (4 Year course of undergraduate)¹¹ which was founded with aim of police development in 1981 has been evaluated as one of the most successful plans in police history. Every year, about 120 students who graduated from high school are selected through very stiff competition. In order to be all-round police leaders who will be able to cope with the increasing public demand for the diversified modern society, the students

¹¹The educational aim of the National Police College is to provide students with a knowledge, virtue and physique essential to progress as professional officers in twenty first century era. This includes; 1) Making an image of the democratic police of devoted public services. 2) Acquiring theoretic knowledge, practical police duties and a bachelor's degree. 3) Cultivating professional police knowledge and job performing ability. 4) Holding leadership combined with knowledge and virtue.

Instruction hours of the National Police College are three times longer than that of other universities or colleges, and that is largely attributable to educational characteristics of the police staff as they have to be trained to build up their readiness to serve the nation and the people as their servants. General studies include liberal arts and major subjects required for bachelor's degree of law and public administration. Police science subjects are common to the department of law and public administration to the enough level for professionalization of police knowledge and cultivation of job performing ability. It contains police spirit, martial arts and students' school life guidance.

Concerning practical education, in order to be all-round police leaders who will be able to actively cope with the increasing public security demand for the highly specialized and diversified modern society, the students acquire a certain level of qualification in every field such as typing, driving, and water-safety training as well as computer processing technique. They are also taught professional police knowledge of their respective functions, trained to cope with practical situations through realistic in-service practice.

acquire police knowledge and in-service practice, take honor and character molding education, and accept all-round education with knowledge, virtue, and physique. Most people believe that the students who graduated from police college would contribute to making national police to be democratic and efficient police.

Table 10-3 shows that GATP scores were independent of knowing national police college (4 year) ($\Phi = .0839$, $p = .0844$). Concerning the no responses about knowing the National Police College, the percentage of low GATP (45.3%) and high GATP (54.7%) were almost the same, but on the yes responses, the percentage of high GATP (63.8%) is twice as much as that of the low (36.2%). The results of Table 10-3 seems that the national police college has succeeded in making students have favorable attitudes toward the police.

Table 10-3. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Knowing National Police College (4 Year): High School Students

Count Row % Col %	Knowing National Police College (4 Year)		
	No	Yes	Row Total
Low GATP	134 74.4 45.3	46 25.6 36.2	180 42.6
High GATP	162 66.7 54.7	81 33.3 63.8	243 57.4
Column Total	296 70.0	127 30.0	423 100.0
Chi-Square 2.9774	D.F. 1	Sig. .0844	Min E.F 45.368
			: Phi : .0839
			Rs C.C. .0839

Table 10-4 shows that the results of university students are almost the same as those of high school students ($\Phi=.0166$, $p=.7377$).

Table 10-4. Cross-Tabulation of General Attitudes Toward the Police by Knowing National Police College (4 Year): University Students

Knowing National Police College (4 Year)						
Count						
Row %						
Col %	No	Yes			Row Total	
Low GATP	162	22			184	
	88.0	12.0			45.3	
	45.6	43.1				
High GATP	193	29			222	
	86.9	13.1			54.7	
	54.4	56.9				
Column Total	355	51			406	
	87.4	12.6			100.0	
Chi-Square	D.F.	Sig.	Min E.F	:	Phi	Rs C.C.
.1122	1	.7377	23.113	:	.0166	.0166

D.F.= Degree of freedom, Sig.= Significance, Min E. F= Minimum of expected frequencies, Φ = 2 by 2 table contingency coefficient, C.C.= 3 by 3 table contingency coefficient, Rs C.C.= Spearman correlation.

Frequencies of Responses to Selected Questions

The frequencies of responses to some selected questions concerning the general attitudes toward the police are shown in the Table 10-5.

Table 10-5. Frequencies of responses to some selected questions: Concerning Q.15 - Q.24

		High School		University		Total	
		Valid Frequency	Percent	Valid Frequency	Percent	Valid Frequency	Percent
Q.15. Policemen are a great help to folks.							
S. Disagree	38	8.5		33	8.0	71	8.2
Disagree	141	31.5		132	31.8	273	31.7
Agree	212	47.4		232	55.9	444	51.5
S. Agree	56	12.5		18	4.3	74	8.6
Q.16. The police are unresponsive to the lower-class community							
S. Disagree	122	27.1		110	26.5	232	26.8
Disagree	245	54.4		241	58.1	486	56.2
Agree	73	16.2		60	14.5	133	15.4
S. Agree	10	2.2		4	1.0	14	1.6
Q.17. People would be better off without the police.							
S. Disagree	8	1.8		4	1.0	12	1.4
Disagree	46	10.3		63	15.2	109	12.6
Agree	269	60.0		288	69.4	557	64.5
S. Agree	125	27.9		60	14.5	185	21.4
Q.18. If you needed a policeman's help, would you ask for it?							
A. Disagree	28	6.2		23	5.5	51	5.9
Disagree	133	29.6		169	40.7	302	35.0
Agree	198	44.1		187	45.1	385	44.6
S. Agree	90	20.0		36	8.7	126	14.6
Q.19. On the whole, police are honest.							
S. Disagree	72	16.1		50	12.1	122	14.2
Disagree	224	50.1		251	60.8	475	55.2
Agree	139	31.1		108	26.2	247	28.7
S. Agree	12	2.7		4	1.0	16	1.9
Q.21. The police get criticized too often.							
S. Disagree	21	4.7		15	3.6	36	4.2
Disagree	117	26.1		150	36.5	267	31.1
Agree	250	55.8		213	51.8	463	53.9
S. Agree	60	13.4		33	8.0	93	10.8
Q.22. The police accuse you of thing you did not do.							
S. Disagree	61	14.0		43	10.5	104	12.3
Disagree	194	44.6		202	49.4	396	46.9
Agree	134	30.8		148	36.2	282	33.4
S. Agree	46	10.6		16	3.9	62	7.3

Table 10-5 (cont'd)

Q.24. Most policemen are unfair in their dealings with young people.

S. Disagree	119	26.7	77	18.6	196	22.8
Disagree	192	43.0	254	61.2	446	51.8
Agree	116	26.0	81	19.5	197	22.9
S. Agree	19	4.3	3	0.7	226	2.6

Questions 38-42 on the questionnaire asked: How would you think the following persons would react if you expressed interest in becoming a policeman? The possible responses were shown in the Table 10-6.

**Table 10-6. Frequencies of responses to some selected questions:
Concerning Q.38 - Q.42**

High School		University		Total	
Frequency	Valid Percent	Frequency	Valid Percent	Frequency	Valid Percent
Q.38. Your best friend:					
S. Disapprove					
40	9.0	99	24.1	139	16.3
Disapprove					
140	31.5	193	47.1	333	38.9
Approve					
208	46.7	103	25.1	311	36.4
S. Approve					
57	12.8	15	3.7	72	8.4
Q.39. Your other friend:					
S. Disapprove					
22	4.9	41	10.0	63	7.4
Disapprove					
138	31.0	208	50.9	346	40.5
Approve					
260	58.4	154	37.7	414	48.5
S. Approve					
25	5.6	6	1.5	31	3.6

Table 10-6 (cont'd)**Q.40. Your parents:**

S. Disapprove					
129	29.0	172	42.1	301	35.2
Disapprove					
152	34.2	154	37.7	306	35.8
Approve					
123	27.6	72	17.6	195	22.8
S. Approve					
41	9.2	11	2.7	52	6.1

Q.41. Your favorite teacher:

S. Disapprove					
28	6.4	81	19.9	109	12.9
Disapprove					
113	25.8	195	47.8	308	36.4
Approve					
246	56.2	123	30.1	369	43.6
S. Approve					
51	11.6	9	2.2	60	7.1

Q.42. Your girl friend:

S. Disapprove					
145	33.9	152	37.8	297	35.8
Disapprove					
152	35.5	187	46.5	339	40.8
Approve					
99	23.1	54	13.4	153	18.4
S. Approve					
32	7.5	9	2.2	41	4.9

The purpose of the previous five questions was to determine the significance of the attitudes of various people with whom the student is generally closely associated, and the impact which these people's attitudes have on the attitudes and plans of the student. Other friends refers basically to the student's peer group. Best friend and girl friend are thought to be especially significant members of his peer group. Parents and favorite teacher are obvious terms.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Today, with advanced technology, human interaction, that is, face to face communication, has become one of the difficult problems facing the individual human being. Interaction between persons and his/her social world is a necessary and important one in order to maintain, achieve, and obtain an organized social system. Once a breakdown of communication between citizens in society or other organizations occurs, disorganization and confusion in the system are the result. Ignoring individuals as a contributing factor to their social setting is treating them like a cog in a big wheel. No society can progress, achieve its national or international goals, without paying attention to its individual citizens. In the police-community interactions, effective and positive social control cannot be developed when police officers do not work with the community. Social bonds and roles should be applied to everyone equally and justly in order for the individual to feel and sense the equality that God gave to him in regards to his other fellowman.

A. Research findings

Comparisons between high school and university students.

The university respondents have more cooperative

attitudes towards the police than the high school ones. This may mean that university students would be usually regarded as more experienced about the utilizing of police services than high school students, and had strong a consciousness of reporting incidents to the police as a collaborators.)

Regarding the willingness of the public to contact the police, university students also had slightly more willingness to do so than high school students. However, concerning general attitudes toward the police, high school students had better attitudes toward the police than university students. This may indicate that higher cooperation with the police does not necessarily mean better attitudes toward the police.

University students had a closer relationship with their community than high school students. University students also regard crime as a more serious problem, and are more fearful of victimization than high school students. High school students have a more positive evaluative orientation toward their government and government officials than do university students. They also have a better attitude toward the police, and are more group-oriented and patriotic than the university students.

The major findings which support the hypotheses

For the high school students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact the police were more related to cultural-ideological factors than

with any other factors. That is, group-oriented values and patriotism among high school students were found to be slightly more related with cooperative attitudes and willingness to contact the police than any other factors.

The general attitudes of high school students toward the police were more related with police-related factors than any other factors. This means that evaluation of the police performance and visibility of the police were more related with general attitudes toward the police than any other factors.

For the university students, the cooperative attitude of the public toward the police and willingness to contact with the police were more related with cultural-ideological factors than any other factors. Patriotism and attitudes toward authoritarianism were more related with cooperative attitudes and willingness to contact with the police than any other factors. The cooperative attitude of the university students toward the police were associated with political factors more than any other factors. That is, trust in government and political efficiency were more related with general attitudes toward the police than any other factors.

Consequently, concerning cooperative attitudes toward police and willingness to contact with the police, the responses of both high school and university students were consistent, and more related with cultural-ideological factors than the other factors. It means that cooperative attitudes

were more based on cultural and ideological heritage than the social and political issues of Korea. However, concerning general attitudes toward the police, the results of the two groups were different. High school students responded that police-related factors were more related with general attitudes toward the police than the other factors, while university ones responded to political factors. This means that the attitudes toward the police are different conceptually from the cooperation with the police. After entering to university or college, university or college students seem to have been more socialized and politically oriented than high school students.

