PRIVATE SECURITY OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE LEGITIMACY IN SOUTH KOREA: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE-PRIVATE SECURITY COOPERATION

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ABSTRACT

PRIVATE SECURITY OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE LEGITIMACY IN SOUTH KOREA: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE-PRIVATE SECURITY COOPERATION

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This exploratory research examines the perceptions of private security officers toward police in South Korea. In an era in which diverse agents of policing comprise the network of security governance, a lot of policing services are provided in privatized forms. The police are not the most prominent policing authority anymore, and cooperation between the nodes of the security network warrants investigation. Therefore, this research assesses security officers' attitudes about police and cooperation with them.

By applying a theoretical framework of legitimacy and procedural justice (Tyler, 1990; Tyler & Huo, 2002), the research question, "What are the factors that shape private security officers' perceptions of police legitimacy and its influence on cooperation with police officers?" is answered. A cross-sectional survey is administered to officers working for two large private security companies located in the Seoul metropolitan areas and two major casinos in the country. A total of 436 private security officers have participated and multivariate analyses are employed to identify the predictors of police legitimacy and intention for and actual engagement in cooperation with the police. Research and policy implications are suggested and guidelines for future studies are discussed based on the research limitations.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1. Emergence of Police & Policing

(1) Governance

Governance is an important concept in the research of the police and policing. There are myriads of interpretations, but one common element in defining governance is shaping and guiding people's behavior. As stated by Foucault (1982), this refers to intentional efforts to guide and direct the conduct of people. Shaping people's behavior is aimed at achieving certain objectives, such as order and security. In today's world, there are various entities that govern people. Particularly, in the field of policing, both state and non-state agents, including private security officers¹, voluntary groups, and community associations provide services to ensure and enhance security in society (Caparini, 2006; Kempa, Carrier, Wood, & Shaering, 1999).

In societies where security is governed by various forms of state and non-state agencies, also noted as nodal network of governance, state workers exist among other institutional nodes and share the responsibilities of policing (Wood & Shearing, 2013). Throughout history, the majority of policing duties have fallen on the shoulders of the police, and the recent shift from state-centered policing toward the non-state policing has stimulated the interest of scholars who have explained the increasing allocation of policing responsibilities through responsibilitzation (O'Malley & Palmer, 1996) and pluralization or multilateralization (Baily & Shearing, 1996).

Among non-state policing agents, the private security industry has grown considerably, and there are several widely noted economic, political, and social contributors of the development. To illustrate, examining the shift from an economic perspective, Jones and Newburn (1998) point out that the fiscal crisis of the 1970s promoted the movement from the Keynesian welfare state to

¹ In this research, the terms security officer and security guards are used interchangeably.

market-based neoliberalism, which has spurred its growth (Spitzer & Scull, 1977). In addition, the rising number of mass private properties, such as shopping malls and theme parks, has increased the demand for security to the extent that the state cannot satisfy alone (Shearing & Stenning, 1983). Furthermore, it has been stated that globalization as well as other emerging phenomenon related to technology advancement such as cyberspace have expanded the functions of private security businesses (Kempa et al., 1999).

There are various implications of the change discussed above and the establishment of nodal governance of security. First, one can see that we no longer view state government as the sole provider of policing and other security services. Moreover, it should be recognized that each security node is unique in regard to the mentality of governance. For instance, it is a norm that state police are more likely to operate with the punishment mentality whereas private security organizations function with a focus on risk and prevention (Jones & Newburn, 1998). Therefore, each distinct and independent node can contribute to the overall network of security governance.

Aside from functional and structural implications, the shift toward neoliberalism must be assessed from a political viewpoint. Since neoliberalism is generally a political process promoted by conservatives that support the ideologies of capitalism, including free market fundamentalism and minimal government intervention in business operations, privatization of policing could increase the gaps between people in their access to the public good. Although the state's protection of its citizens from potential harm must be assured to all members of society regardless of their status, the advancement of neoliberal ideologies may exacerbate the issue of widening wealth inequality and serving the interests of corporations and the privileged (Martinez, 2016).

Despite the potential negative effects of the shift toward neoliberalism and increasing privatization of government services, the relevant discourse in policing literature has focused more

on structural and functional changes in context of a nodal network of security. Particularly, possible benefits such as an efficient and effective system of a nodal security network have been proposed.

(2) Policing and nodal network of security governance

Within the context of governance and social control, "policing" was a term that encompassed the regulation of government, morals, and economy before the middle of the eighteenth century (Johnston, 1992). Today's "policing" is a narrower concept that indicates a societal function contributing to social order and carried out by diverse entities and individuals (Button, 2002).

While the specific meaning of the term "policing" has varied over time, what remains unchanged is that those performing the duty have come from both public and private sectors, demonstrating that various types of police agents have always existed (Zedner, 2006). Therefore, one can say that increasing reliance on non-state agents' policing services in recent decades is not an unprecedented phenomenon, but a reappearance of a previous policing trend. Specifically, by reviewing the existing evidence on policing and police, one can find that public and private policing have co-existed throughout history. It has been noted by scholars that private forms of policing emerged before public police, such as individual agents receiving a fee or share of recovered goods for provision of protective, investigative, and enforcement services (Spitzer & Scull, 1977). Also, in the United Kingdom, the Bow Street Runners are considered to be the first organized body of police founded by an individual in office and an important influence on the establishment of the first formal police institution, the Metropolitan Police Force in London in 1829 (George & Kimber, 2014; Pringle, 1955).

In addition to the fact that private police came into existence before their public counterpart, the times in which police functions are performed mainly by the state's own police in the form of "criminal justice state" from 1825 to 1875 (Johnston, 2000) support the argument that political, social, and economic situations can affect the structure and entities that play a key role in the governance of security.

As discussed, the rise of the private security industry stimulated by the economic crisis of the Keynesian welfare state (White, 2014) and the expansion of mass private property, including shopping malls and sports complexes (Shearing & Stenning, 1983) has contributed to redistributing a substantial amount of policing to the private sector. In the nations that have experienced a political economic transformation from Keynesian welfare state to neoliberalism, much of the goods and services are provided by private businesses, and the organizational structures of public institutions are modified to suit the logic of the market (White, 2014). From a broader perspective, this new paradigm consists not only of police and private security, but also other security agents such as the military, which demonstrates multiplication of auspices and providers of policing. In other words, these policing nodes constitute policing assemblages and perform the duties related to governing security as a whole (Shearing, 2005).

In the nodal governance of security, an interpenetration of policing strategies has been witnessed. For instance, innovative policing practices and programs are adopted, including community policing, restorative justice, and the Business Improvement District (BID). These involve citizens in maintaining order in public areas and in resolving interpersonal conflicts, as well as police officers patrolling private properties. Within the nodal network of governance, governance is viewed as a relationship contained in a shifting network of alliances (Johnston &

Shearing, 2003). Thus, it is important to view the nodes in the governance network as partners that need to work together to achieve common goals.

(3) Private security profession

The profession of private security has not received as much attention as the police have despite its significance in the security network. In regard to the socio-demographic characteristics of the individuals employed in the private security field, evidence, despite being limited to the United States and the United Kingdom, shows that private security officers are poorly educated and receive low pay (Parfomak, 2004). In addition, low job commitment, high turnover, and lack of training characterize security officers (Button, 2007; Wakefield, 2003). Moreover, research on the occupational culture of security officers reveals that there are cultures of solidarity, safety, and fear due to the risks involved in their work as well as low job satisfaction resulting from longing to become something else and engage in actual crime fighting (Rigakos, 2002; Button, 2007).

The roles of private security officers have also been subject to much investigation in Western nations, and it is suggested that there are many overlaps between the functions of the police and the private security sector, including managing disorder and responding to criminal events (Nalla & Newman, 1990; Rigakos, 2002). Additionally, research has found that security officers' jobs are more inclusive, such as housekeeping, customer care, and information gathering tasks, demonstrating a wider range of roles played compared to their public counterparts (Wakefield, 2003). Given the common areas of duty, one can find that the cooperative efforts between the police and the private security are a reasonable movement in governance of security. In the following, potential benefits of such interagency cooperation are discussed based on the available statistics, theories, and case studies.

(4) Benefits of nodal cooperation

According to the statistics, there are 867,778 full-time law enforcement officers in the United States (United States Census Bureau, 2014), indicating that every officer serves about 373 residents. This is a formidable workload that makes it difficult to serve each citizen's needs appropriately. In the private sector, the number of security guards outnumbers those of the police with 1,097,660 individuals employed in various areas of the field (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). Although it should not be generalized to other nations around the world, similar trends are also found in the United Kingdom (Johnston, 2000), India (Kempa, Carrier, Wood, & Shearing, 1999; Nalla, 1998; Nalla, Ommi, & Murthy, 2013), Hong Kong (Johnston, 2001), and South Africa (Irish, 1999).

Based on the statistics, it seems reasonable to promote nodal cooperation in today's governance network for effective order maintenance and social control. There are multiple outcomes of cooperation and improved performance is one of them (Smith, Carroll, & Ashford, 1995). For example, a traditional criminological theory and crime prevention techniques, namely Routine Activity Theory (RAT) (Cohen & Felson, 1979) and Situational Crime Prevention (SCP) (Clarke, 1992), offer valuable insights into how cooperation among different security nodes can lead to increased effectiveness in crime prevention and control efforts. The augmentation and transformation theories of the functional relationships of the police and the private security (Sklansky, 2006) lend support to the idea of interorganizational cooperation based on RAT and SCP. Specifically, potential offenders can be deterred through increased numbers of authorities. The central idea of augmentation is that private security officers provide additional layers of protection, which can supplement areas that cannot be covered properly by the police.

Furthermore, the two sectors can utilize each other's strategies to provide security more efficiently (i.e. transformation). For instance, increasing employment of actuarial practices and the efforts to control those that are identified as risky populations via surveillance (Rigakos, 2002) demonstrates how the paradigm of policing can be transformed. In addition, various case studies attest to the usefulness of placing an emphasis on detailed situational characteristics of crime based on the offense type. Polyner and Webb (1987) have shown that thefts from shopping bags in markets can be reduced by enhancing natural surveillance (i.e. improved lighting) and deflecting offenders (i.e. widening the spaces between stalls). Researchers also note that intensive policing has an issue of redistributing rather than decreasing crime. This case study provides evidence that the same positive outcomes would not have been achieved if traditional policing tactics were used, as thefts could be deterred by focusing on specific situations and employing a prevention-oriented approach.

Providing further insights into the role of private security and assessing the implications of their functions in social policy, an empirical research study conducted with three mass private properties in the United Kingdom has suggested that local police forces and the security teams at all locations collaborate actively in performing their duties. To illustrate, their collaborative efforts are found in the areas of response to crime in progress, crime investigation, intelligence sharing, knowledge sharing, and partnership working (Wakefield, 2003). Moreover, it is shown that in the process of interagency collaboration, organizations find ways to overcome their weaknesses. For instance, security officers provide useful information to police officers based on the richness of data obtained from constant monitoring through closed-circuit television (CCTV). Police officers, in return, supply security officers with emergency back up and expert advice when needed (Wakefield, 2003).