The attitudes toward police of high school students were found to be more favorable than those of university students. The attitudes of high school students toward the police were found not to be significantly different from university students with such variables as academic performance, the father's occupation, the state of the family, and family income. However, the attitudes toward the police had a significant difference only with peer groups attitudes. This means that the more positive students perceive their friends' attitudes to be, the more positive their own tend to be.

For university students, the attitudes of an individual toward the police were found not to be significantly different

from such variables as academic performance, the state of the family, and family income. However, the attitudes toward the police had significant differences in regards to the father's occupation and peer group's attitudes. The means of university students' attitudes were different according to their father's occupations. Their attitudes were also almost the same as those of their peer group's attitudes. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the police between groups of higher and lower socioeconomic status for both high school and university students.

For high school students, self-reported delinquency was significantly related with an increase in negativity of attitudes toward the police. However, concerning university students, there was no significant difference between self-reporting delinquency and the attitudes toward the police. This may mean that high school students reporting less delinquency tend to have more positive attitudes toward the police.

For high school students, the extent of the actual plans of individuals to enter police career was found to not be significantly different with all demographic variables. However, high school student's career plans had significant relations with the perception of parents' reaction and girl

friend's reaction to career plans concerning police work. This means that students who perceive their parents and girl friend's reaction to be negatively expressed about police work tend to exhibit less interest in police work as a career.

For university students, the extent of the actual plans of individuals to enter police career showed little variance except in regards to the father's occupation. University student's career plans were positively related to the perceptions of a best friend's, other friend's, parents', favorite teacher's, and girl friend's reactions to career plans concerning police work. Those related person's opinions were very important factors in making the decision of being a police officers as a career.

Comparative analysis

The American students may be said to have more cooperative attitudes toward the police as collaborators, and be more willing to contact the police as victims than the Japanese and Korean groups. For the Japanese group, the community-related factors -- knowing police working in the neighborhood, awareness of neighborhood police posts and crime prevention associations -- were the highest among the three countries.

The political factors of the Korean group were the lowest among the three countries. This result may reflect a strong

political impact on Korean police policy. Sometimes, this political impact makes existing police organizations less effective in raising the public's cooperative attitudes toward the police.

Regarding crime-related factors, the perception of crime and fear of crime of Japanese group were considerably less serious than other groups. Concerning police-related factors, the American group had better attitudes toward the police and good evaluation on police performance. Korean students were more group-oriented and patriotic than other groups.

B. Discussion

The attitudinal outcome is an important factor, and yet the hardest to measure, in determining the citizens trust and confidence in their police in particular and their social system in general. It varies from one society to another. One society may have a close kinship structure, while another has loose family relationships. The former has common values, beliefs, ethnicity, and language is a homogeneous society. On the other hand, heterogeneous society has mixed race and national origin. The writer looked at Korea and Japan as examples of the homogeneous society and the United States as a heterogeneous society.

It is not the intention of this writer when comparing

attitudes of Korean students toward the police with United States and other nations students to show whether one country is better than the other. The sole reason for comparison was to show that when people are closely associated with each other, personal interaction is encouraged, formally and informally; personal concern and attention is the central model for the family; unity between members is maintained; values and beliefs are socially and ethnically shared, then variance and diversity in attitudes and opinions on some issues (i.e., attitudes toward the police) are kept to a minimum-- resulting, almost, in similarity and homogeneity.

It is hoped that this research will help to generate many additional questions in the mind of the reader concerning police-community relations, and provide some incentive to search for relevant information and meaningful solutions for this timely and important problem.

C. Implications of the study

1. Limitations

In order to keep this treatise consistent with high standards of ethics, several limitations of the study should be mentioned.

- (1) The study was conducted in the city of Seoul, capital

of the Republic of Korea, chosen from among the many other cities in the country, which might have had some bearing or effect on the outcome of the results had they been included in the study.

(2) The questionnaire was administered only to high school and university students and ignored other citizens that might have affected the outcomes.

(3) It is difficult to ignore the possibility of misunderstanding between the researcher and respondents, possibly caused by inadequate translation. Although the questionnaire was translated into Korean and reviewed by several native speakers, it is difficult to estimate that possible native impacts from mis-translation were completely eliminated.

(4) The nature of the research instrument used presents some disadvantages. Fixed-alternative questions may tends to force an opinion statement on an issue about which the respondent has no definite opinion. The *unsure* choices were included to alleviate the condition to some extent. Further, a fixed-alternative question may not adequately represent a respondent's opinion, because none of the choices corresponds exactly to his position, or because they don't allow for qualification.

2. Generalization

The Korean police, founded on October 21, 1945, with the restoration of the national independence from the Japanese rule, has gone through many trials and ordeals to maintain peace and order, and to protect the lives and property of people. The most elementary knowledge of the geography, people and condition of life in South Korea shows that the difficult problems of policing South Korea not only are essentially different from the problems of policing in other countries, in Asia and around the world. The reason for the difficult problems involves continually maintaining the national security under the threat of communist North Korea, and also maintaining the domestic social order for the people in South Korea.

Against this dual challenge the Korean police have implanted their image as a strong domestic law enforcement agency in the mind of Korean people, and strengthened the foundation of both domestic social order on the one hand and national security in its struggle with North Korean on the other hand. In spite of the many obstacles mentioned in previous chapters, there is no doubt that the Korean police have made real efforts to positively develop a more effective police organization improving their relationships with the public. However, to obtain full community agreement, it must be emphasized that the police should understand and keep pace

with social change so they can adjust to a changing society and meet the varying the demands and needs of the community. They must make the public feel that the police protect citizens unless they are breaking laws; they must integrate themselves into the community; and they must adopt a new philosophy based on police and community consensus.

Crime has always existed in any society over time -- in a heterogeneous society as well as a homogeneous one, in a capitalist society as well as a socialist one, and a western society as well as a oriental one. Each group of the societies has a different philosophy and approach as to crime issues and policing to solve them. Even among the homogeneous societies, there exist differences in crime rates, social cohesiveness, and effectiveness of community policing. For example, there is a similarity between Japanese policing and Korean policing in enhancing the effectiveness of community policing by mobilizing the citizens through civil organizations. However, obvious difference between the two is also shown: police-community interactions in Japan are established through the citizen's more voluntary involvement derived from inherited culture, while that in Korea is created through more forcible government-initiated measures for political purpose. The police-community interactions in Korea are inclined to be more vulnerable to the shift of the political situation than that in Japan. Therefore, the public relations with the police in the Korean societies which

frequently experienced severe political turmoil, has been weakened more quickly than that in the Japanese society, which maintained political and societal stability for the last forty years.

According to Wasikhongo (1976), western countries' efforts to improve the operation and services of the police have overemphasized technological innovations such as sophisticated or computerized communications. Western countries need to redirect their effort and enthusiasm in non-technical areas including the police's human factors and the service principle as a way of improving the policeman's role in the modern society.

The findings of such cross-national comparative studies show that, although there are major differences in the historical development and organization of police forces, the functions of the police in many countries are basically similar (Shane, 1980). Basically, social control exercised by the community is better than that exercised by the police and criminal agencies. The police must be seen as playing an integral role to the community, as the community itself deals with social problems. The police certainly are essential, but policing is too important to be left to the police alone (Harris, 1972).

Therefore, there should be a radical increase in citizen involvement and commitment and citizens' participation in peace keeping in order to lesson their hostility and prejudice

toward the police. By recognizing that the police are a part of society, better police-community alliances may be reached based on mutual respect and understanding. Furthermore, the police community alliances program should be developed not only by the police activity but also by community initiative and activity, because the community has a basic responsibility for, and must play a decisive role in, coping with crime and all aspects of police community interactions.

C. Recommendations

1. Improvement of police service and the police image

It is necessary for the Korean police to understand that service functions are as important as law enforcement, and the good police-community interactions depends on a good police service. To be a good policemen is to render a better police image. The followings are some examples of what it takes to be a good policeman: a good police officer should have self-respect and respect for others, no matter what his/her social level; a policeman officer should be fair, open-minded, and not influenced by people's positions; a policeman should be cool and authoritative, but not domineering (Manning, 1989:234).

It is suggested the in order to receive community trust,

the Korean police should develop and increase police services to improve their image and self-discipline. Strategies for improving their images are given below:

(1) Kindness, openness, and fairness should be shown to all people involved in criminal procedures, because personal contact and experience with the police play a vital role in affecting the public image (Lee, 1984:64);

(2) To help citizens better understand the role of the Korean National Police, they should be given permission to take tours of the Korean National Police Commission and Police stations similar to the FBI tours and Ride-Along programs of local police in the United States;

(3) The police station's ability to send police officers more quickly to citizens who call for help or advice should be done;

(4) More frequent meetings between police officers and neighborhood residents should be held to enable the police officers and citizens to better understand each other (Olson, 1972:65);

(5) Police officers should make more speeches and hold public appearances to various civic groups and organizations;

(6) A healthy relationship among criminal justice agencies needs to be attained so as not to negatively affect community relations; the police need to take advantage of the powerful forces of the media to further both the police and the community's interests (Lee, 1984:65).

2. Citizen participation in police-community interactions

Basically, social control exercised by the community is better than that exercised by the police or other criminal justice agencies. The police must be seen as an aid to the community, as the community itself deals with social problems. As noted above, policing is too important to be left to the police alone. Therefore, there should be a radical increase in citizen involvement in and commitment to, law enforcement in order to lessen their hostility and prejudice toward the police. By recognizing that the police are a part of society, better police-community interactions may be reached based on mutual understanding. Furthermore, this kind of programs should be developed not only by police activity but also by community initiative and activity, because the community has a basic responsibility for, and must play a decisive role in, coping with crime and in all aspects of police-community alliances.

Today, some police-supporting organizations already exist in Korea. For example, the Police Advisory Board, Juvenile Guidance Association, Crime Prevention Association, Traffic-safety Mother's Association, to name a few. However, the police do not seem to make use of these organizations in enhancing a police-community alliance or crime prevention, because they sometimes distort their original purposes of the organizations. To make a positive police-community alliance,

the police should utilize these organizations in accordance with their original purposes, and make use of them more effectively.

In relation to the issues above, besides the Korean National Police College, university institutes on police relations with community should be set up to study crime prevention, coordination and cooperation within the criminal justice system, including media relations. Once implemented, the Korean police will need to periodically evaluate such programs with respect to the new policy framework (Lee, 1984:70).

3. Police political neutrality

Scholarly and professional work has explored police politicization-neutralization in the period of all six Republics whenever scandal and sensation have shaken the force and the nation. All writers have recognized that the political use of the police is one of the most serious of police difficulties. Although policing in a democratic society is a public and political function, Korean police has been too dependent on the political environment and too vulnerable to politicians. Regardless of the difficulty of obtaining police neutrality, the concern should be to establish a neutral police system basically free from political influence.

To accomplish this, the de-politicization of the police should be accomplished by constitutional provision. It would help to protect the police and the people from politicization in a fundamental way, because the constitution is the basic source not only of power but of its limitation.

In 1991, the Korean National Police was organized as an independent Police Commission, which would create a non-partisan policy board within the Ministry of Home Affairs to review and advise the police system as to its rules and regulations. This seemed to be a big step forward in police political neutralization and police organizational development. However, the police force are not totally independent of the government and politics, because the Police Commission is still within the Ministry of Home Affairs. The traditional police force in Korea was very efficient in controlling the people from the point of view of democracy. On the other hand, a completely decentralized force would become more democratic but might lose too much in the way of efficiency. Thus, the degree of decentralization would depend on the stage of Korean development and social security.

In conclusion, a constitutional provision on neutralization, an independent commission, and a balanced decentralization will be necessary and beneficial to police political neutralization.

4. Reformation of the police organization

The organizational philosophy adhered to by both police officers and the police organization itself is very important because it influences police-community relationships as well as the lives of citizens. In Korea the organizational process and structure of the police have been based on the norms and values of the top ranking police officers, and have had much influence on police-community alliances. It is recommended that organizational reform begin with the goal of minimizing administrative centralization while maximizing decentralization of the functions. Using a philosophy based on societal consensus, a second major goal is to establish strong rapport of the police-police relations in general in order to positively affect police-community interactions (Radelet, 1986:540). This must be kept in mind that because police reluctantly undergo change (Fyfe, 1981:1). It will be necessary to overcome inevitable resistance to organizational reform. Based on a more ethical philosophy, the following recommendations are suggested:

(1) Problems of police-community interactions are an extension of interactual problems within the police organization. Centralized power and decision making has discouraged active police involvement with the community. Consequently, many citizens feel the police is beyond their

control and understanding. It is necessary to eliminate or modify undesirable internal police-police leadership, the centralized decision making process, power relations, the inflexible hierarchical structure, and the police-police atmosphere. It is suggested that the level of power within the police organizational hierarchy must move from the top to down proportionately. Low ranking police officers must have a greater chance to participate in the decision making process than they have currently.

In addition, leaders must exemplify the attitudes and ethical behaviors they want to see in others to create a sense of obligation and responsibility between the ranks and their own personnel and the community (Olivet, 1977:68).

(2) Korean police leaders must make an effort to maintain both internal and external communication because better police-community understanding, and accommodation cannot be achieved alone by either the police or the community (Lee, 1984:67). Upward or horizontal communication instead of downward communication should be stressed to eliminate impediments to coordination between the top and bottom and among the ranks. Also an open communication channel between the police and the community should be set up to overcome the existing communication barrier and gap, particularly when dealing with citizen's complaints.

(3) Community Policing

The basic concept of Community Policing involves the assignment of complete responsibility for police service to a small geographic area to a team of police officers commanded by a team leader. The reason for concentrating on Community Policing is that it combines the team concept with a potentially powerful neighborhood concept, and it attempts to provide responsible for the control of crime and the quality of police service in a neighborhood. The relationship between the police and the community is then strengthened by concentrating efforts in a single neighborhood. Wasson (1977) has indicated that Community Policing has six key elements: geographic stability of assignment, decentralization of authority, emphasis on crime prevention, emphasis on community relations, mechanisms for effective internal police communication, and reduced reliance on the use of specialists (p. 46). Thus, Korean police policy needs to move away from its centralized specialist orientation and transfer more administrative duties to the community level police unit. Decentralization of police functions can lead to more effective crime prevention programs and the increase of police services to the community.

(4) Redistribution of Police resources

How police resources such as manpower and budgetary resources are distributed is very important to both the public

and Korean police. Because of extremely limited resources, the police have no choice but to find the best of a number of alternative ways to yield the desired maximum level of output. To obtain the maximum level of output from their resources, the police need to reprioritize their goals and adopt new technologies among which are PPBS (a planning-programming-budgeting system), MBO (management by objectives), OD (organizational development), and benefit-cost analysis. By classifying the past and the present, they will better be able to predict the future, bringing rationality into the process of budgetary decision making (Lee, 1984:68).

(5) In a democracy, order is not an end in itself, it is a means to the end of justice and sanctity of individual liberty (Radelet, 1984:6). Past Korean police philosophy has stressed the importance of suppressing social disorder or crime, even if at the expense of the individual. But social security or society's interests must be kept in balance with individual citizens' interests, especially civil rights.

It is now time for the police to change their policy. They should use persuasive strategies instead of physical force against demonstrators, particularly students protesters; they should use normal police investigation techniques instead of using sudden crack-downs of suspects and allotted arrest rates.

5. Positive police recruitment and training program

Training of both recruits and experienced officers can greatly assist in developing each officer to his fullest, not only by increasing competence on duty but also by expanding each officer's capacity for total community awareness. It is essential to expand the police capability to meet the challenges of a changing society and to develop appropriate models of response to these changes. Recruitment plays a vital role in this process and determines the success or failure of police performance. Poor recruitment tactics can contribute to poor performance.

The relatively short training period and law-oriented curriculum of Korean police education that currently is being used for both recruits and experienced officers is quite insufficient. In order to teach recruits the basic philosophy behind the police work, they must be instructed in human relations, Community Policing, social-conflict management and so on.

6. Encouraging professionalism

A sense of professionalism, as it relates to a positive self-image, is important to the police officer. Reducing stress and proving positive support systems for the police officer contributes to the sense of professionalism (Mayhall

et al., 1979:59). Because the professional model can provide the police with a democratic viewpoint and expertise through better education, better in-service training and research aimed at a positive response to people's expectations, the Korean police should utilize this model to enhance their police operation. While the police are striving for better quality through professionalism, they also should be cultivating public support.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY FORMAT IN ENGLISH

Dear student:

We are trying to learn something which may help people in societies to which you belong.

This questionnaire is designed to understand and learn more about police-community relations and the factors affecting this relationship, and to find out youth's attitudes toward police recruitment.

Therefore your response would be of great help in enhancing the knowledge of how to promote community-police relations, prevent crimes, and develop the police system.

For this study to be more meaningful, however, it is extremely important that you complete this survey. All responses to the questions are absolutely anonymous and will be kept in the strictest confidence. No one will see them except the research personnel.

You do not need to write your name. To ensure unhindered responses, it is best that you remain anonymous. Several general information questions are asked concerning your age, sex, etc., to help me interpret the results. These questions, however, can not and will not be used to identify you in any manner. This survey is completely confidential, and is not connected in any way with your school or police department. It will be seen and used only by the researchers at Michigan State University.

It will take about twenty minutes to complete this questionnaire. Even though it might give you some trouble, you might also learn more about yourself and your society by participating in this study.

After reading the questions carefully, please circle the number to the right of each question which best describes your feelings about the statement. Please try to answer all of the questions.

Thank you for your help. We hope you will enjoy filling out questionnaire.

Sincerely, yours.

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For the following, please circle the number which best describes your feelings about the statement.

1. Patriotism and loyalty are very important requirements of a good citizen.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
2. It usually helps the child in later years if he/she is forced when young, to conform to his/her parent's idea.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
3. In this complicated world, the only way we can know what is going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
4. The facts on crime and sexual immorality suggest that we will have to crack down harder on some people if we are going to save our moral standards.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
5. If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
6. My happiness is related to the well-being of my coworkers.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
7. My parents' opinions are important in my choice of a spouse
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
8. When a close friend of mine is successful, it does really make me look better.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
9. I would participate in a war for my country if a war occurs.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
10. We should obey the law even though we criticize it.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
11. People like me do not have any saying about what the government does?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
12. I don't think public officers care much what people like me think.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
13. Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that a person like me cannot understand what is going on.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure

14. Police often overstep their legal authority.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
15. Policemen are a great help to folks.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
16. The police are unresponsive to the lower-class community
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
17. People would be better off without the police.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
18. If you needed a policeman's help, would you ask for it?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
19. On the whole, police are honest.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
20. The city would be better off if there were more policemen.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
21. The police get criticized too often.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
22. The police accuse you of things you did not do.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
23. The police think they are big shots because they wear a badge.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
24. Most policemen are unfair in their dealings with young people.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
25. Most of my friends think that police are honest.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
26. Most of my friends think that people would be better off
without the police.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
27. Most of my friends feel that the police get criticized too
often.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
28. Do you think that being a policeman is good job for capable
and intelligent person?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
29. Do you think that you are qualified to become a policeman if
you wanted to?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure

30. Do you think that you would be wasting your talents and abilities by entering police work as a career?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
31. Do you think that police work as a challenging profession?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
32. Do you think that police career offers a good chance to help people?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
33. Do you think that a career in police work is a good way to personally attack some of our country's social problems?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
34. Do you think that police work offers good opportunities for advancement?
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
35. The crime around the city you lived in your country has increased rapidly.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
36. I think police officers working in my neighborhood understand local situation very well.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
37. I know where the police are around my neighborhood, and believe the police would come to help me within a few minutes in emergency.
(1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure

How would you think the following persons would react if you expressed interest in becoming a policeman?