2. Importance of Research

The most fundamental reason to conduct research on the nodal governance of security and relationships and cooperation among the nodes of policing rests on the intrinsic human need for security. It is argued that without security, people cannot be satisfied with their lives or strive to achieve higher needs such as self-esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). We live in a society in which there is endless demand for security (Beck, 1992) and because people will continue to search for alternative methods when the existing supply of security is inadequate (Becker, 1974), understanding the nodal governance of security and how it can be operated optimally to provide essential services is an important area of research.

Today's policing network can be viewed as an organization, and cooperation is key to achieving success through enhanced performance. As part of the governance network, the cooperation of police and private security can be a vital factor in fulfilling people's security demands. Despite its significance, there is little knowledge about how each organization views the other and attitudes toward possible cooperative efforts. Furthermore, enhancing public-private security cooperation is important because it is a way to maximize strengths while minimizing weaknesses of each node (Johnston & Shearing, 2003). Supporting this argument, it has been suggested that within an organization, members' interrelated behaviors must be integrated for effective performance (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969).

As mentioned earlier, in discussing the connections between police and private security, Sklansky (2006) has suggested that there can be three functional relationships - augmentation, displacement, and transformation - that are likely to exist in different places, at varying times, and to diverse degrees. To illustrate, augmentation may refer to private security officers providing an extra layer of protection and increasing the number of guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Furthermore, private security officers may also displace police officers in preventing and responding to crimes. For instance, the owners in the BIDs can hire private security personnel to patrol the premises and fulfill security duties. Lastly, the norms of the two sectors can move toward either direction because of their growing compatibility. The police employing a managerial approach in monitoring the performance of the officers (e.g. COMPSTAT) is offers a suitable example.

With the abundance of theoretical support for nodal cooperation, how the members of the network of security view such idea should be subject to investigation. An existing study of the police-private security relationship conducted in the United States suggests that both police officers and private security guards view their relationships with each other positively. However, it is found that security officers feel that their police officers do not see their cooperation favorably, although the contrary is true. An explanation for this discrepancy is that police officers do not exhibit their cooperative nature to private security agencies, thereby causing misunderstanding (Nalla & Hummer, 1999). Therefore, understanding how they perceive each other more accurately is a first step toward developing and implementing viable policies for cooperation.

Moreover, in addition to general attitudes toward each other and possibilities of interorganizational cooperation, examination of the factors that may influence attitudes toward and actual engagement in this cooperation is warranted. Therefore, the following question is answered in this research: "What are the factors that shape private security officers' perceptions of police legitimacy and its influence on cooperation with police officers?" By conducting the current research, attempts are made at addressing the gap in the literature and contributing to extending the research contexts which have been mostly limited to Western nations. In the following, the specific setting of research and its private security industry are discussed.

3. Research Context: South Korea

(1) Private security industry in South Korea

South Korea is the setting of current research. Public police and private security are the two prominent nodes that comprise the network of security governance in the country and considering its unique political, economic, and social backgrounds, it is an interesting context for a study of the nodal governance and the relationships between the two policing agents. Particularly, the periods of Japanese annexation (1910-1945) and the military regimes (1963-1988) have impacted the perceptions of the legitimacy of legal authorities, including the police and its staff. During these eras, the police operated and provided services in order to further the interests of the government, rather than those of the citizens. Consequently, the police had been largely viewed as undemocratic and authoritarian until the recent decades (Moon, 2004).

The history of the South Korean police may have important implications in a discussion of the relationship between the police and private security businesses. While private security officers perform various policing duties at work, they do not have superior status compared to ordinary people (Nalla & Newman, 1990). The nature of private security work is not much different in South Korea (Nalla & Hwang, 2006). Therefore, it is possible that the history of the police could affect their views similarly as it does other citizens. Moreover, aside from historical factors, the relationship between the public police and the private security is structurally distinct in South Korea from that of the Western nations (i.e. the United State, the United Kingdom, Canada, etc.). To illustrate, the police are the supervising entity that direct and monitor the private security industry. Thus, police officers can be viewed as private security guards' authorities, which renders the theories of the citizens' perceptions and behavior toward authorities applicable.

Another important aspect to consider is the country's rapid economic developments and subsequent hosting of worldwide events (e.g. 1988 Seoul Olympic Games and 2002 World Cup, etc.). These along with the enactment of the Security Service Business Act in 1976 have contributed to the rising demand for security services, promoting the growth of the private security industry (Lee, 2004; Nalla & Hwang, 2004). Other factors also suggested to have stimulated the growth of the private security sector include increasing crime rates (Joo, 2003), decentralization of the police (Lee, 2004), and development and rising use of security technology such as CCTV and burglar alarms (Button, Park, & Lee, 2006).

The private security industry provides various services such as facility protection, cash-intransit, personal protection, alarm and response system, and special security. Given the diversity of the tasks performed, the work of security guards is found in myriads of locations, including schools, post offices, fire stations, hospitals, homes, shops, banks, etc. (Button et al., 2006). The private security industry (excludes in-house security officers) in South Korea operates according to the Security Industry Act (SIA), and the contract security officers recruited for this research are General Security Officers (GSOs) that are more common in the country and do not have special legal privileges as opposed to the Special Security Officers (SSOs) that are allowed to carry firearms at work. As per SIA, in order to work as a GSO, a person must be at least eighteen years of age with a clean criminal record for the past five years. Additionally, there are twenty-eight hours of required training, and they can use non-lethal weapons (e.g. baton, pepper spray, etc.) while on duty (Button & Park, 2009).

Although there has been significant growth of the industry and efforts have been made to regulate it properly, inadequate training, ethical standards of officers, and relationships between police and security officers are among the areas that require more attention and improvement to

promote additional advancement of the industry (Button et al, 2006). Specifically, the working relationship and the cooperation between the police and private security is an interesting issue to explore (Nalla & Hwang, 2006) as it is directly relevant to today's nodal network of governance and an essential component of effective crime prevention policies (Y. Lee, 1995).

(2) Research on police and private security in South Korea

Despite their importance in the governance of security, studies on private security guards have not been conducted as extensively as those on police officers. Existing evidence suggests that private security guards in South Korea work under adverse conditions, including low pay, long hours, and alienation (Button & Park, 2009). Security officers are also perceived to be insufficiently rewarded, although their job typically includes strenuous and dangerous tasks. In addition, security officers are not thought to be professional, trained well, or involved in apprehending offenders. Nonetheless, they are regarded as polite and well-accepted by people (Nalla & Hwang, 2004).

Studies focusing on the cooperation between public and private policing are also rare, especially in a non-Western context, and the findings of the few existing studies vary. There is evidence suggesting that private security and police officers do not communicate their views very well and tend to misunderstand each other (Nalla & Hummer, 1999). It is also suggested that both police and private security officers view their relationship and the strategies for improving it positively and optimistically (Nalla & Hwang, 2006), while an opposing finding suggests that there is considerable degree of mistrust within the police in regard to the security officers' integrity and commitment, hindering the development of an effective cooperative relationship (Button et al., 2006). Although these studies make a valuable contribution to our understanding of the

relationship between the two organizations, identifying significant predictors of interagency cooperation warrants further exploration.

One purpose of investigating interagency cooperation is to suggest ways to provide more quality security services to citizens and maintain order in an efficient and effective manner. According to national statistics, there are a total of 113,077 police officers in South Korea, which makes each officer responsible for serving 456 citizens. Also, 19,105,000 calls were received by the police and a total of 1,861,657 major crimes were committed in 2015 (Korean National Police Agency, 2015).

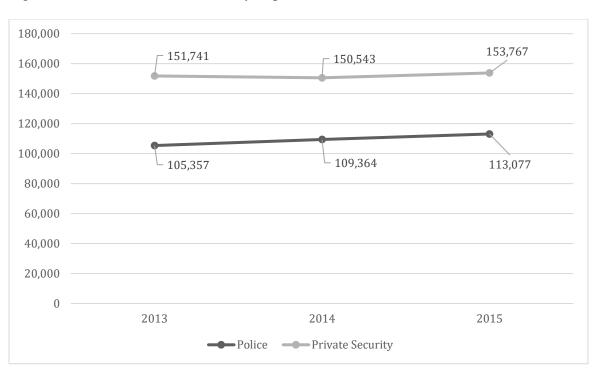


Figure 1.1 Police and Private Security Populations in South Korea 2013-2015

The statistics show that as in the case of the United States, the workloads need to be relieved for the public sector. Cooperation and support from the private sector is a viable option. There are 153,767 private security officers² are employed in 4,449 businesses and utilizing this workforce can have a significant impact on the work situations of the police officers and the quality of the security services that the citizens receive (Korean National Police Agency, 2015).

4. Overview

In this exploratory³ research, the author will examine the factors that promote cooperation between the nodes in today's security governance network. Particularly, the crucial elements of cooperation between the police and private security in the cultural context of South Korea are assessed. Because of a lack of existing research in addition to the unique hierarchical nature of the two organizations, the findings are expected to make a meaningful contribution to literature and future directions for policy

In order to conduct a study that is theoretically grounded and empirically sound, relevant theories and existing studies are reviewed in Chapter Two. The literature review will follow (Chapter Three) to identify the areas that require additional investigation and develop the main research question. Subsequently, data collection and analytic strategies are presented in Chapter Four. Furthermore, findings of the data analyses (Chapter Five) and discussion of implications, limitations, and directions for future research are presented, followed by the concluding remarks (Chapter Six).

² The figure does not include in-house security officers.

³ The author frames this research as an exploratory study because of the few existing works on this subject and the nature of the sample (i.e. convenience) recruited and analyzed.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. Theories of Regulation

Public and private policing institutions are developed to regulate people's behavior and maintain social order. Scholars have investigated how these agents of governance could perform their jobs most effectively. Particularly, in order to shape people's behavior in line with the prescribed rules and legislation, different theses have been proposed and some of the examples come from the traditional criminological theories, namely rational choice and deterrence. These theories assume that humans are rational actors that consider the benefits and the costs of their actions when exercising free will (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009). Based on these assumptions, it is argued that when a punishment is certain, swift, and severe, it will deter crime (Beccaria, 1764).

However, researchers have found that regulating behavior solely through the threats of legal sanctions may not be the most effective way of maintaining order, because non-legal or informal sanctions are found to be a stronger influence on compliance with laws (Paternoster, 2010). Similarly, social control theory (Hirschi, 1969) posits that establishment of bonds to conventional institutions and others will deter crime. According to the thesis, individuals who are attached to their parents, have commitment to and involved in conventional activities, and believe in the rules of society are less likely to engage in deviance. The ideas of social control theory place a more emphasis on normative and relational aspects rather than the instrumental approach toward crime control.

Regardless of their focus, deterrence and rational choice and social control theories are linked to the current research as they offer insights into people's compliance with the law and cooperation with the authorities. A more detailed discussion of this association is reported in a

later section on police legitimacy and its relation to compliance with the law and cooperative behavior.