38. Your best friend:
(1) He would strongly approve (2) He would approve
(3) He would disapprove (4) He would strongly disapprove
(5) Not sure
39. Your other friend:
(1) He would strongly approve (2) He would approve
(3) He would disapprove (4) He would strongly disapprove
(5) Not sure
40. Your parent:
(1) They would strongly approve (2) They would approve
(3) They would disapprove (4) They would strongly disapprove
(5) Not sure

41. Your favorite teacher:
(1) He would strongly approve (2) He would approve
(3) He would disapprove (4) He would strongly disapprove
(5) Not sure
42. Your girl friend:
(1) She would strongly approve (2) She would approve
(3) She would disapprove (4) She would strongly disapprove
(5) Not sure
43. Have you ever skipped school without a legitimate excuse.
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
44. Have you ever gotten into fist fights with other people ?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
45. Have you gone into restricted adult only establishments like bars, discotheques, or nightclubs?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
46. Have you ever cheated on the school exam?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) ever
47. Have you ever been involved in gang fights or used weapons in a fight?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
48. Have you ever used physical force or threatened to get someone to have sex with you?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
49. Have you ever stolen something from a store or other people?
(1) very often (2) several times (3) once or twice (4) never
50. How good does it make you feel to see the flag of your country flying?
(1) very good (2) good (3) somewhat (4) no feeling
51. How strong is your love for your country?
(1) very strong (2) strong (3) somewhat (4) no special love
52. How emotional does it make you feel to hear the national anthem?
(1) very much (2) much (3) somewhat (4) not at all
53. How proud are you to be an Korean?
(1) very proud (2) proud (3) somewhat (4) not at all
54. How much of time can you trust your government to do what is right?
(1) very much (2) much (3) somewhat (4) none

55. Do you think that the people in government waste a lot of money you pay in taxes? they waste:
 (1) a lot (2) some (3) a little (4) none
56. Would you say that the government is run by a few big interests looking out for themselves, or is it run for the benefit of all people?
 (1) for all (2) for most (3) for some (4) none
57. Do you feel that crime is very serious problem, a somewhat serious problem, or not much of a problem in your country?
 (1) very serious (2) somewhat serious
 (3) not so serious (4) not serious
58. How safe would you feel while walking alone at night in your neighborhood in your country?
 (1) very safe (2) somewhat safe (3) somewhat unsafe (4) very unsafe
59. Have you ever changed your plan to go out at night because you thought it would be unsafe to go there in your country?
 (1) many times (2) some (3) few (4) never
60. How many of the adults in your neighborhood would you know by name, if you meet them on the street?
 (1) many (2) some (3) few (4) none
61. Do you perceive that you are a part of the community in your neighborhood?
 (1) very much (2) much (3) somewhat (4) never
62. Is there a neighborhood (or mini-) police box near your house, school, or workplace in your country?
 (1) yes (2) no
63. I feel safer because the police box or a crime prevention organization exists in your neighborhood.
 (1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure
64. Approximately how many names or faces of the police officers working in your neighborhood, school, or workplace, can you remember?
 (1) none (2) ___ persons
65. Do you know any civil organization for crime prevention in your neighborhood?
 (1) yes (2) no
66. I feel safer because a crime prevention organization exists in your neighborhood.
 (1) s. agree (2) agree (3) disagree (4) s. disagree (5) unsure

67. How often have you seen police officers walking a beat, talking to people, working in the police box, around your neighborhood?
(1) often (2) sometimes (3) rarely (4) never
68. How often have you seen police officers on car patrol in your neighborhood?
(1) often (2) sometimes (3) rarely (4) never
69. Which of the following best describe your career plans at this time concerning police work?
(1) I definitely plan to become a policeman
(2) I might someday consider a possible career in police work
(3) I probably will never enter a police career
(4) I am certain I will definitely never enter a police career
(5) No idea whatsoever
70. What do we consider the most attractive aspect of police career?
(1) interest and excitement (2) authority and power
(3) chance to help others (4) security
(5) good pay and benefits (6) importance of the job
71. Which of the following would be most important in discouraging you from entering a police career?
(1) low pay (2) low prestige (3) poor advancement opportunities
(4) dangerous work (5) poor working conditions
(6) police represent establishment
72. Do you know any individual police officer as a personal friend?
(1) yes (2) no
73. Do you know four-year police college or police training school? And, if there is a chance to enter for you, do you want to enter?
(1) yes (2) no
74. I will apply to combat police as a national obligation and help the police in protecting the student's demonstration.
(1) yes (2) no
75. If there are police-student programs which enhance mutual understanding and cooperation, would they be beneficial to the students?
(1) very worthwhile and beneficial for students
(2) somewhat beneficial
(3) not very beneficial
(4) has no worth or value for students
(5) not sure

76. Suppose you saw a car accident on the street. How would you act?
- (1) I would stop what I am doing, call the police, and explain the situation
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would not get involved
 - (4) Others (please describe:)
77. Suppose, for the purpose of crime prevention or community policing, a police officer visits your house once or twice a year, and asks about family member 's occupation, stranger in the neighborhood, etc, how would you feel or act about it?
- (1) I would answer all questions as much as I could.
 - (2) I would not like the visit, but would try to answer some questions
 - (3) I would feel uncomfortable, and not cooperate with the police
 - (4) Others (please describe:)
78. How would you act if you knew someone in your neighborhood was dealing drugs?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would try to solve it without intervention of the police
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
79. How would you act if you saw a stranger entering into the neighbor's house through a window?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
80. Suppose you encounter a person being robbed by a couple of juvenile delinquents on the street. How would you act?
- (1) I would call the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would ignore it
 - (4) Others (please describe:)
81. How would you act if your bike was stolen?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
82. How would you act if you lost your wallet in public place?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it.

83. How would you act if you were robbed on the street?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
84. How would you act if a family member was sexually abused by non-family member?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
85. How would you act if you lost your way while walking or driving?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
86. How would you act if your neighbor made a lot of noise at late night?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
87. How would you act if you got into a car accident?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
88. How would you act if you saw a stranger entering into the neighbor's house through a window?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
89. How would you act if you knew someone in your neighborhood was dealing drugs?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it
 - (3) I would do nothing about it
90. How would you act if you saw a car hit someone and drive away?
- (1) I would turn to the police
 - (2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it

(3) I would do nothing about it

91. How would you act if you saw a stranger hanging around near your neighborhood?

(1) I would turn to the police

(2) I would view the situation for a while, if it is not serious, I would ignore it

(3) I would do nothing about it

92. How would you act if you saw a person stealing something in a store?

(1) I would turn to the police

(2) I would try to solve it without intervention of the police

(3) I would do nothing about it

93. How would you act if you saw a gang fighting on the street?

(1) I would turn to the police

(2) I would try to solve it without intervention of the police

(3) I would do nothing about it

Please check the one reflecting your opinion most closely.

94. Have you ever been a victim of crime (e.g, shoplifting, stealing, assault, robbery, fraud, sexual abuse, etc.) during the last three years?

(1) yes/ please write how many times ()

(2) no (if your answer is no, go to #98)

95. Approximately, how many times did you contact the police to report the crimes you were a victim during the last three years?

(1) none (if your answer is none, go to #98)

(2) () times

96. Please describe all cases you reported and not reported briefly under #95 above.(e.g. stealing, shoplifting, fighting, robbery, fraud, sexual assaults..):

(1) cases reported: _____

(2) cases not reported: _____

97. Do you think that you were satisfied with the police's response to your reports in #96?

(1) very satisfied (2) satisfied (3) unsatisfied (4) very unsatisfied (5) unsure

98. Have you ever seen someone else commit a crime (e.g, shoplifting, stealing, assault, robbery, fraud, sexual abuse, etc.) during the last three years?

(1) yes (how many times _____)

(2) no (if your answer is no, go to #102)

99. Approximately, how many times did you contact the police to report the crimes you saw committed by someone else during the last three years?
 (1) none (2) () times
100. Please describe all cases you reported and not reported briefly under #97 above (e.g. stealing, shoplifting, fighting, robbery, fraud, sexual assaults..):
 (1) cases reported: _____
 (2) cases not reported: _____
101. Do you think that you were satisfied with the police's response to your reports in #100 ?
 (1) very satisfied (2) satisfied (3) unsatisfied (4) very unsatisfied (5) unsure
102. Approximately how many times did you contact the police to ask for some help not related with criminal cases(e.g, asking a way, or personal emergency) during the last three years?
 (1) none (if your answer is none, go to #104)
 (2) () times
103. Please describe all cases you contacted briefly in #102 ?

104. Do you think that you were satisfied with the police's response to your reports in #103 ?
 (1) very satisfied (2) satisfied (3) unsatisfied (4) very unsatisfied (5) unsure
105. Your age ()
106. Your grade point
 (1) Over average 90 (2) Average 80 - 89 (3) Average 70-79
 (4) Average 60-69 (5) Below average 60
107. Religious activities (church, temple, cathedral, etc)
 (1) Most time participate (2) Sometimes (3) Never
108. Father's occupation:
 (1) Government officials
 (2) Self-employed Business man
 (3) Skilled or semi-skilled worker
 (4) Company-employed Officeman
 (5) Father unemployed
 (6) Unskilled worker
 (7) Other
109. Are your parents living ?
 (1) Both living (2) Only father living (3) Only mother living
 (4) Neither living

110. Are your parents divorced or separated?

(1) yes (2) no

111. Your annual family income is:

(1) 2,500,000 won or more (2) 2,500,000-1,250,000
(3) 1,250,000-500,000 (4) Less than 500,000 won

112. The socio-economic status of your family that you feel by yourself.

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
 upper upper middle lower middle low

Please use this space to make any comments you may feel are appropriate.

This concludes the questionnaire. Thank you for your patience and cooperation. It is hoped that the opinions you have expressed will lead to greater understanding of how young adults feel about the police and police recruitment, and possibly produce much needed solutions to relevant problems in this area.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY FORMAT IN KOREAN

신여하는 학생 여러분께:

본 연구의 목적은 경찰과 시민과의 관계 그리고 그 관계에 영향을 미치는 요소를 찾고 학생들의 경찰관 및 그 직업에 대한 의식을 조사하기 위한 것 입니다. 그러므로, 본 연구는 형사학의 발전뿐 아니라 또 향후 경찰, 시민관계 개선, 범죄예방 및 경찰 발전등의 과제 해결에 큰 도움이 될 것입니다.

본 조사가 더욱 의미있기 위해서 귀하께서 설문지를 완전히 작성해 주시는 것이 무엇보다도 중요한 일입니다. 본 설문지는 무기명이며 철저히 보안이 유지되어 본 연구원을 제외한 누구에게도 공개되지 않을 것입니다. 본 조사는 학위논문의 자료로 이용될 뿐이므로 귀하의 학교나 기타 관계기관과는 전혀 관계가 없음을 말씀드립니다. 본 설문에는 정답이나 오답이 있을 수 있으며 주어진 문항에 관한 학생 여러분의 의견을 묻고 있을 따름입니다. 각 문항을 조심스럽게 읽으신 후 본인의 입장이나 의견을 가장 잘 표현하는 내용의 응답을 골라 0 포를 해주시면 됩니다.

예를 들어 나는 경찰관이 되고 싶다라는 문항에 절대적으로 동의하시면 강하게 동의한다는 1 번에 0 포를 하시면 됩니다.

보기 1)

강하게 동의 / 동의 / 동의 않음 / 강하게 동의 않음

나는 경찰관이 되고 싶다. ① 2 3 4

예를 들어 아래 문항의 감동을 느낀다에 동의하시면 그 문항에 직접 0 포를 하시면 됩니다.

보기 2)

당신은 태극기가 휘날림을 볼때 어떤 감정을 갖는가 ?
깊은 감동을 느낀다 / 감동을 느낀다 / 약간 감동을 느낀다 / 전혀 감정이 없다

모든 설문에 마침없이 답변주시기를 부탁드립니다. 본 연구에 참여해주신데 대해서 진심으로 감사드립니다.