2. Legitimacy of Authorities

Mechanisms for social control are a common element in all human societies, and they are designed to bring the behavior of members of society into line with norms, rules, and laws (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Aside from the relevance of the traditional criminological theories discussed above (i.e. deterrence, rational choice, and social control), legitimacy is a type of social control mechanism that has informed the research of compliance and cooperation. Specifically, the studies of police legitimacy have shown that understanding how people respond to different social control mechanisms is an important area of research (Tyler, 1990; Tyler & Huo, 2002). In other words, legitimacy is a central concept when discussing social control because it represents an "acceptance by people of the need to bring their behavior into line with the dictates of an external authority" (Tyler, 1990, p. 25).

Theories about social control and legitimacy abound in the literature. In presenting social contract theory, Hobbes (1651) argues that people willingly relinquish their rights to the state in return for the services provided, including protection and security. Other reasons for people's submission to the state have attracted scholarly discourses throughout history, diversifying the approaches to understanding political obligation and its conditions (Hanson & Fowler, 1971).

To illustrate, the notion of a single sovereign power ruling all aspects of social life is not relevant in today's society. Especially in liberal democracies, the state-market relations in which the logic of the Keynesian welfare system and neoliberalism coexist and overlap with each other (White, 2014) does not allow the traditional way of governing people with sovereignty. Instead of

governing through sovereignty, legitimacy plays a crucial role in earning people's acceptance and compliance for all major policing agents (Bayley & Shearing, 1996).

Borrowing from Max Weber's theses that a state's legitimacy relates to when, how, and why state authority is recognized and respected by people (Anter, 2014), one can argue that each node of the security network must be viewed as a legitimate entity in the eyes of the citizens to perform their work adequately. In addition, the cooperation between the nodes will not be viable when the constituents of the network perceive each other as illegitimate.

Moreover, consent is a foundational concept of political obligation. Without consent, obligation to one's community and authority is not possible (Hanson & Fowler, 1971). According to the consent theory of obligation, if an individual feels that the government is just and does what it is supposed to do, consent and obligation to obey are warranted. In other words, when an authority is considered legitimate, it is likely to be obeyed (Pitkin, 1966). Furthermore, sources of consent can vary, including personal, considerations of the common good from a citizen's perspective, and the general will of the people to constitute the common good (Hegtvedt, 2015). By earning the consent of people, authority figures are considered to have achieved legitimation (see Zelditch, 2001).

Prompted by Tyler's (1990) seminal work on legitimacy and compliance, legitimacy has become a heavily researched topic over the past two decades (Tankebe, 2013). Legitimacy is a multifaceted concept that has been defined and approached differently by researchers (Wolfe, Nix, Kaminski, & Rojek, 2016). For instance, Johnson, Dowd, and Ridgeway (2006) define legitimacy broadly as the process through which patterns of behavior or a cultural/social object gains approval. Tyler and Huo (2002) provide more detail by presenting a process-based model of regulation with an emphasis on the use of fair procedures by authorities in developing trust in the

authorities' motives. Additionally, there is recent discussion on refining the concept further (e.g. Bottoms & Tankebe, 2012). In the following, existing models and theories of legitimacy are reviewed to assess how it is developed as well as different dimensions considered by scholars.

3. Models of Legitimacy

To facilitate the understanding of the various models and conceptualization of legitimacy, identity- and resource-based models can be referred to (Hegtvedt, 2015). The former emphasizes the way in which subordinates are treated by authorities. An authority can be a representative of an institution or an individual of a particular rank in an organization. It is closely linked to social identity theory, which posits that people evaluate their self-worth and self-esteem through interactions with others (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Moreover, Tyler (1997) argues that the relational components are involved in psychology of legitimacy, so people assess their status based on how they are treated by others. To summarize, according to the identity-based model, people's perceptions toward an authority and their decisions to give consent are affected by how they are treated.

On other hand, the resource-based model is built on the social exchange and principles that focus on distributive justice processes (Hegtvedt & Johnson, 2009; Blau, 1964). In this model, individuals exchange valued resources, which lead to establishing an interdependent relationship in which the resource possessed by one is sought by another. According to this idea, an authority must utilize their resources benevolently in order to demonstrate the willingness to promote subordinates' welfare and collective interests. It has been noted that successful exchanges of resources and perceptions of distributive justice generate two positive outcomes, including the development of commitment and interpersonal trust (Hegtved, 2015; Lawler et al., 2009).

4. Dimensions of Police Legitimacy

Being viewed by the citizens as a legitimate authority is crucial for police, as it promotes voluntary compliance with laws and cooperation (Tyler, 1990). In order to achieve the goal of order maintenance and social control through legitimacy, the police have not only engaged in the traditional practices, but also other activities including public engagement in communities to build social, political, and economic vitality, which could improve their image in the eyes of citizens.

Considering the amount of available research, there are more than one way of describing and defining police legitimacy. Nonetheless, based on the current literature on police legitimacy, obligation to obey, trust in, and normative alignment with legal authorities have been considered as the main dimensions of legitimacy (e.g. Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

There is also an ongoing discussion of reconstructing and refining the conceptualization of legitimacy, such as emphasizing the distinction between "dull compulsion" and "justified authority" as well as inclusion of perceived lawfulness, procedural justice, distributive justice, and effectiveness as the dimensions of public perceptions of police legitimacy (Tankebe, 2012; 2013). Although this is an important conceptual advancement, it should be noted that the main focus of this research is to examine whether the predictors of legitimacy and cooperation found in prior studies on the citizens' perceptions of police officers are also relevant to private security officers in South Korea. Therefore, instead of focusing on the ongoing discussion and development, the conceptual model of this research is drawn from what has already been established in the literature. (1) Obligation to Obey

(1) Congation to Cocy

As mentioned, consent is an important factor shaping the perception of obligation to obey authorities. Beetham (1991) has argued that a precondition of legitimacy is the willing consent of citizens to defer to authorities which is indicated by following the directives given and accepting

the decisions made by them. When comparing to the instrumental theory of compliance (i.e. deterrence) that employs fear of punishment as the main tool to achieve compliance, studies of legitimacy place a greater emphasis on the normative aspect. Particularly, it is suggested that by focusing on the values that lead people to abide by the rules and accept the decisions made by authorities voluntarily, social regulation functions of legal authorities can be performed efficiently and effectively (Tyler, 1990). In addition to obligation to obey, there other dimensions of legitimacy such as trust.

(2) Trust

Trust is defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712). Additionally, the concept of motive-based trust involves interpretations about the purposes behind actions. In other words, if one believes the motives of an authority to be trustworthy, the rules prescribed by them will be followed, the decisions will be accepted, and cooperative behavior will be fostered (Tyler & Huo, 2002).

(3) Normative Alignment

Normative alignment is the other dimension of legitimacy. It is the perception of sharing common norms and goals. Therefore, when citizens believe that they have similar values and purposes with legal authorities and the organizations that they represent, they are more likely to view them as legitimate. A study suggests that when employees identify with their organization and its leaders, they accept the values of the group, develop favorable feeling toward their work, and engage in voluntary behavior aimed at helping the organization to succeed. In sum, identification with legal authorities and with the norms and goals of the organization will motivate

individuals' development of supportive values and promote their cooperative actions (Tyler & Blader, 2000).

(4) Importance of legitimacy in nodal governance of security

As discussed previously, today's governance of security is carried out by various actors in the form of a nodal network. In the nodal governance network, legitimacy plays a crucial role in the policing agents' performing their work and the voluntary actions of the constituents and support of one another are reliable forms of cooperation. Trusting that their counterparts in the network will do the right thing and operate as an ally will also increase the intention for cooperation (Tyler, 2003).

5. Theories of Cooperation

There are different theories pertaining to the interorganizational cooperation that inform current research. First, Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) offers insights into the partnerships between public and private entities. Moreover, traditional criminological theories that are originally developed to explain criminality can be useful in discussing attitude and behavioral intention toward authorities. Additionally, procedural justice theory has been shown to be particularly relevant when researching the citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy and willingness to cooperate with the police.

(1) Public-Private Partnerships

PPPs have their roots in public administration. They are developed as a response to the need for cross-sectorial engagement in service delivery (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2011) and emphasize shared commitment among the participants for accomplishment of joint goals and production of synergy effects (Bovaird, 2004, p. 200; Johnston & Shearing, 2003).

The concept of legitimacy is important in discussion of PPPs. For example, when assessing the elements of PPPs-mutuality and organizational identity (Brinkerhoff, 2002) - one can find that they are closely related to the dimensions of legitimacy. First, mutuality that indicates the commitment to a shared purpose is linked to normative alignment, because without any alignments in terms of objective and collective efforts to achieve common goals, PPPs cannot exist. Moreover, organizational identity provides the rationale for selecting an appropriate partner according to its capability. Therefore, believing that their partners will do what is good for the bigger body of public and private entities (i.e. trust) is an important component of PPPs.

In effective PPPs founded on trust and normative alignment, one can expect to see voluntary cooperation and engagement in extra-role activities by the participants. Furthermore, PPPs may emerge in different forms. The entities may operate in a structurally horizontal network or on a hierarchical system such as in the relationship between the police (i.e. authority) and the private security (i.e. subordinate) in South Korea. Because the hierarchical structure reflects the relationship between police and private security officers in the current research context, the theories that inform the discussion of legitimacy in the authority-subordinate settings should be examined in more detail.

(2) Utility of criminological theories

Aside from the theories of legitimacy, some of the criminological theories are relevant to the discussion of cooperation with authority. For example, control (Hirschi, 1969; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), general strain (Agnew, 1992), defiance (Sharman, 1993), and social disorganization (Shaw & McKay, 1942) theories not only provide explanations for the causes of crime and deviance, but also help predict when individuals may or may not cooperate with authorities.

To illustrate, social control theory posits that a person is free to commit delinquent acts when their ties with conventional institutions are weak or broken (Hirschi, 1969). Applying this thesis to cooperation, it can be predicted that when people are attached to and identify with their communities (i.e. normative alignment) and believe that the authorities work toward achieving an outcome that will benefit everyone (i.e. trust), they are more likely to comply with their directives (i.e. obligation to obey) while following the prescribed rules. Low self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) has also been found to be negatively related to compliance with the law and cooperation with authorities (Reisig et al., 2014; Tankebe et al., 2016).

Moreover, when people feel that they are treated well by police officers, it can foster their compliance and cooperative behavior. On the other hand, because presentation of adverse stimuli that produce negative emotions could result in delinquent behavior (Agnew, 1992), it is also possible that interactions with authorities can impact people's future behavior. For instance, if a person feels that they have not been treated fairly by a police officer, it can undermine the perception of police legitimacy. Consequently, the lack of obligation to obey, trust in, and normative alignment with the legal authorities may decrease compliance and cooperative behavior.

Along the lines of general strain theory, defiance theory (Sherman, 1993) posits that people are likely to feel angry and become resistant to the police if their dignity and rights are not respected. Thus, it can be reasoned that respectful treatment of offenders fosters deference for authorities in the future (Braithwaite, 1989).