1991년 9 월 윤 성태

YOON, SUNG-TAE
1403 C SPARTAN VILLAGE
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
E. LANSING MI 48823

I

본 설문지의 모든 답안은 당신의 나라(한국)의 사정이나 당신의 생각과 경험을 바탕으로 작성해 주십시오. 하기의 각 질문에 대해 4개의 답안중 오직 하나에만 0표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

1= 강하게 동의 2= 동의 3= 동의 않음 4= 강하게 동의 않음

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. 애국심과 충성심은 훌륭한 시민이 되는데 매우 중요한 요건이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 2. 어렸을 적에 부모의견에 순응하도록 교육됨은, 장래 어린이 발전에 도움이 된다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 3. 복잡다단한 이 세상에서, 세상이 어떻게 돌아가는지를 알 수 있는 길은 믿음만한 지도자나 전문가에 의존하는 것이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 4. 범죄와 성도덕 문란을 볼때, 도덕성의 회복을 위해서는 관련된 사람들을 확실히 색출 강하게 처벌해야 한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 5. 단체의 수준이나 본위기 때문에 내 자신의 발전이 저해되고 있다면, 그 단체를 떠나 독립하는 것이 나을 것이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 6. 나의 행복은 나의 동료들의 행복과 관계가 있다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 7. 결혼상대를 정하는데 나의 부모의 의견은 중요하다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 8. 나의 친한 친구의 성공은 나의 체면을 올려준다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 9. 나는 전쟁이 일어나면 나의 조국을 위해 전쟁에 참가할 것이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 10. 우리는 법을 비판할찌라도 역시 법을 따라야 한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 11. 나 같은 사람은 정부에 대해 얘기할만한 여지를 가지고 있지 않다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 12. 정부관리들이 나같은 사람에게는 깊이 관심을 갖고 있지 않다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 13. 정부와 정치는 너무 복잡해서 나 같은 사람은 이해할 수가 없다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 14. 경찰은 자주 그들의 권한을 월권한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 15. 경찰은 일반국민에 큰 도움을 주는 조직이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 16. 경찰은 하류 계층, 소시민의 요구에 잘 적절한 조치를 취하지 않는다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 17. 시민들은 경찰관 없이도 잘 살 수 있다고 믿고있다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 18. 경찰관의 도움이 필요하다면 주저없이 도움을 청한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 19. 경찰관들은 정직한 사람들이라고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 20. 경찰관들이 사회에 더 많이 있으면 우리 사회는 더 좋아질 것이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 21. 경찰관들이 너무 자주 비난을 받는다고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 22. 경찰관들은 내가 하지도 않은 일에 대해서도 경찰관서에 연행한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |

1= 강하게 동의 2= 동의 3= 동의 않음 4= 강하게 동의 않음

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 23. 경찰관들은 제복을 입고 있기때문에 때때로 거만하게 행동한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 24. 대부분의 경찰관들이 시민은 물론 학생을 다루는데 있어 불공정하다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 25. 나의 친구들의 대부분은 경찰관들이 정직한 사람들이라고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 26. 나의 친구들의 대부분은 우리사회가 경찰관 없이도 잘 살 수 있다고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 27. 나의 친구들의 대부분은 경찰관들이 너무 자주 비난을 받는다고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 28. 경찰관은 유능하고 똑똑한 학생들에게 적당한 직업이라고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 29. 당신이 원하면 현재의 성적 신체의 조건등이 경찰관이 될수 있는 조건이 될수 있다고 생각합니까? | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 30. 경찰관이 되면 나의 재능과 실력을 발휘할 수 없다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 31. 경찰관은 남자로서 한번 해 볼만한 직업이라고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 32. 경찰관이되면 시민들을 돕는 좋은 기회가 많이 생긴다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 33. 경찰관은 우리 사회에 어려운 문제들을 해결할 수 있는 직업이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 34. 경찰관은 자아실현과 출세에 좋은 직업이다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 35. 내가 살고 있는 도시의 범죄는 급격히 증가하여 왔다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 36. 나는 내 이웃에서 근무하는 경찰관이 지역사정을 잘 이해한다고 생각한다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 37. 나는 경찰이 내 이웃의 어디에 있는지 잘 알고 있으며, 위급한 상황에 바로 나를 돕기위해 올 것으로 믿는다. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 당신이 경찰관이 된다고 하면 아래 사람들은 어떻게 생각할 것이라고 판단됩니까? | |
| 38. 당신의 가장 친한 친구. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 39. 보통의 친구들. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 40. 당신의 부모. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 41. 당신을 가장 아끼는 선생님. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 42. 당신의 여자친구. | 1. 2. 3. 4. |

지난 3년간 경험을 바탕으로 답해 주십시오.

1= 매우자주 2= 자주 3= 거의 없음 4= 전혀없음

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 43. 정당한 사유 없이 수업을 태먹거나 결석한 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 44. 다른 사람과 주먹싸움을 한 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 45. 미성년자의 출입이 금지된 술집, 나이트클럽, 디스코 클럽등에 출입한 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 46. 시험때 부정행위를 한 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 47. 피싸움을 하거나 흥기를 이용해 싸운 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 48. 성행위를 하기위해 상대방을 위협하거나 물리적인 힘을 가한 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |
| 49. 상점이나 다른 사람에게서 물건을 훔친 일 | 1. 2. 3. 4. |

II

하기의 각 질문에 대해 아래의 답안중 오직 하나에만 직접 항목위에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

50. 당신은 태극기가 휘날림을 볼때 어떤 감정을 갖는가 ?
깊은 감동을 느낀다 / 감동을 느낀다 / 약간 감동을 느낀다 / 전혀 감정이 없다
51. 당신은 조국에 대한 사랑이 얼마나 강하다고 생각하는가 ?
매우 사랑한다 / 사랑한다 / 그저 그렇게 사랑한다 / 특별한 사랑이 없다.
52. 당신은 이국가를 들을 때 어떤 감정이 되는가 ?
강하게 감동된다 / 보통으로 감동된다 / 약간 감동된다 / 전혀 감동 안된다.
53. 당신은 한국인임이 자랑스러운가 ?
매우 자랑스롭다 / 자랑스롭다 / 약간 자랑스롭다 / 전혀 자랑스롭지 않다.
54. 얼마나 자주 당신의 정부가 옳은 일을 하고 있다고 생각하는가 ?
모든 경우 / 대부분의 경우 / 약간의 경우 / 전혀 없다.
55. 당신의 정부관리들이 국민의 세금을 얼마나 낭비하고 있다고 생각하는가 ?
굉장히 많이 / 많이 / 약간 / 전혀
56. 당신은 정부가 누구를 위해서 운영되고 있다고 생각하는가 ?
모든 국민 / 대다수의 국민 / 약간의 국민 / 극소수의 국민
57. 한국의 범죄상황이 어떻다고 생각 합니까 ?
매우 심각하다 / 심각하다 / 약간 심각하다 / 심각하지 않다
58. 당신이 사는 동네에서, 밤거리를 걷고 있었을 때 어떻게 느꼈습니까 ?
매우 안전하다 / 대체로 안전하다 / 약간 불안하다 / 매우 불안하다
59. 당신은 밤외출시 불안감을 느껴 외출계획을 바꾼적이 있었습니까 ?
많이 / 자주 / 가끔 / 없음

60. 동네 이웃 어른들중 얼마만큼의 사람들이 당신의 이름을 알고 있다고 생각하는가 ?
 많은 사람 / 약간의 사람 / 극소수 / 없음
61. 당신의 이웃에 얼마만큼의 친근감을 느끼는가 ?
 매우 친근 / 친근 / 약간 친근 / 전혀 친근치 않다.
62. 당신의 이웃에 파출소가 있습니까 ?
 네 / 아니오 ("아니오"라면 #65 로 넘어가시오)
63. 나는 파출소가 내 이웃에 있음으로 더욱 안전감을 느낀다.
 강하게 동의 / 동의 / 동의 않음 / 강하게 동의 않음 / 확신 못함.
64. 동네 파출소에 근무하는 경찰관중 몇명의 얼굴이나 이름을 기억합니까 ?
 전혀 못함 / () 명
 매우 친근 / 친근 / 약간 친근 / 전혀 친근치 않다.
65. 당신 이웃에 범죄예방기능을 하는 민간단체나 모임이 있습니까 ?
 네 / 아니오 ("아니오"라면 #67로 넘어 가시오)
66. 이웃에 상기의 파출소나 범죄 예방기능을 하는 단체가 있기때문에 보다 안전감을 느낀다는데 동의합니까 ?
 강하게 동의 / 동의 / 동의 않음 / 강하게 동의 않음 / 확신 못함.
67. 당신은 이웃에서 거리를 순찰하거나, 시민들과 얘기를 하거나 파출소에서 근무하거나 하는 경관을 얼마나 자주 보았습니까 ?
 많이 / 가끔 / 거의 없음 / 전혀 없음
68. 당신은 이웃에서 얼마나 자주 경찰순찰차를 보았습니까 ?
 자주 / 가끔 / 거의 없다 / 전혀없다
69. 아래 사항중 경찰관에 대한 장래 직업계획중 당신의 생각과 같은 것은 어느 것입니까?
 1. 확실히 경찰관이 될계획이다.
 2. 장래의 언젠가에 될 수 도있을 것이다.
 3. 아마도 안될 것이다.
 4. 확실히 경찰관은 되지 않을 것 이다.
 5. 모르겠다.
70. 아래 사항중 어떤것이 경찰관 직업의 매력이라고 생각합니까?
 1. 범죄와 투쟁하는 점.
 2. 권력 지향적인 점.
 3. 시민에 봉사하는 점.
 4. 법을 엄정히 집행하는 점.
 5. 좋은 보수와 사회적 혜택을 받는 점.
71. 경찰관이 되는데 장애요소가 되는 것이 무엇이라고 생각합니까?
 1. 낮은 봉급.
 2. 낮은 사회적 평가.
 3. 출세 승진기회가 적음.
 4. 직업의 위험성.
 5. 근무 여건이 열악함.

72. 현재 경찰관인 사람을 개인적으로 알고 있습니까? (친척, 가족등 포함)
1. 예 2. 아니오
73. 4 년제 경찰대학이나 경찰관이되는 교육기관에 대해 알고 있으며 진학이나 직업선택할 기회가 주어진다면 입교할 것이다.
1. 예 2. 아니오
74. 국방의 의무를 위해 데모진압등 힘이 들더라도 의무경찰(또는 전경)에 지원해 경찰업무에 보조할 것이다.
1. 예 2. 아니오
75. 시민 학생들과 경찰관들이 상호 협력, 이해증진하는 민경친선 프로그램이 있다면 어떻게 생각합니까?
1. 시민 학생들에게 아주 유용할 것이다.
2. 시민 학생들에게 조금 유용할 것이다.
3. 들어본적이 없다.
4. 시민 학생들에게 가치가 없을 것이다.
5. 모르겠다.

각 경우에 대해 당신의 생각과 가장 가까운 것 하나만에 직접 항목위에 O표 하시오.

76. 길거리에서 교통사고를 목격했을때:
① 하던 일을 멈추고, 경찰에 연락, 상황을 설명한다.
② 상황을 잠시 보고, 큰 사고가 아니면, 지나친다.
③ 상관치 않는다.
④ 기타(설명하시오:)
77. 범죄 예방이나 경찰시민관계 개선을 위한 목적으로, 경찰관이 당신 덕을 일년 1-2회를 방문하여 당신의 가족상황, 직업, 주위의 수상한 자등에 관해 묻는다면 당신은 어떻게 느끼겠는가?
① 가능한한 모든 질문에 모두 대답하겠다.
② 경찰의 방문이 반갑진 않으나, 어떤 질문에만 대답하겠다.
③ 방문이 불쾌하여 경찰에 협조하지 않겠다.
④ 기타(설명하시오:)
78. 경찰관이 방문하여 마약거래에 혐의가 있는 당신동네 이웃사람에 대하여 묻는다면 어떻게 행동하겠는가?
① 내가 아는 모든 것을 얘기하겠다.
② 약간의 얘기를 하겠으나 중요한 얘기는 피하겠다.
③ 개입치 않겠다.
④ 기타(설명하시오:)
79. 당신이 한밤중 당신이 아는 어떤 사람이 이웃집에 들어가 뭔가를 훔치는 것을 목격했다면 어떻게 행동하겠는가?
① 경찰에 반드시 연락한다.
② 상황에 따라서 적절히 결정하겠다.
③ 모든 척 하겠다.
④ 기타(설명하시오:)

80. 당신은 노상에서 거리 불량 청소년들에 의해 강도당하는 이를 발견했다면 어떻게 행동하겠는가 ?
- ① 경찰에 연락하겠다.
 - ② 상황에 따라서 적절히 결정하겠다.
 - ③ 모른 척 하겠다.
 - ④ 기타(설명하시오:)

III.

하기의 경우, 당신은 어떤 행동을 취할 것인지 1 ~ 3 중에서 하나에만 0표 하시오.
 1 = 경찰에 연락한다.
 2 = 상황에 따라서 적절히 결정하겠다.
 3 = 아무 조치를 취하지 않고 포기하거나 지나친다.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|
| 81. 자전거를 도둑 당했다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 82. 공공장소에서 지갑을 도난 당했다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 83. 길가에서 강도 당했다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 84. 가족 일원이 가족의 사람에 의해 성적 학대를 받았다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 85. 노상이나 운전중에 길을 잃었다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 86. 밤늦게 이웃에서 시끄럽게 한다. _____ | 1. 2. 3. |
| 87. 자동차 사고를 당했다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 88. 낯선 자가 이웃집에 창문으로 진입함을 발견했다. | 1. 2. 3. |
| 89. 당신의 이웃이 마약거래함을 알았을 때 | 1. 2. 3. |
| 90. 차가 사람을 치고 달아났을 때 | 1. 2. 3. |
| 91. 당신 이웃에서 수상한 사람이 서성거리고 있을 때 | 1. 2. 3. |
| 92. 상점에서 물건을 훔치는 것을 보았을 때 | 1. 2. 3. |
| 93. 거리에서 조직범죄가 싸움을 벌일 때 | 1. 2. 3. |

아래의 질문 역시 당신의 경험을 바탕으로 아래의 각 질문에 대해 오직 하나에만 0표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

94. 당신은 지난 3년간 하기의 범죄를 당한 적이 있었습니까 ?
 (예를 들면 소매치기, 폭행, 강도, 사기, 성적학대 등 ...)
- ① 네 (몇번:)
 - ② 아니오 ("아니오" 이면 #98로 넘어 가시오)

107. 교회, 사찰, 성당 등의 종교활동등의 참가 여부

1. 참가하고 있다.
2. 참가해본적이 있다.
3. 전혀 해본적이 없다.

- ### 108. 아버지의 직업

1. 공무원.
2. 사업가
3. 전문 기술자.
4. 회사원
5. 무직
6. 영세 상인, 노무직
7. 다른 직업 (써주세요)

- ### 109. 결혼 가정어부

1. 양부모 생존
2. 아버지만 생존
3. 어머니만 생존
4. 모두 안계심

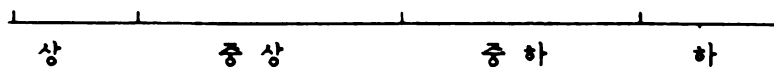
110. 부모가 이혼했습니까?

1. 예 2. 아니오

- ### 111. 가족의 월 평균수입

1. 250만원 이상 2. 250-125만원 이상 3. 125-50만원이상 4. 50만원 이하.

112. 당신이 느끼는 당신집안의 생활정도



지금까지 귀중한 시간을 내서 본설본지를 끝까지 작성해준데 대해 다시 한번 진심으로 감사의 드리며 여러분의 장래에 행운이 가득하기를 기원드립니다. 감사합니다.

APPENDIX C

COMMUNITY-ORIENTED POLICING PROGRAMS

Community-Oriented Policing Programs

1. Community/Police Liaison (Winston-Salem, North Carolina)¹

Goals: To provide a 24-hour a day liaison between police and community to prevent crime. To change the image of police, so they would be viewed as people who can help those in trouble and as people who can be trusted.

Strategies: The Concept involved setting up a single sector of the police department, Community Service Unit, to investigate parental neglect, attack the causes and conditions that lead to crime and delinquency, find truant kids, and work in the recreational facilities kids use.

2. "I would like to help you" Approach (Wauwatosa, Wisconsin)²

Goals: Crime prevention and citizen education

Strategies: The Police/Community Relations program used a slide program for community education. A special program was initiated to teach retailers how to spot shoplifters. They also provided a speaker's bureau and provided crime prevention information and materials they developed for use in other communities.

3. One crime-Free Day (Memphis, Tennessee)³

Goals: To involve citizens in the control of crime, by showing the benefit of concerted action.

Strategies: A group of realtors funded the program to encourage companies and civic-minded individuals to work with the police to stamp out all crime for one day. The Tactics employed were bumper stickers and pamphlets announcing the upcoming crime-free day, reinforced by publicity in local

¹"A New Approach to Crime Prevention." The Police Chief. April, 1967, pp. 33-41.

²"A Plan of Action in Police-Community Relations." The Police Chief, September, 1967, pp. 50-51.

³"One Crime-Free Day." The Police Chief. May, 1972, p. 22.

media. The publicity blitz culminated in a march. Statistics for the day were gathered, as well as for the day after, showing a decrease in certain kinds of crimes.

4. Community Sector Team Policing-Personalized Patrol
(Cincinnati, Ohio)⁴

Goals: To improve effectiveness by strengthening the relationships between individual officials and the public, one-on-one and in groups.

Strategies: Community Sector Team Policing began as an experimental program, later expanded by a grant from the Police Foundation. A team was headed by a lieutenant and three sergeants on a 24-hour-a-day basis, with an average of 32 other members involved. Teams were assigned according to neighborhood need, with mandatory specific training designed to promote citizen-police contact.

5. Police Social Workers Act as Community Brokers
(Multnomah County Sheriff's Department, Oregon)⁵

Goals: To promoting counseling services through the police after regular business hours without overburdening police.

Strategies: The department recruited three students of social work from Portland State University and assigned one student and one volunteer uniformed officer each night to act as a counselling team. The team was dispatched on calls that seemed appropriate: family fights, attempted suicides, neighborhood disputes, etc. Initial success allowed the program to expand, adding a psychiatric social worker. He patrolled at night and followed up on contacts during the day. However, this stretched the service too thin, so the program was transferred and limited to one unit dealing only with juveniles.

⁴"Effective Personalized Patrol." The Police Chief. November, 1972, pp. 18-19, 66.

⁵"Police Social Worker-A Community Blocker." The Police Chief. June, 1974, pp. 28-32.

6. Neighborhood Police Teams in the Big City.
(New York City, New York)⁶

Goals: To provide neighborhood team policing services to various neighborhoods in New York City to improve police-community relations.

Strategies: Seventy teams operated out of various precincts in the initial experiment, with each team headed by a sergeant in command who was responsible for conditions in his team area. High priority was given to visiting civic, religious, and social groups to explain the program to the community.

7. Team Policing of a Melting Pot/ Transient Student Area
(New Brunswick, New Jersey)⁷

Goals: To affix responsibility for a small area, furnish a visible presence, combine foot and motor patrol, combine patrol and investigative duties, overcome police boredom, and bring police closer to the community.

Strategies: The team (one captain, two sergeants, four officers, and a secretary) was in charge of a 14-block area, ethnically mixed and populated with students from Rutgers. All team members wore uniforms, with one officer on foot and the rest motorized. Patrols made a special effort to visit businesses. Program resulted in an increase in reported crime, a drop in index crime figures, and also attendance at nighttime activities increased during the initial six months of the programs.

8. Volunteers Aid Police
(Maricopa County, Phoenix, Arizona)⁸

Goals: To involve interested, qualified citizens volunteers in the some of the crucial functions of law enforcement.

Strategies: Recruited volunteers who file applications

⁶"Response to the Community: A Neighborhood Police Team Profile." The Police Chief. March, 1975, pp. 32, 74-77.

⁷"The Neighborhood Task Force in New Brunswick, NJ." Police Chief. June, 1975, pp. 48-49.

⁸"Maricopa County Sheriff's Dept. Volunteer Program." Police Chief. February, 1976, pp. 34-36.

and have a background check done. Volunteer must be able to do the work he volunteers for, have no felony convictions, and be of good moral character. About 3,000 have volunteered, to assist in crime watches, posses, public speaking, writing, building and carpentry, organizing, phone answering, prisoner transportation, staffing switchboards, assisting in records and identification bureau, and serving as chaplains. Training in a wide number of areas is made available by the Sheriff's Department.

9. Project Neighborhood Watch (Scarsdale, New York)⁹

Goals: To increase public awareness and vigilance in fight against crime (specifically residence and business burglaries and robberies)

Strategies: Initially directed toward retail business. Police department selected and recruited community groups, then produced a presentation and film, literature, and a newspaper ad (Ten Point Burglary Prevention Measures). Information was disseminated through meetings. Also approached post office and local cab company so that 50 mail vehicles and 15 private cabs became part of the effort. All vehicles bore a special logo, and a later local CB group joined this effort. Operation Identifax encouraged citizens to mark valuables with a number stored on file with police. A tactical Squad of police officers volunteered to patrol in plain clothes and in unmarked vehicles.

10. "Territorial Imperative" Motivates Community (Los Angeles, California)¹⁰

Goals: To make citizens feel responsible for their "turf" in effort to deter crime.

Strategies: Police Department used the Basic Car Plan to foster this feeling of geographic responsibility, stabilizing uniform patrol officer assignments in 83 different a Basic Car districts throughout the city. The neighborhood Watch Program evolved out of Basic Car Plan, to take crime prevention into the home, combining the efforts of police, media and neighborhood groups. Later, police changed to a line decentralization philosophy, instituting team policing, with 65

⁹"Project Neighborhood Watch." The Police Chief. March, 1978, pp. 28-29.