Furthermore, in socially disorganized neighborhoods (Shaw & McKay, 1942), the lack of control and the prevalence of a deviant subculture that opposes authorities may hinder the development of a cooperative relationship between the residents and authority figures such as

teachers and law enforcement officers. Therefore, in such environment, people are less likely to feel the obligation to obey, trust, and hold similar values with authorities.

Despite their relevance, empirical testing of the theories mentioned above will not serve the main purpose of this research because they are originally developed to explain criminal and deviant behavior. However, drawing from the basic viewpoints of traditional theories, a deeper exploration of cooperation is possible. Particularly, one can say that the perceptions of authorities (e.g. fair vs. unfair; effective vs. not effective; trustworthy vs. not trustworthy, etc.) are a crucial determinant of people's cooperation with authorities. In the field of criminology and criminal justice, the concept of procedural justice has been discussed widely as an essential predictor of legitimacy, which is suggested to be the vital element of cooperation with police officers.

(3) Procedural justice and cooperation with police

The term procedural justice was coined by Thibaut and Walker (1975) to describe people's perceptions of the treatment they receive during the processes involved in decision-making. In context of policing, the concept of procedural justice covers the quality of treatment of people and decision-making by police officers. Furthermore, there are four key elements of procedural justice, including dignity and respect, trustworthy motives, neutrality, and voice (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 2003). One may view police officers to be procedurally fair when they treat people with dignity and respect, perform their work with trustworthy motives, and make decisions in an unbiased manner while listening to people's opinions.

Procedural justice is particularly important in the discussion of legitimacy, as existing evidence shows that the use of procedural justice is the most effective way to promote legitimacy (Jackson, Bradford, Hough, Quinton, & Tyler, 2012; Murphy, Hinds, & Fleming, 2008; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Additionally, the quality of decision-making and treatment of subordinates by the

authorities have been shown to be an antecedent of motive-based trust, a dimension of legitimacy (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Furthermore, a recent review of the procedural justice policing shows that the community policing interventions with at least one procedural justice element include compliance and cooperation as an outcome, supporting the claim that procedural justice helps foster cooperation with the police by improving the perception of their legitimacy (Mazerolle, Sargeant, Cherney, Bennett, Murphy, Antrobus, & Martin, 2014).

6. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the central concepts and theories of this research have been examined. Additionally, the dimensions of legitimacy as well as its relevance to the nodal network of security governance and theoretical function of promoting cooperative behavior are assessed. Furthermore, procedural justice is introduced as a central concept that increases the perception of legitimacy of legal authorities.

In Chapter Three, existing studies on the perceptions of police legitimacy and citizen cooperation are reviewed. Given the hierarchical relationship between the police and the private security businesses in South Korea, the empirical findings on the citizens' perceptions of legitimacy of and their impact on cooperative behavior with police officers are expected to provide valuable insights into current research. The review is focused on the antecedents and the outcomes of police legitimacy, and the implications for cooperation between public and private policing agents are discussed.

CHAPTER 3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Police legitimacy is a topic that has been researched extensively in the fields of criminology and criminal justice. Beginning with Tyler's (1990) seminal work, numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the determinants of citizens' perceived legitimacy of police officers and the outcomes of such view. On the other hand, little research has been carried out on private security officers' perceptions of police legitimacy. Security guards' attitudes and cooperative behavior are important because of the nature of their profession and the fact that they play significant roles as part of today's network of security governance. Because of this gap in literature, although private security officers cannot be equated with ordinary citizens considering their professional roles that overlap with those of the police (Manzo, 2010), the findings of citizen perceptions of police legitimacy are primarily discussed and referred to.

1. Antecedents of Police Legitimacy

In researching the factors that promote the perceptions of police legitimacy, scholars have examined both instrumental and normative aspects. The former encompasses predictors including judgments about distributive justice, police performance, and risk of sanction while the latter consists of the fairness of the processes through which the police make decisions and exercise their authority (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003, p. 514).

(1) Instrumental perspectives

Distributive Justice. In the study examining the residents of Oakland and Los Angeles, California, distributive justice is shown to predict the decision acceptance and satisfaction with the decision maker (Tyler & Huo, 2002). In other words, when police officers are believed to provide their services equally across people and communities, people are more likely to accept their decisions and be satisfied with them. These can be the indicators of obligation to obey authority,

a dimension of legitimacy. Additionally, research conducted in New York City supports the relevance of distributive justice in explaining legitimacy (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Furthermore, in an Australian context, distributive justice is found to be positively related to police legitimacy (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy et al., 2008).

Police performance and effectiveness. Along with perceived equality in regard to distribution and outcome of policing services, when individuals hold favorable opinions about performance and effectiveness, they are likely to view police officers as legitimate authorities. This is a commonly found association in different research settings, including Australia (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy et al., 2008), and Slovenia (Reisig, Tankebe, & Mesko, 2014). Although it has been argued that the research carried out in the United States places less emphasis on people's evaluations of the instrumental factors when examining police legitimacy (Hinds & Murphy, 2007), an investigation using a nationally representative U.S. sample suggests that those who believe that the police are successful in their crime prevention efforts and apprehension of burglars are more likely to view them as legitimate (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Additionally, a similar relationship is suggested between the perception of police performance and legitimacy among New York City residents (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003).

(2) Normative perspectives

By reviewing the current literature on citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy, one can note that perceived procedural justice is a significant predictor of the perception of legitimacy. Despite the various approaches to measuring the concept, scholars have argued that when people feel that police officers perform their duties in a procedurally fair and just manner, the perception of their legitimacy is promoted. This is in line with the thesis of the process-based model that posits

that the capability of the police in regulating people and gaining their support is enhanced through earning their willing deference (Tyler & Huo, 2002).

For example, treating people with dignity, making decisions based on facts, explaining decisions to people, and following through on decisions and promises (Reisig et al., 2014) are found to be positively related to the perception of police legitimacy. In addition, a research finding emphasizes the importance of procedural justice by showing that experiencing procedural justice during a personal contact increases perceived legitimacy regardless of the favorability of the outcome (Tyler & Fagan, 2008). Moreover, positive judgments about the quality of treatment, a main element of procedural justice, increase obligation to obey, trust in, and normative alignment with legal authorities. Furthermore, for individuals who have had personal interactions with a police officer, the perceptions of police officers' legitimacy are shown to rise when the authorities are viewed procedurally just, fair in making decisions, and civil during the encounter (Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

Furthermore, there are studies that have explored the factors that impact people's motive-based trust as an outcome variable. Particularly, the perceived quality of decision-making and treatment (Tyler & Blader, 2000) and shared social bonds and understandable decisions (Tyler & Huo, 2002) are shown to affect motive-based trust in police officers positively. Concluding from existing evidence, both instrumental and normative variables exert significant influence on the perceptions of police legitimacy.

Aside from the vast majority of studies that have investigated the perceptions of citizens, Nalla and Mesko (2015) have examined a sample of private security officers in Slovenia and their trust in the police. The results are partially consistent with the studies discussed above, showing that procedural justice of police and the participants' trust in them are positively related. However,

in this particular study, perceived police performance is not shown to be related to the security officers' trust.

(3) Socio-demographic characteristics

In addition to the instrumental and normative variables, scholars have found significant relationships between individuals' socio-demographic characteristics and their perception of police legitimacy. Despite mixed results, people who are older (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy et al., 2008; Tyler & Jackson, 2014) and have received less education (Hinds & Murphy, 2007) are shown to view police as more legitimate in an Australian jurisdiction. However, age and perceived police legitimacy in Slovenia are shown to be negatively related (Reisig et al., 2014). Moreover, a study conducted with a nationally representative sample in the United States has found education and the perception of police legitimacy to be positively associated (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Furthermore, a study conducted with a sample of gun offenders, age and having high school diploma are shown to be positively related to the respondents' perceptions of legitimacy of the law (Papachristos et al., 2012).

2. Outcomes of Police Legitimacy

According to Hanson and Fowler (1971), a legitimate authority is an entity that is ought to be obeyed and deserves consent; legitimacy is a crucial element for the police due to their duty of regulating people's behavior. In an endeavor to understand why people obey the law, Tyler (1990) has found that legitimacy is a strong predictor of legal compliance and people's willingness to cooperate with criminal justice authorities. Current literature provides substantial support for this finding, and studies have elaborated on the various positive consequences of legitimacy.

(1) Compliance

Research has indicated that legitimacy promotes compliance with law. Particularly, within a work setting, when employees identify with an organization and its leaders, they tend to accept and respect the established values and rules (Tyler & Blader, 2000). In investigating the effects of legitimacy on public support for policing, Sunshine and Tyler (2003) have concluded that perceived legitimacy promotes compliance with the law. Specifically, scholars have shown that the participants who believe the police must be obeyed and have trust in them are more likely to comply with the law.

In addition, similar findings are offered in other research contexts. For instance, perceived legitimacy of laws and compliant behavior are shown to be positively associated among tax offenders and student recipients of social security benefits in Australia (Murphy, Tyler, & Curtis, 2009). Furthermore, the perceptions of police legitimacy are found to decrease offending behavior among people aged sixteen and over in England and Wales (Jackson, Bradford, Hough, Myhill, Quinton, & Tyler, 2012). Particularly, people's attitudes toward the duty to obey and moral alignment with the police increase compliance with the law.

Moreover, Reisig and researchers (2014) support the relationship between police legitimacy and compliance with the law through researching young adults in Slovenia and their behavior. Furthermore, an analysis based on the Chicago Gun Project (CGP) finds that among 141 known gun offenders, those who believe in the substance of the law are less likely to have carried a gun outside (Papachristos, Meares, & Fagan, 2012). Drawing from existing evidence, it can be concluded that the perception of legitimacy of the law and authorities promotes compliant behavior.

(2) Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior

Cooperative behavior is another major outcome of police legitimacy. Studies have suggested that individuals who view the police as legitimate are more willing to cooperate with them through reporting crimes or helping to identify criminals (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Similarly, each dimension of legitimacy - obligation to obey, trust and confidence, and normative alignment - is suggested to foster cooperation with legal authorities (Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

The relationship between police legitimacy and citizens' cooperative behavior described above applies to other cultural contexts as well, including Australia (e.g. Murphy et al., 2008; Murphy et al., 2009). An interesting finding is that previous cooperation with police predicts future cooperative behavior and intention for cooperation, and the perception of police legitimacy is shown to be the most powerful predictor of cooperative behavior in general crime control activities (Murphy et al., 2008). Furthermore, the influence of legitimacy in promoting cooperation (measured by decisions to report victimization to police) is also found to hold among recent victims of burglary, robbery, and assault in Trinidad Tobago (Kochel, Parks, & Mastrofski, 2013).

In the specific area of response to terrorism, both the views on the legitimacy of law and the police are shown to stimulate cooperative behavior. Notably, having a sense of national identity is suggested to be a contributory factor in cooperation with the police in combating this type of crime (Cherney & Murphy, 2013).

(3) Empowerment, Identification, and Extra-Role Behavior

In exploring the factors that facilitate the performance of police duties, scholars have found that in addition to compliance with law and cooperative behavior, willingness to empower the authority is a crucial factor that enables police officers to carry out their duties efficiently and effectively. It is suggested that those who feel that police officers are legitimate authorities are

likely to support the ideas that the police should be able to stop and question people on the street and have the power to decide the areas to patrol and provide policing services with. In addition, when individuals see the police as a legitimate authority, they allow them to make decisions and employ strategies freely (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). In other words, citizens empower the police by allowing a greater degree of autonomy and discretion.

The term "discretion" is an important concept in policing, as it is an essential element for police officers in performing their duties. Without such rights, managing the overwhelming workloads would not be viable. It has been noted that street-level workers in the public service sector must exercise discretionary power on a daily basis (Lipsky, 2010), and police officers often have to bend the rules in order to develop their own patterns of enforcement and achieve the set goals (Skolnick, 1994). Being viewed by people as the figures to be obeyed and trusted and that hold similar normative and moral values allows police officers to enjoy autonomy in performing their tasks.

Furthermore, in today's network of security governance in which multiple nodes provide policing services, empowerment of the police by the private security is an important influence on performance. To illustrate, allowing discretion by police officers and trusting their decision-making processes will facilitate the operation of the network.

In addition, engagement in extra-role behavior has been found to be a beneficial outcome of police legitimacy. In discussion of the influence of collective efficacy, shared values and cooperating with others to achieve a common goal have been found to be associated with lower levels of crime (Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls 1997). Thus, it can be expected that when people identify with the norms of the community and believe in the legitimacy of the police, they will engage in behaviors that are beyond the prescribed roles (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Various findings

provide supporting evidence of the impact of police legitimacy in promoting collective efficacy (Kochel, 2012; Sargeant, Wickes, & Mazerolle, 2013).

Voluntary engagement in extra-role behavior stems from the attitudes and values of group members, and is centrally motivated by internal forces (Tyler & Blader, 2000). It is also stated that when legitimacy is defined as shared values, purposes, and goals, it is linked to identification with a group and to a broader willingness than compliance and cooperation to engage in working with others to resolve common issues (Tyler, 2011). Citizens are members of society, so when they identify with the goals of their community (e.g. reducing crime, maintaining order, etc.), they are expected to engage in extra-role behaviors such as exerting informal social control by monitoring the activities of teenagers and reporting suspicious events in the neighbors' premises.

In the context of this research, the network of governance can be considered as a community. Also, as described earlier, the hierarchy between the police and the private security businesses manifests an authority-subordinate relationship. Therefore, if private security officers identify with the values and purposes of their profession as well as those of the broader policing network, they will engage in extra-role activities to enhance the overall function of the network and the security of society.

Empirical findings support the above theses by showing that the perception of legitimacy of legal authorities including the police, the courts, and the law, is positively related to community identification and perceived social capital in the community. Additionally, normative alignment in particular is shown to predict the extra-role behavior (Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

3. Other Predictors of Cooperation

Current literature demonstrates that the perception of legitimacy is a strong correlate of compliance and cooperation with legal authorities, empowerment, identification, and engagement in extra-role behavior that contribute to achievement of collective goals. Aside from the elements of legitimacy, instrumental (i.e. police performance and effectiveness) and normative judgments (i.e. procedural justice) that are shown to affect the perception of legitimacy are also suggested to influence cooperation with authorities.

A study that assesses the impact of fair procedures employed by police officers on subsequent assault of domestic violence offenders shows that the perception of procedural justice decreases future violence, even when the outcome of the interaction is not favorable (i.e. arrest) (Paternoster, Brame, Bachman, & Sherman 1997). The importance of procedural justice in promoting cooperation is also proposed in an organizational setting (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Particularly, as in the study with domestic violence offenders (Paternoster et al., 1997), judgments about the favorability of the outcomes are shown to have little or no effects on cooperative behaviors. Moreover, procedural justice is shown to exert significant influence on compliance with tax and social security laws in Australia (Murphy et al., 2009), as well as cooperation with police through reporting crime victimization in Trinidad Tobago (Kochel et al., 2013).

In addition to the perception of procedural justice, a study examining the residents' views of police in New York City via self-report survey has concluded that instrumental factors such as perceived police performance and risk of sanctions increase compliance with the law and cooperation with and willingness to empower the police (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Further evidence also finds that cooperation with legal authorities increases as the perceived risk of sanctions grows (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Furthermore, the perceived effectiveness of police is

shown to increase public cooperation in the Ghanaian context (Tankebe, 2009). A similar relationship is found among crime victims in London. On the other hand, an opposite relationship is found with non-victims, suggesting the impact of police effectiveness on cooperation may vary by situation and personal experience (Tankebe, 2013).

Prior studies also offer insights into the relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and cooperation with legal authorities. Specifically, female participants and those with higher income and education are suggested to comply with the law and cooperate and empower police to a greater degree, while younger participants are less likely to do so (Sunshine &Tyler, 2003). Additionally, in a study that compares the U.S. and Ghanaian university students and their compliance with the law, female students are found to comply with the law more than males (Tankebe, Reisig, & Wang, 2016).

4. Summary of Existing Literature

Based on the findings in the literature (see Appendix A), it can be concluded that procedural justice is an essential element in developing the perceptions of legitimacy which promotes cooperation with legal authorities in various forms, such as compliance, willingness for cooperate and empowerment, identification, and engagement in extra-role behavior. Moreover, instrumental factors such as police effectiveness and performance are also among the factors to consider when predicting police legitimacy and cooperation with the police. Furthermore, the relationships between the major concepts of current research are shown to be valid across different situational and cultural settings.

Despite the contributions of prior studies, most of the studies in the areas of citizen perception of police legitimacy and cooperation with the police are conducted in Western contexts, especially, in the United States (Hinds & Murphy, 2007). As such, there are few studies that assess

the relationships between public and private police and the strategies for their cooperation aimed at improving the quality of social regulation.

5. Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the antecedents as well as the outcomes of police legitimacy. Prior research shows that both instrumental and normative factors predict police legitimacy, and evidence supports the crucial role that it plays in fostering cooperation with authorities. The external validity of the research findings is confirmed through the studies in other cultural settings. Nonetheless, there is need for additional research in non-Western contexts, especially in the area of the perception of police legitimacy and cooperation among private security officers.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methods employed in current research. First, the research site as well as the process of sampling and data collection are reported. Moreover, the development of as well as the items included in the survey questionnaire to measure independent and dependent variables are described. In subsequent sections, the process of entering, coding, and cleaning the data is explained. Lastly, the analytic strategies used to investigate the relationships among the variables and the predictors on police legitimacy and cooperation with police officers are discussed.

1. Research Site: Seoul Metropolitan Areas, South Korea

The cultural context of this research is South Korea. This is a suitable setting not only because of the potential contribution made to the little existing knowledge in regard to the attitudes of private security guards toward police officers, but also due to the rapid growth of the nation's private security industry. To illustrate, South Korea has experienced growth in the number of individuals employed in the private security industry (153,767) which exceeds that of the public sector (i.e. police officer, 113,077) (Korea National Police Agency, 2015), making it a desirable setting for an exploratory research on the inter-organizational cooperation.

Moreover, the Seoul metropolitan areas that include Seoul, the capital, Gyeonggi Province, and Incheon are chosen as the main locations from which most of the sample are drawn. The reason for selecting these areas is due to the fact that nearly 50 percent of the nation's total population reside in them (Korean Statistical Information Service, 2015), making them the hub of economic, social, and cultural aspects of life. Furthermore, 92,698 (60% of total) contract private security officers are employed in these areas, reflecting the weight they carry as the major cities in the country (Korea National Police Agency, 2015).

2. Data Collection

The sample for this research was drawn from two large private security companies located in the Seoul metropolitan areas and two major casinos, one operating in Seoul and the other based in Gangwon Province. The security officers from the security companies worked on a contract basis while the casino security guards belonged to the in-house staff.

It should be noted that the Gangwon Province is not part of the Seoul metropolitan areas, the primary target locations for sampling. Nonetheless, considering their size and the fact that the casino business is overseen by the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy in addition to the gambling venue being treated as a public institution, analyzing their security employees can offer valuable insights.

Additionally, despite the fact that the Korean National Police Agency (KNPA) authorized private security businesses, oversaw the industry, and kept the roster of the registered private security businesses, the author found that it was not possible to obtain such list for a private research purpose. As a result, despite the strong point of a probability sampling that allows for generalization of the findings to more extensive geographical areas (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004), a convenience sampling was used.

Given the non-probability nature of the sample, the participants were not representative of the whole private security populations in South Korea. However, the size of the companies, the number of employees, and the cities in which they operated assured that a variety of individuals in regard to socio-demographic and work-related characteristics had been reached out to and recruited. Moreover, adding in-house security officers that were not part of the private security officer populations reported by KNPA contributed to the diversity of the sample.

It is argued that research questions and purposes are essential elements that guide methodology (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; DeCuir-Gunby, 2008). Because the purpose of this research was to examine the relationships between the factors shown to have an association with cooperation with legal authorities, a cross-sectional survey using paper-and-pencil questionnaire was used. Particularly, this cross-sectional survey method was a suitable way to obtain in-depth information about the perceptions of a large group of private security officers at once (Kerlinger, 1964). Furthermore, collecting data from one group of people at once was efficient and less time-consuming (Mann, 2003).

The survey instrument was constructed in English first and then was translated to Korean, which was validated by two individuals fluent in both languages. The data collection procedures did not expose the participants to a deliberate treatment that may pose threats to them. The respondents were also reminded of their rights as well as the voluntary nature of the survey that assured anonymity and confidentiality.

975 questionnaires were distributed to the contract security officers and after discarding the cases with missing data, 261 (27% response rate) were deemed useable for analysis. In addition, out of the 225 questionnaires distributed to in-house security officers at the casinos, 175 were analyzed, representing a 78 percent response rate.

3. Measurement

In conducting research, theoretical models provide the foundations (Bernard & Ritti, 1990). The analytical framework for this study is developed based on Tyler and Jackson's (2014) examination of the predictors of compliance, willing cooperation, and engagement in communities. To illustrate, the researchers conceptualize legitimacy as a multidimensional construct comprised of obligation to obey and trust in and moral alignment with authorities.

Moreover, as Sunshine and Tyler (2003) have considered compliance, cooperation, and empowerment as a form of cooperation, these were measured as dependent variables in addition to identification with security profession and engagement in extra-role behavior.

The measures for this research were built on existing literature and were adapted to make them suitable for the specific context of South Korea. For all attitudinal measures, five-point Likert-type scales were used, and items on socio-demographic characteristics, career choice, and contact experience with police were included in the survey instrument as well.

(1) Dependent variables

Compliance with the law and regulations (α = 0.80) is an outcome of legitimacy that researchers have examined extensively. By adapting existing items to the context of South Korea, the respondents were asked to indicate how often they had *parked a car illegally*, *disposed of trash and litter illegally*, *made noise at night*, *sped or broke traffic laws*, and *violated copyrights* during the last six months by choosing from *never* (1) to *very often* (5). It should be noted that the offenses included in previous studies (e.g. Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler & Fagan, 2008) that were not prevalent in South Korea such as buying possibly stolen items on the street and using illegal drugs such as marijuana were replaced with the ones commonly committed in the country. To meet the suitability of the research context, the offenses presented in the instruments were common infractions in the country.