¹⁰"Community Mobilizations-A Strategy For Crime Prevention." The Police Chief. March, 1978, pp. 30-32.

tams, consisting of uniform and investigative personnel headed by a lieutenant. Other programs initiated and included Police-Community Councils, Police-Clergy Councils, Deputy Auxiliary Police, Explorer Program, Law Enforcement Officials Groups, and Reserve Police.

11. Mobile Eye Patrol (Morton Grove, Illinois)¹¹

Goals: To involve citizens in crime prevention

Strategies: Volunteers received eight hours of training through lectures, movies, and a test. ID and rules were issued, then they were made members of Mobile Eye Patrol. Patrol is essentially an individual patrol, where volunteers are on the lookout for suspicious incidents. Volunteers complete activity sheets and notify police, if necessary, through CB channel 9 to a volunteer base station that relays information to the department. All activity sheets and logs kept by the base are turned into the police department. A weekly bulletin tells members the location of special watches. Patterns are predetermined by the Crime Prevention Bureau, based on area crime rates. For instance, the bureau would target extra patrols around schools at Halloween. The Mobile Eye Patrol also issues Crime Opportunity Warning Tickets, to notify residents of specific problem, such as open garage doors.

12. Civilian Crime Prevention Unit (Scott County, Minnesota)¹²

Goals: To form a citizen crime prevention unit

Strategies: Six police chiefs from six communities in the county formed the Scott County Law Enforcement Council to administer the civilian crime prevention unit, through a state grant. All crime prevention unit officers were initially outfitted in grey slacks and blue blazers and drove specially marked cars to promote visibility. Duties included visiting businesses and promoting operation ID. Also gave presentations on shoplifting, controlling vandalism, preventing check and credit cards fraud, preventing burglaries, controlling employee theft, and reducing personal assaults such as rape. The program extended into schools.

¹¹"The Morton Grove 'Mobile Eye Patrol'." The Police Chief. March, 1978, pp. 36-37.

¹²"A Progressive Approach to Crime Prevention." The Police Chief. March, 1978, pp. 40-41.

13. Operation Crime Alert (Stafford Township, Manahawkin County, New Jersey)¹³

Goals: To broaden the efforts of the police-staffed Crime Prevention Unit, the police department established Operation Crime Alert to combine efforts by the police and public.

Strategies: The first step asked concerned citizens to complete an application form and pledge assistance in crime prevention. Each who responded received an ID card, with the identifying number they could use to report a crime, suspicious activity, or complaint. Citizens could remain anonymous, to avoid fear of retaliation, with the goal of increasing crime reporting. Medical information could be recorded on the back of the card, targeted to aid senior citizens. An evaluation showed crime reporting increased and citizen-police relations improved.

14. Stop and Talk Program (Coral Gables, Florida)¹⁴

Goals: Because of the geographic area to be covered, foot patrol was not feasible, so the police chief instituted a "stop and talk" program to encourage police-citizen communication.

Strategies: Each officer is required to spend ten minutes of each hour on patrol talking with residents, businessmen, and students, concerning their views on the city's crime problems.

15. Police-community Comprehensive Crime Prevention Program (Evanston, Illinois)¹⁵

Goals: To provide a table partnership between citizens and police to reduce frequency of target crimes, reduce fear of crime, and enhance public safety.

Strategies: For residents, the police conducted security surveys, operation identification, and provided a residential crime prevention information packet featuring 911 information. Collective strategies included a neighborhood watch, citizen

1979, ¹³"Operation Crime Alert." The Police Chief. March, pp. 47-48.

¹⁴"Stop and Talk." The Police Chief. March, 1981, p. 10.

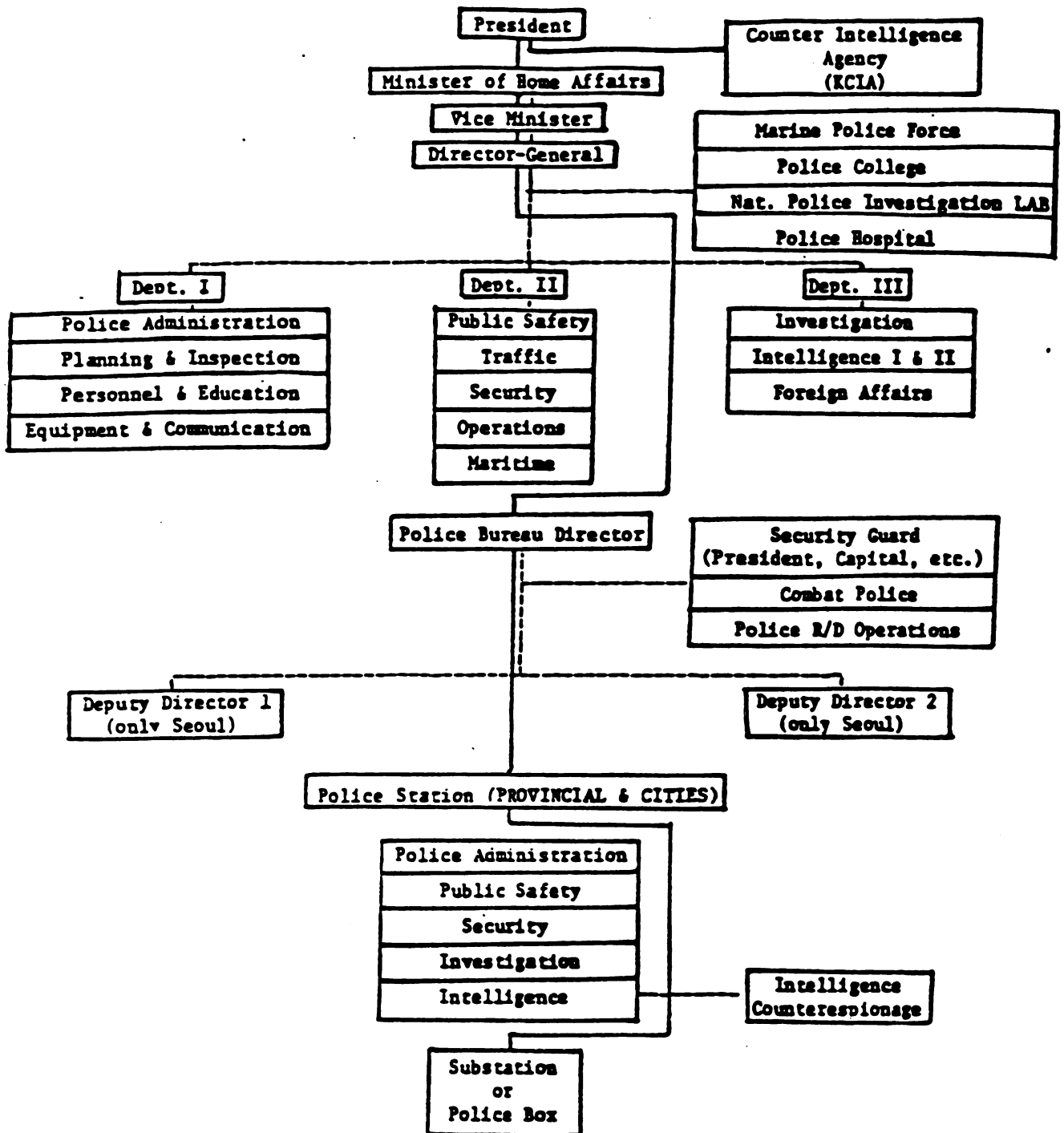
¹⁵"Community Crime Prevention: Fulfilling Its Promise." The Police Chief. February, 1983, pp. 29-31.

senior program, newsletter ALERT, and a resident crime prevention committee. For business, a directed retail foot patrol program provided regular beat officers. Beats were determined through crime analysis. Officers provided security surveys and distributed crime prevention packets. Police also provided crime prevention lessons for Evanston schools.

APPENDIX D

LIST OF FIGURES

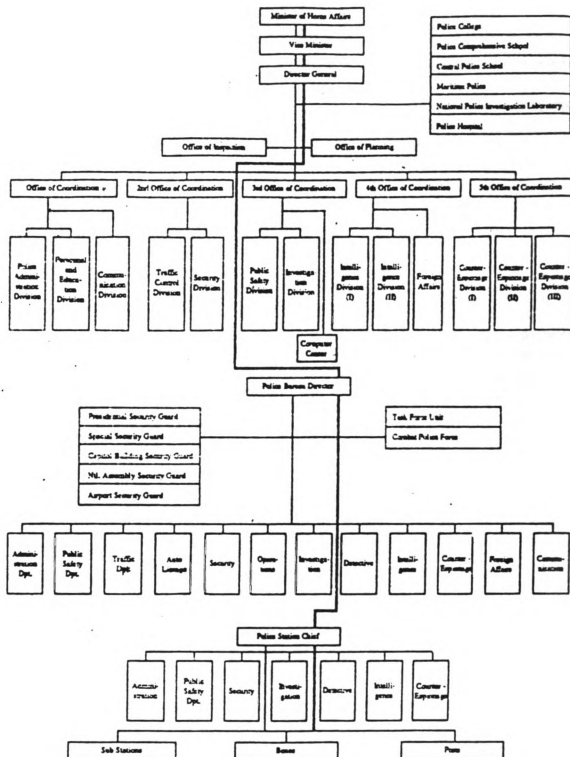
Figure 1
Korean National Police Organization; the 4th Republic, 1978:
National Police Headquarters and Bureaus



———— Direct Authority

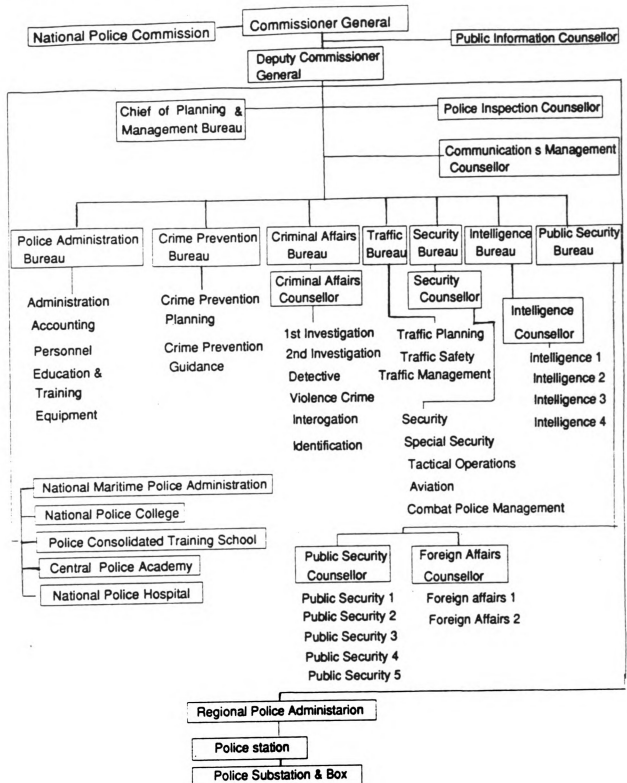
Source: Publication from National Police Headquarters, Seoul, Korea (1978)

Figure 2
Korean National Police Organisation; the 6th Republic, 1988:
National Police Headquarters and Bureaus



Source: Publication from National Police Headquarters (1988)
 : Direct Authority

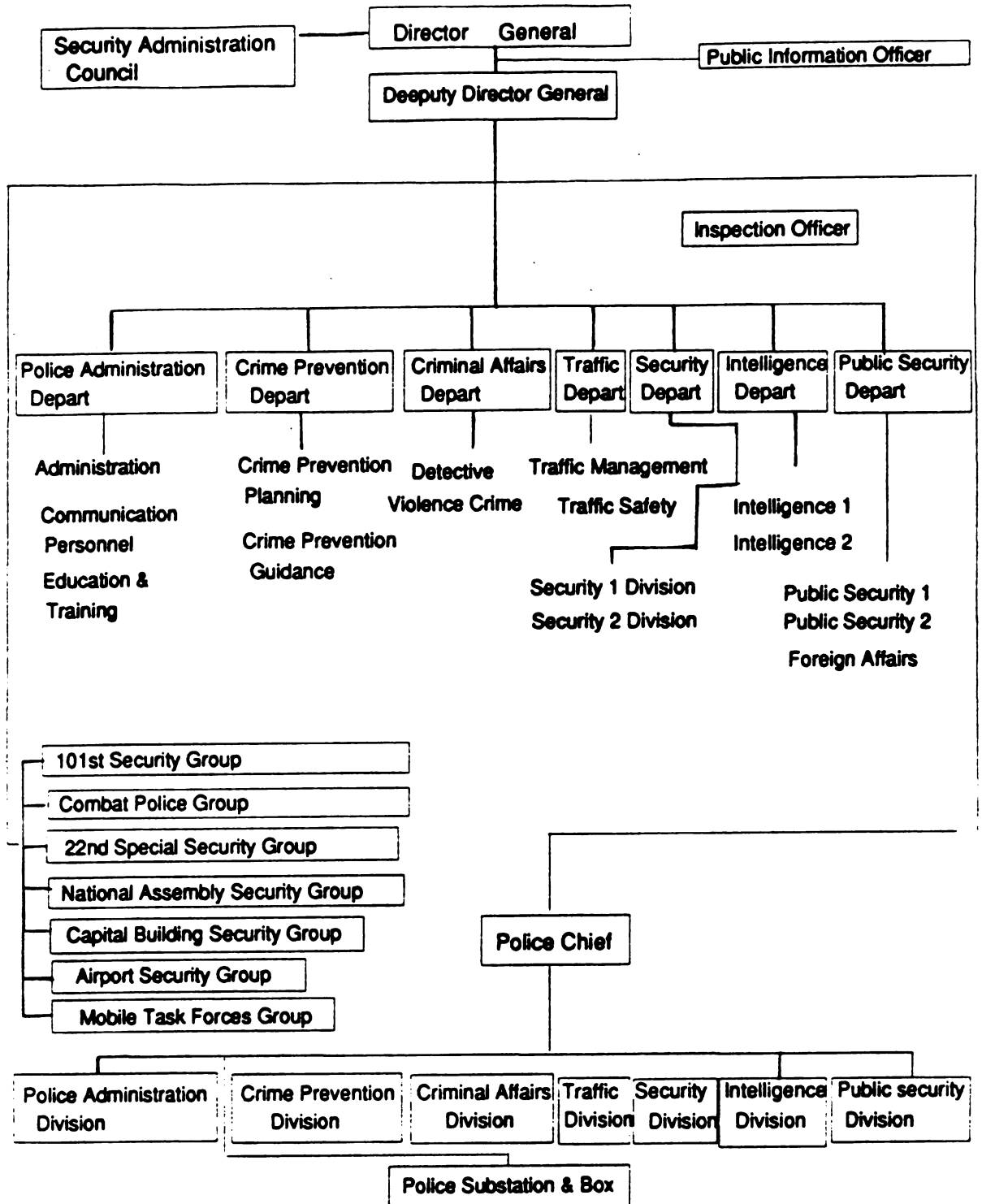
Figure 3
Korean National Police Organization; the 6th Republic, 1991:
National Police Administration and Bureaus



Source: Publication from National Police Adminisdrtration, Seoul, Korea (1991)

: Direct Authority

Figure 4
Korean National Police Organization; the 6th Republic, 1991:
Seoul Police Administration and Bureaus



Source: Publication from National Police Administration, Seoul, Korea (1991)

— : Direct Authority

Figure 5
Police Activities for the Police-Community Alliance

Service Activities for Citizens

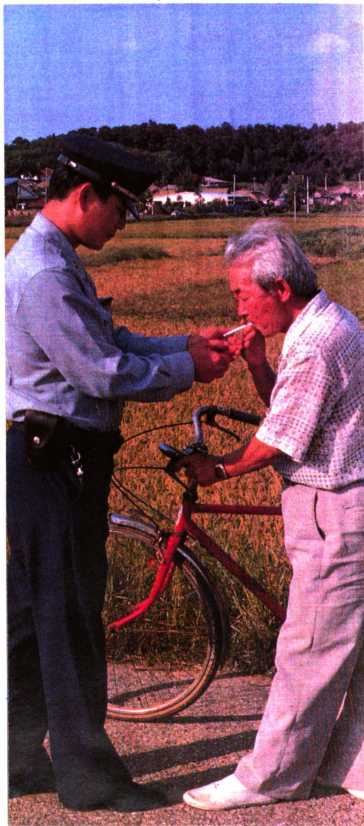
The police administrative service for citizens is performed as follows: the Room for Citizens deals with difficult and unfair civic problems in a warm, affectionate manner and the Service and Information Center is responsible for citizens' legal grievances and administrative petitions in compliance with the "Management Regulations of Citizens' Petitions." The Service and Information Center has operated by integrating the Room for Citizens since November, 1988, for the purpose of manpower-efficiency management.

The Service and Information Centers are operated at the 277 places of National Policy Headquarters, metropolitan police, municipal and provincial police bureau, police stations, maritime police headquarters and the detachments throughout the nation. Those police officers who give guidance to citizens in the Service and Information Center are chosen from the elite police officers who specialize in respective police professionalism and expertise.

The police have handled 2,561,786 civic cases of solicitation, petition, and accusation and have solved 50,332 (95%) of the total 52,982 cases received for arranging employment, finding separated family-members, giving legal advice etc.

In 1984, the 182 Police Report center was established to deal promptly with citizens' complaints, ranging from missing persons and cars to personal belongings.

Policeman on field duty



Service



Policeman helping elderly woman



Police discovering and
citizens' grievance

A police officer introducing police activities to elementary school children as a teacher for a day

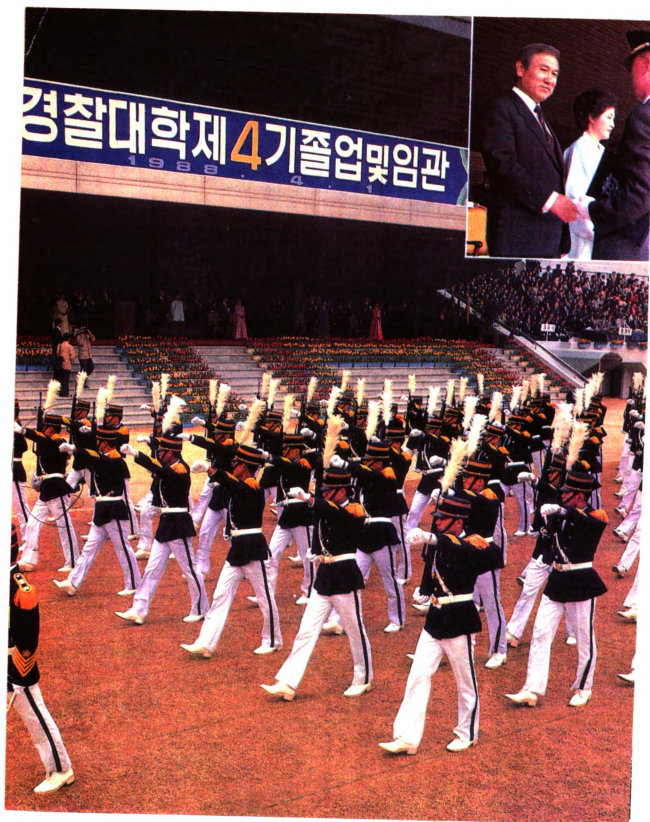


A policeman properly guiding a juvenile with kind words at a park



The National Police College holds an annual convention for national defense training exercise during summer vacation

Figure 6
The Graduation and Ceremony of National Police College (4 year)



The fourth graduation and commission ceremony was held in the honorable presence of the his excellency the President and Mrs. Roh, Tae-Woo

Figure 7
SPSS Programming Command

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ATTITUDE"*/
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V97 TO V98 102-103 V99 TO V100 104-107 V101 TO V102 108-109 V103 110-111
V104 TO V105 112-113 V106 114-115 V107 TO V113 116-122
VARIABLE LABELS
V1 'ID NUMBER'
V2 'AUTHORITARIANISM 1'
V3 'AUTHORITARIANISM 2'
V4 'AUTHORITARIANISM 3'
V5 'AUTHORITARIANISM 4'
V6 'GROUP VALUE 1'
V7 'GROUP VALUE 2'
V8 'GROUP VALUE 3'
V9 'GROUP VALUE 4'
V10 'GROUP VALUE 5'
V11 'AUTHORITARIANISM 5'
V12 'POLITICAL EFFICIENCY 1'
V13 'POLITICAL EFFICIENCY 2'
V14 'POLITICAL EFFICIENCY 3'
V15 'PERCEPTION OF POLICE 1'
V16 'PERCEPTION OF POLICE 2'
V17 'PERCEPTION OF POLICE 3'
V18 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 1'
V19 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 2'
V20 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 3'
V21 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 4'
V22 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 5'
V23 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 6'
V24 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 7'
V25 'GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE 8'
V26 'FRIEND PERCEPTION 1'
V27 'FRIEND PERCEPTION 2'
V28 'FRIEND PERCEPTION 3'
V29 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 1'
V30 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 2'
V31 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 3'
V32 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 4'
V33 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 5'
V34 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 6'
V35 'ATTITUDE RECRUITMENT 7'
V36 'PERCEPTION OF CRIME 1'
V37 'EVALUATION POLICE 1'
V38 'EVALUATION POLICE 2'
V39 'VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE 1'
V40 'VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE 2'
V41 'VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE 3'
V42 'VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE 4'
V43 'VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE 5'
V44 'SELF REPORTING DELINQUENCY 1'
V45 'SELF REPORTING DELINQUENCY 2'

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Figure 8
Survey Data Sheet

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