Another dependent variable of this research is private security guards' likelihood of cooperative behavior with police officers. The vast majority of existing research that has assessed citizens' perceptions of police officers, including Sunshine and Tyler (2003) and Tyler and Fagan (2008) have operationalized people's willingness to cooperate with police by asking whether they will call the police to report a crime and an accident, help the police to find someone suspected of

committing a crime, call and give the police information to help the police solve a crime, and report dangerous or suspicious activities in the neighborhood.

Based on the prior operationalization, the following seven items were included to measure the security guards' willingness to cooperate with the police (α = 0.91): *How likely will you report* a minor crime you have witnessed to the police?; report a serious crime you have witnessed to the police?; call the police to report an accident?; provide police with information about an accident?; provide police with information to solve a crime?; help the police to find a suspect of a crime?; and report suspicious or dangerous activities to the police? The answer choices ranged from very unlikely (1) to very likely (5).

Furthermore, the respondents' willingness to empower the police (α = 0.82) was also taken into account as an outcome variable. Items including "The police should have the right to stop and question people on the street," "The police should have the power to decide which areas of the city should receive the most police protection," "Because of their training and experience, the police are best able to decide how to deal with crime in neighborhood," "The police should have the power to do whatever they think is needed to fight crime," and "If we give enough power to the police, they will be able to effectively control crime" were added with the answer choices ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Tyler and Blader (2000) argue that when individuals identify with their organizations, they engage in voluntary behaviors that will promote the success of the groups motivated by favorable attitudes (i.e. extra-role behavior). Private security officers are part of a large network of security governance, so one can predict that they will engage in voluntary activities that affect the security environments positively if they identify themselves with the security profession. Engagement in community has been captured through identification, perceived social capital, political activity,

and economic activity (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). In this research, the questions were modified to serve the nature of the sample as well as the research context.

Specifically, two separate scales were created, one for identification with security profession and the other for actual engagement in extra-role behavior for community security. Identification with the security profession (α = 0.87) was developed by asking the respondents to indicate their degrees of agreement (*strongly disagree=1*; *strongly agree=5*) to the following statements: *I am proud to contribute to the safety of society; when someone praises the achievements of other security agents, it feels like a personal compliment; the things that my organization stands for are important to me; being a part of the security network is important to the way that I think of myself as a person;* and people respect what I contribute to the security of community. Furthermore, in order to understand the level of engagement in extra-role behavior (α = 0.88), the questionnaire asked the participants how frequently they attended meetings to discuss security problems in community, communicated their views about community security issues to elected officials, and talked with their neighbors about security problems in their community (never=1; very often=5).

Table 4.1 Measurements of Dependent Variables

Survey Items	Factor Loading
Compliance (reverse-coded)	Loading
parked a car illegally	0.77
disposed of trash and litter illegally	0.77
made noise at night	0.77
sped or broke traffic laws	0.75
violated copyrights	0.69
Cronbach's Alpha	0.80
KMO	0.77
Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior	
How likely will you report a minor crime you have witnessed to the police?	0.69
How likely will you report a serious crime you have witnessed to the police?	0.81
How likely will you call the police to report an accident?	0.86
How likely will you provide police with information about an accident?	0.86
How likely will you provide police with information to solve a crime?	0.87
How likely will you help the police to find a suspect of a crime?	0.86
How likely will you report suspicious or dangerous activities to the police?	0.75
Cronbach's Alpha	0.91
KMO	0.88
Empowerment The reliance the right to stand and the relation to the relation	0.74
The police should have the right to stop and question people on the street.	0.74
The police should have the power to decide which areas of the city should receive the most police protection.	0.79
Because of their training and experience, the police are best able to decide how	0.76
to deal with crime in neighborhood. The police should have the power to do whatever they think is needed to fight	0.74
crime.	
If we give enough power to the police, they will be able to effectively control	0.81
crime.	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.82
KMO	0.77

Table 4.1 (cont'd)

Survey Items	Factor
	Loading
Identification with Security Profession	
I am proud to contribute to the safety of society.	0.80
When someone praises the achievements of other security agents, it feels like a	0.81
personal compliment.	
The things that my organization stands for are important to me.	0.87
Being a part of the security network is important to the way that I think of myself	0.86
as a person.	
People respect what I contribute to the security of community.	0.73
Cronbach's Alpha	0.87
KMO	0.84
Extra-Role Behavior	
How often do you attend meetings to discuss security problems in community?	0.91
How often do you communicate your views about community security issues to elected officials?	0.92
How often do you talk with your neighbors about security problems in your community?	0.87
Cronbach's Alpha	0.88
KMO	0.73

(2) Independent variables

Empirical evidence shows that legitimacy plays a significant role in promoting cooperation with the police. Therefore, three dimensions of legitimacy (i.e. perceived obligation to obey and trust in and normative alignment with the institutions of policing) were measured as follows. First, taking from Tyler (1990), Sunshine and Tyler (2003), Tyler and Fagan (2008), and Tyler and Jackson (2014), respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement (*strongly disagree=1*; *strongly agree=5*) to "people should obey the law even if it goes against what they think is right," "disobeying the law is seldom justified," and "if a person is doing something and a police officer tells them to stop, they should stop even if they feel that what they are doing is legal" to express their levels of obligation to obey the law and legal authorities (α = 0.63).

Additionally, participants' trust (α = 0.90) in the South Korean police were measured by using the following items ($strongly\ disagree=1$; $strongly\ agree=5$), "the police can be trusted to make decisions that are right for the people in my neighborhood," "people's basic rights are well protected by the police in my neighborhood," "I am proud of the work of the South Korean police," and "I have confidence that the South Korean police can do its job well," (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler & Fagan, 2008).

Lastly, normative alignment was captured through the items drawn from Tyler and Fagan (2008). To illustrate, the extent to which the respondents identified themselves with the police and their values (i.e. normative alignment; $\alpha = 0.77$) was explored (*strongly disagree=1*; *strongly agree=5*). "If I talked to most of the police officers, I would find they have similar views to my own on many issues," "my background is similar to that of many of the police officers," "I can usually understand why the police are acting as they are in a particular situation," and "most of the police officers would value what I contribute to security" were included.

In addition to the dimensions of legitimacy, measures for the antecedents of legitimacy, both normative and instrumental, were created. As discussed, procedural justice (α = 0.92) has been found in numerous empirical studies to have significant influence on legitimacy (e.g. Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). With a basis on the existing evidence (e.g. Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Tyler & Fagan, 2008), the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their degree of agreement to the following statements (*strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5)): *Police make decisions about how to handle problems in fair ways; police make their decisions based on facts, not their personal biases or opinions; police clearly explain the reasons for their actions; police give people a chance to express their views before making decisions; police consider people's*

opinions when deciding what to do; police treat people with dignity and respect; and police are concerned about respecting citizens' rights.

Furthermore, instrumental factors such as perceived risk of sanction (e.g. Tyler & Fagan, 2008), police performance (e.g. Jackson et al., 2012), and distributive justice (e.g. Hinds & Murphy, 2007) are shown to affect people's views on police legitimacy. The respondents indicated the likelihood of sanction (α = 0.83) for committing the offenses (i.e. illegal parking, illegal disposal of trash and litter, making noise at night, speeding or breaking traffic laws, and violating copyrights) by choosing from the options, *very unlikely* (1) to *very likely* (5) (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler & Fagan, 2008).

The participants' perceptions of police performance (α = 0.82) were assessed by asking how much they agreed that the police did a good job *in dealing with problems in the community,* preventing crime, keeping order on the streets, and responding to emergencies (strongly disagree=1; strongly agree=5) (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Tyler & Fagan, 2008; Jackson et al., 2012).

Moreover, the participants' opinions on the distribution of police services and equal treatment of people (α = 0.92) were explored by the following items: *People receive the outcomes* they deserve under the law when they deal with the police; the police provide their services equally over different communities; the police provide the same quality of service to people living in all areas of the city; the police treat everyone equally; and it is about who you are when it comes to police (reverse-coded) (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree).

The scales were created by using appropriate statistical tests. To illustrate, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted by using principal component analysis with a varimax rotation in order to reduce the variables into a smaller set of items and investigate the

unidimensionality of the constructs (Williams, Onsman, & Brown, 2010). Furthermore, in addition to checking the internal consistency of each scale (Cronbach's alpha), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was carried out to confirm the suitability for factor analysis (Gorsuch, 1983).

Table 4.2 Measurements of Independent Variables

Survey Item	Factor Loading
Obligation to Obey	
People should obey the law even if it goes against what they think is right.	0.84
Disobeying the law is seldom justified.	0.78
If a person is doing something and a police officer tells them to stop, they	0.67
should stop even if they feel that what they are doing is legal.	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.63
KMO	0.61
Trust	
The police can be trusted to make decisions that are right for the people in my neighborhood.	0.69
People's basic rights are well protected by the police in my neighborhood.	0.68
I am proud of the work of the South Korean police.	0.50
I have confidence that the South Korean police can do its job well.	0.52
Cronbach's Alpha	0.90
KMO	0.80
Normative Alignment	
If I talked to most of the police officers, I would find they have similar views	0.80
to my own on many issues.	0.00
My background is similar to that of many of the police officers.	0.80
I can usually understand why the police are acting as they are in a particular situation.	0.79
Most of the police officers would value what I contribute to security.	0.70
Cronbach's Alpha	0.77
KMO	0.78
Risk of Sanction	
Illegal parking	0.78
Illegal disposal of trash and litter	0.78
Making noise at night	0.82
Speeding or breaking traffic laws	0.66
Violating copyrights	0.76
Cronbach's Alpha	0.76
KMO	0.77
NIVIU	U.//

Table 4.2 (cont'd)

Survey Item	Factor Loading
Police Performance	
The police do a good job dealing with problems in the community.	0.82
The police do a good job preventing crime	0.87
The police do a good job keeping order on the streets.	0.84
The police do a good job responding to emergencies.	0.86
Cronbach's Alpha	0.82
KMO	0.87
Distributive Justice	
People receive the outcomes they deserve under the law when they deal with the police.	0.81
The police provide their services equally over different communities.	0.89
The police provide the same quality of service to people living in all areas of the city.	0.87
The police treat everyone equally.	0.81
It is about who you are when it comes to police.	0.50
Cronbach's Alpha	0.83
KMO	0.83
	3,300
Procedural Justice	
Police make decisions about how to handle problems in fair ways.	0.83
Police make their decisions based on facts, not their personal biases or opinions.	0.74
Police clearly explain the reasons for their actions.	0.78
Police give people a chance to express their views before making decisions.	0.84
Police consider people's opinions when deciding what to do.	0.87
Police treat people with dignity and respect.	0.84
Police are concerned about respecting citizens' rights.	0.85
Cronbach's Alpha	0.92
KMO	0.91

Aside from the attitudinal predictors, contact experience with authority and opinions about it have also been shown to impact the willingness for cooperation. Tyler and Huo (2002) investigate satisfaction with and motive-based trust in authority based on personal experience. In an attempt to continue this line of endeavor, the questionnaire included an item asking the security officers whether had had contact with a police officer during the past twelve months (*yes or no*).

Finally, the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics were examined. Existing literature shows that socio-demographic variables are not as consistent in predicting cooperation with authorities. Nonetheless, there are studies that report socio-demographic characteristics such as gender are related to cooperative behavior (e.g. Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Therefore, items asking for the participants' gender, age, years of experience, income, marital status, education, rank, and type of employment were added.

4. Analytic Strategies

The returned questionnaires were first coded, entered, and cleaned by using statistical software. Then, several statistical techniques were employed to answer the research question. Descriptive statistics, such as frequency, range, mean, and standard deviation for each variable were assessed to explore the basic features of the data. Moreover, independent-sample t-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were carried out to investigate the group differences by sociodemographic characteristics and contact experience with a police officer in independent and dependent variables.

In addition, before proceeding to multivariate analyses, bivariate correlations between independent variables and the Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were reviewed for any potential multicollinearity issues. The main multivariate analysis conducted was Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), which was a suitable technique for exploring the predictors of the respondents' perceptions of legitimacy and cooperation with police. Various OLS models were developed and run, including the subgroup analyses between contract and in-house officers and between participants with contact experience with a police officer and those without such encounter in addition to the analyses using the overall sample.

The decision to run the subgroup OLS analyses were made based on the existing knowledge that the psychological states experienced and the treatment received at work among the contract guards may vary from those among the in-house staff. Particularly, one can imagine that the security officers who are hired through outsourcing work under conditions that increase the perceptions of job insecurity. Among the dimensions of job insecurity, lack of opportunities for promotion and freedom to schedule work, perceived threat of the occurrence of events that could affect one's job such as being fired or laid off, and feeling powerless in situations where one's status in the organization is jeopardized (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1948) can be relevant to the contract security officers.

Moreover, it has been found that job insecurity leads to intentions to quit as well as decreased commitment and satisfaction (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989). Drawing from Ashford and colleagues (1989), the distinct work conditions between contract and in-house security officers and the potential negative influence of job insecurity warrants a subgroup analysis between the two types of employment.

Furthermore, because contact experience with the police has been shown to affect citizens' attitudes toward them (Cheurprakobkit, 2002), subgroup analyses based on contact were conducted. Prior studies have suggested contradicting relationships between contact and attitude. Specifically, some researchers have found that police contacts lead to positive attitudes toward the police (Jacob, 1971), while others have argued that the contrary is true (Griffiths & Winfree, 1982). Therefore, comparing the explanatory variables of police legitimacy and cooperative behaviors between those with prior contact and those with vicarious or no contact will allow a deeper exploration.

Lastly, because missing data could affect the analytic findings significantly (McKnight, McKnight, Sidani, & Figueredo, 2007), the nature of missing data were explored and its potential influence on the results was examined. In addition, appropriate steps were taken to ensure that the assumptions of OLS were not violated and the validity of the results was not affected by related issues.

5. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research methods guided by the research question and existing studies were described. It was noted that in order to examine the factors that impact private security officers' willingness to cooperate with police officers in Korea, a cross-sectional survey method was employed. The survey procedure was administered to a convenience sample of security officers working for two large private security businesses located in the Seoul metropolitan areas (i.e. contract security officers) and two major casinos located in Seoul and in Gangwon Province (i.e. in-house security officers). Furthermore, the analytic strategies used, including univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses, were presented.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS

In this chapter, findings from statistical analyses are reported in detail. First, univariate analyses of the variables, including descriptive statistics are described. In particular, frequency, percentage, and characteristics of central tendency are discussed. Next, findings from the independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA are reviewed to see whether there are any significant mean differences in regard to the attitudinal variables comprising police legitimacy and cooperation with the police in groups by gender, monthly income, marital status, education, type of employment, and contact experience. Moreover, potential multicollinearity issues are assessed based on the results of bivariate correlation analysis as well as tests for VIF and tolerance.

Results of each OLS regression model are also discussed. Specifically, three models predicting each dimension of legitimacy (i.e. obligation to obey authorities, trust in the police, and normative alignment with the police) are assessed. In addition, five models with outcome variables, compliance with law, willingness to cooperate with authority, empowerment of the police, identification with security profession, and extra-role behavior are presented.

1. Descriptive Statistics

As discussed in Chapter Four, a total of 436 private security officers were analyzed in this research⁴. The vast majority of the sample were males (93.8%) and the mean age of the participants was forty-eight. Whether these numbers reflected those of the field of private security in South Korea could not be confirmed due to the lack of official statistics. Nonetheless, when compared to the police officer population, the percentage of female security officers ($\approx 6\%$) was lower than that

missing data analysis confirmed that the missing items were Missing Completely At Random (MCAR). Therefore, a listwise deletion method was used in the analyses. As a result, the

number of cases included was not equal to the total number of sample.

⁴ The useable survey questionnaires returned by 436 private security officers were included for analysis, and possible missing data issues were assessed and addressed properly. The results of

of female police officers (\approx 10%). Additionally, the respondents' average age was comparable to those of assistant inspectors and inspectors (i.e. 48), and the wider range for age among the participants (i.e. 22 to 78) reflected the fact that there were no established timelines for retirement in the private sector (Korea National Police Agency, 2015).

The respondents' years of experience in the private security field⁵ ranged from 0 to 20 years, and about a half (50.27%) of the officers reported earning less than two million Won (\approx 2,000 U.S. dollars) monthly. Considering the approximate average monthly wage of three million Won (\approx 3,000 U.S. dollars) (all fields of labor) in Seoul in 2015 (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2015), it can be noted that the private security was not a financially rewarding profession.

In addition, most of the private security officers in this research were married (70.9%), and those who were single or in other relationship status comprised 29 percent of the sample (29.1%). Furthermore, 42 percent (42.37%) of the participants had a high school diploma, and about a quarter (22.76%) and a third (34.87%) received an associate degree and bachelors or a higher degree, respectively.

Moreover, 39 percent had had contact experience with a police officer during the past twelve months. For the perceived risk of sanction for illegitimate activities (ranges from 5 to 25), the mean value of 14.88 suggested that the respondents saw the likelihood of being punished for the listed offenses as average. Moreover, the mean score 14.45 for overall police performance indicated that the private security officers in this study held favorable opinions about the work of the police. Although the attitudes were not as positive in terms of the distributive (\bar{x} = 15.76) and the procedural justice (\bar{x} = 23.27) of police services, the respondents found them to be satisfactory.

⁵Appendix C provides information on their career choices.

In regard to the perception of police legitimacy, the participants were shown to view the police as a legitimate authority, shown by the mean scores of the three scales constituting five-point Likert-type items (i.e. 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

The descriptive statistics of the dependent variables (i.e. compliance with law, likelihood of cooperating with authority, empowerment of the police, identification with the security profession, and extra-role behavior) suggested that except for engagement in extra-role behavior, the participants generally did things or held attitudes that were in line with supporting their public counterparts through cooperation.

Particularly, the officers reported that they complied with the law by refraining from illegitimate activities (\bar{x} = 22.82), were likely to cooperate with the police in the areas of reporting and investigating crime incidents (\bar{x} = 25.35), supported empowerment of the police through granting authority (\bar{x} = 18.06), and identified with their profession and the contribution made as part of their work (\bar{x} = 17.58). However, as noted, the overall engagement in extra-role behavior for community safety and security was marginal (\bar{x} = 5.20).

Table 5.1 Descriptive Statistics of Participants

	Description	n	%	Min.	Max.	Mean/SD
Socio-Demographic ch	aracteristics					
Gender	0=Female	27	6.21			
Gender	1=Male	408	93.79			
	1-iviaic	700	73.17			
Age on last birthday		429		22	78	47.87/16.59
Years of Experience		428		0	20	5.80/4.37
Monthly Income in million Won	0= Less than 2 million Won	184	50.27			
	1= 2 million Won or more	182	49.73			
Marital Status	0=Not married	117	29.10			
Wartar Status	1=Married	285	70.90			
			1 012 0			
Education	1=High School	175	42.37			
	2=Associate Degree	94	22.76			
	3=Bachelor's or higher Degree	144	34.87			
Type of Employment	1=In-house	161	38.33			
	2=Contract	259	61.67			
Contact experience						
Contact with a police officer	0= No	266	61.0			
	1= Yes	170	39.0			
Instrumental & Norma	<u> </u> tive					
Perceived risk of		436		5	25	14.88/4.12
sanction						
Police performance		436		4	20	14.45/2.62
Distributive justice		436		5	25	15.76/3.32
Procedural justice		436		7	35	23.27/4.69

Table 5.1 (cont'd)

	Description	n	%	Min.	Max.	Mean/SD
Legitimacy						
Obligation to obey		436		3	15	11.27/1.83
Trust		436		4	20	13.80/2.95
Moral alignment		436		4	20	12.99/2.52
Cooperation						
Compliance with law		431		10	25	22.82/2.74
Likelihood of		435		10	35	25.35/5.02
cooperative behavior						
Empowerment		436		6	25	18.06/3.30
Identification with		436		5	25	17.58/3.43
security profession						
Extra-role behavior		435		3	15	5.20/2.59

2. Bivariate Analysis

After investigating each of the socio-demographic characteristics and the respondents' attitudes toward the police work, police legitimacy, and cooperative intention and behavior with the police, whether any differences existed between and among socio-demographic groups in terms of the perceptions was assessed. The following presents the detailed findings of such analyses.

(1) Independent samples T-Tests and one-way ANOVA

Obligation to Obey. According to the results, significant differences were found between the categories of marital status and contact experience. The married participants' mean score for the overall Obligation to Obey was higher than that of the unmarried individuals (11.51 vs. 10.85; t=3.09; $p\le0.01$). In particular, the degrees to which the married respondents viewed that disobeying the law could not be justified (4.03 vs. 3.81; t=2.57; $p\le0.01$) and believed that people should follow police officers' instructions (3.61 vs. 3.29; t=3.09; t=0.01) were greater than those of the unmarried participants. Furthermore, the participants with contact experience with a police officer during the past twelve months had a higher mean score for the Obligation to Obey scale (11.59 vs. 11.06; t=2.98; t=0.01). Compared to the private security officers with no contact

experience, they considered the law to be something that should be obeyed (3.90 vs. 3.76; t=1.97; $p\le 0.05$) and believed that police officers' directions should be followed (3.66 vs. 3.41; t=2.83; $p\le 0.01$) to a greater extent.

Table 5.2 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Obligation to Obey

Variables	Obligation to Obey (Mean Scores)				
	Overall	Obeying the law ^a	Disobeying the law ^b	Following police officers' instructions ^c	
Income					
0= Less than 2 million Won	11.20	3.76	3.99	3.45	
1= 2 million Won or more	11.37	3.87	3.90	3.60	
T-test	0.91	1.46	1.12	1.59	
Married					
0= No	10.85	3.75	3.81	3.29	
1= Yes	11.51	3.87	4.03	3.61	
T-test	3.09**	1.43	2.57**	3.09**	
Education					
1= High school	11.34	3.82	4.02	3.50	
2= Associate	10.99	3.70	3.83	3.46	
degree					
3= Bachelor's or higher	11.32	3.86	3.94	3.51	
F	1.26	1.36	2.05	0.11	

Table 5.2 (cont'd)

Type of Employment				
1= In-house	11.25	3.82	3.90	3.53
2= Contract	11.32	3.83	3.98	3.51
T-test	0.41	0.19	1.09	0.24
Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months				
0= No	11.06	3.76	3.90	3.41
1= Yes	11.59	3.90	4.03	3.66
T-test	2.98**	1.97*	1.87	2.83**

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

- a. People should obey the law even if it goes against what they think is right.
- b. Disobeying the law is seldom justified.
- c. If a person is doing something and a police officer tells them to stop, they should stop even if they feel that what they are doing is legal.

Trust. In regard to trust in the police, the level of pride in the work of the police was higher among the participants earning lower monthly income (i.e. Less than 2 million Won) (3.52 vs. 3.18; t=3.41). Also, the married respondents were found to trust the police more than the unmarried respondents, shown by each item and the overall Trust scale.

For education, which had three categories, one-way ANOVA was carried out. Findings suggested that there were between-group dissimilarities in regard to the level of Trust. In order to examine which specific groups showed statistically significant differences, Bonferroni post hoc tests were conducted. Results indicated that for the overall scale and each individual item, the participants whose highest education level was high school had higher mean scores than those with an associate degree (14.37 vs. 12.65; $p \le 0.001$). They were also shown to trust the police to make the right decision for the people (3.64 vs 3.21; $p \le 0.001$) and protect people's rights (3.55 vs. 3.19;

 $p \le 0.001$) and hold pride in the work of the police (3.60 vs. 3.06; $p \le 0.001$) to a greater degree than the comparison group (i.e. people with an associate degree).

Moreover, the respondents whose highest educational degree earned was bachelor's or higher held greater level of overall Trust (13.73 vs. 12.65; $p \le 0.01$), including trust in decision making (3.52 vs. 3.21; $p \le 0.01$) and protections of people's rights in neighborhood (3.51 vs. 3.19; $p \le 0.01$) than the participants with an associate degree. Furthermore, individuals that reported high school as their highest education were shown to hold greater pride in the work of the police compared to those with a bachelor's or a higher degree (3.60 vs. 3.29; $p \le 0.01$). Additionally, their Trust in the police was greater than that of the individuals with an associate degree (3.57 vs 3.18; $p \le 0.01$).

Lastly, the level of trust in the police differed by the participants' employment type. To illustrate, the contract security officers expressed greater Trust (in overall scale and all individual items) compared to the in-house officers.

Table 5.3 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Trust

Variables	Trust (Mean Scores)					
	Overall	Right	People's	Proud of the	Confidence	
		decisions for	rights	work of the	in the police	
		the people in	protected by	South Korean	doing the job	
		neighborhood	the police in	police ^c	well ^d	
		a	neighborhood b			
Income						
0= Less than 2	13.95	3.53	3.47	3.52	3.43	
million Won						
1= 2 million	13.37	3.45	3.40	3.18	3.35	
Won or more						
T-test	1.81	1.05	0.79	3.41***	0.88	
Married						
0= No	12.93	3.29	3.27	3.17	3.20	
1= Yes	14.18	3.61	3.55	3.50	3.52	
T-test	3.91***	3.76***	3.32***	3.29***	3.38***	

Table 5.3 (cont'd)

Education					
1= High	14.37	3.64	3.55	3.60	3.57
school					
2= Associate	12.65	3.21	3.19	3.06	3.18
degree					
3= Bachelor's	13.73	3.52	3.51	3.29	3.41
or higher					
\mathbf{F}	10.65***	9.30***	7.33***	11.59***	6.06**
Type of					
Employment					
1= In-house	13.19	3.41	3.36	3.15	3.28
2= Contract	14.24	3.59	3.54	3.56	3.55
T-test	3.30***	2.28*	2.13*	4.22***	2.89**
Contact with a					
police officer in					
the last 12					
months					
0= No	13.80	3.47	3.44	3.42	3.46
1= Yes	13.81	3.57	3.51	3.34	3.39
T-test	0.05	1.26	0.78	0.80	0.75

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Normative Alignment. Statistically significant mean score differences between and among socio-demographic groups were found in normative alignment with the police as well. The married respondents indicated higher overall level of normative alignment than the unmarried participants (13.25 vs. 12.44; t= 2.97; p \leq 0.01). Particularly, such differences were found in believing that private security and police officers held similar views on various issues (3.36 vs. 3.07; t= 3.50; p \leq 0.001) and that police officers would value their contribution to security (3.49 vs. 3.26; t= 2.62; p \leq 0.01).

In addition, the private security officers with a bachelor's or a more advanced degree displayed greater overall normative alignment compared to the individuals with an associate degree (13.32 vs. 12.31; $p \le 0.01$). They were more likely to see that they shared similar

a. The police can be trusted to make decisions that are right for the people in my neighborhood.

b. People's basic rights are well protected by the police in my neighborhood.

c. I am proud of the work of the South Korean police.

d. I have confidence that the South Korean police can do its job well.

backgrounds as police officers (3.14 vs. 2.78; $p \le 0.01$). Moreover, people holding a bachelor's or a higher degree reported that they understood to a greater extent the reasons behind the actions taken by police officers compared to those with lower educational levels (3.49 vs. 3.26; $p \le 0.05$ & 3.49 vs. 3.19; $p \le 0.001$). Furthermore, when compared to others with an associate degree, the participants whose highest educational level was high school believed that police officers would value their contribution to a higher degree (3.51 vs. 3.16; $p \le 0.01$).

Differences in attitudes toward normative alignment were also found between in-house and contract private security officers. The in-house officers reported that they understood the reasons behind police actions at a higher degree than the contract employees (3.44 vs. 3.26; t=2.48; $p\le0.01$). On the other hand, the contract officers agreed more to the statement that police officers valued their contribution to security (3.51 vs. 3.26; t=2.99; $p\le0.01$).

Additionally, respondents with contact experience with a police officer during the past 12 months exhibited higher overall normative alignment with police officers than those without such encounter (13.44 vs. 12.71; t= 2.79; p \leq 0.01). Particularly, they were shown to believe that private security and police officers shared common backgrounds (3.16 vs. 2.84; t= 3.80; p \leq 0.001) and reported understanding the reasons for police actions (3.49 vs. 3.22; t= 3.80; p \leq 0.001) to a greater degree the people without contact experience.

Table 5.4 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Normative Alignment

Variables	Normative Alignment (Mean Scores)				
	Overall	Similar views on many issues ^a	Similar backgrounds ^b	Understand police actions ^c	Police officers value my contribution ^d
Income					
0= Less than 2 million Won	13.07	3.33	3.01	3.29	3.44
1= 2 million Won or more	12.92	3.25	2.97	3.38	3.32
T-test	0.53	0.97	0.39	1.19	1.29
Married					
0= No	12.44	3.07	2.87	3.24	3.26
1= Yes	13.25	3.36	3.02	3.38	3.49
T-test	2.97**	3.50***	1.47	1.69	2.62**
Education					
1= High school	12.92	3.31	2.90	3.19	3.51
2= Associate degree	12.31	3.12	2.78	3.26	3.16
3= Bachelor's or higher	13.32	3.30	3.14	3.49	3.40
F	4.55**	2.13	4.96**	6.75***	5.43**
TD 0					
Type of Employment					
1= In-house	12.99	3.23	3.06	3.44	3.26
2= Contract	13.03	3.32	2.93	3.26	3.51
T-test	0.14	1.14	1.26	2.48**	2.99**
Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months					
0= No	12.71	3.24	2.84	3.22	3.41
1= Yes	13.44	3.35	3.16	3.49	3.43
T-test	2.79**	1.30	3.46***	3.80***	0.27

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

- c. I can usually understand why the police are acting as they are in a particular situation.
- d. Most of the police officers would value what I contribute to security.

a. If I talked to most of the police officers, I would find they have similar views to my own on many issues.

b. My background is similar to that of many of the police officers.

Compliance. Group differences in mean scores for the dimensions of cooperation with the police were also explored. For overall compliance with laws, no significant differences were detected by socio-demographic characteristics or contact experience. Nonetheless, for some of the individual items comprising Compliance, such group differences were found. For instance, the participants reported earning two million Won or more per month refrained from making noise at night more than those who had lower monthly income (4.83 vs. 4.68; t= 2.25; p \leq 0.05). In addition, the married participants were shown to comply with littering laws more than the unmarried officers (4.65 vs 4.36; t= 3.08; p \leq 0.01). Moreover, while the in-house private security officers followed the noise rules at night to a greater degree than the contract officers (4.82 vs. 4.72; t= 2.46; p \leq 0.01), the contract officers reported abiding by the traffic laws more than the in-house officers (4.41 vs. 4.24; t= 2.04; p \leq 0.05).

Furthermore, the private security officers who had had contact experience with a police officer during the past 12 months followed the laws in regard to trash disposal (4.65 vs. 4.49; t= 2.36; p ≤ 0.05) and noise making at night (4.86 vs 4.72; t= 2.66; p ≤ 0.01) more than those without contact. However, the opposite was true when it came to following the traffic laws (4.41 vs. 4.25; t= 2.03; p ≤ 0.05).

Table 5.5 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Compliance

Variables			Compliance	(Mean Score	s)	
	Overall	Illegal	Trash &	Noise at	Traffic	Copyrights
		parking ^a	litter ^b	night ^c	laws ^d	violation ^e
Income						
0= Less than 2	22.48	4.33	4.49	4.68	4.24	4.72
million Won						
1= 2 million	22.81	4.29	4.54	4.83	4.37	4.77
Won or more						
T-test	1.09	0.46	0.69	2.25*	1.46	0.83
Married						
0= No	22.50	4.35	4.36	4.71	4.41	4.68
1= Yes	22.93	4.35	4.65	4.81	4.31	4.82
T-test	1.43	0.01	3.08**	1.33	1.13	1.92
Education						
1= High	22.77	4.35	4.53	4.70	4.41	4.76
school						
2= Associate	22.79	4.36	4.46	4.80	4.34	4.83
degree						
3= Bachelor's	22.70	4.31	4.60	4.84	4.22	4.74
or higher						
F	0.04	0.16	0.94	2.22	2.06	0.58
Type of						
Employment						
1= In-house	22.74	4.25	4.60	4.86	4.24	4.80
2= Contract	22.82	4.40	4.53	4.72	4.41	4.76
T-test	0.30	1.75	0.97	2.48**	2.04*	0.61
G				-		
Contact with a						
police officer						
in the last 12						
months	22.00	4.20	4.40	4.72	1 11	4.79
0= No	22.80	4.38	4.49	4.72	4.41	4.78
1= Yes	22.86	4.31	4.65	4.86	4.25	4.78
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^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$ a. Parked a car illegally

b. Disposed of trash and litter illegally

c. Made noise at night

d. Sped or broke traffic laws

e. Violated copyrights

Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior. The likelihood of engaging in cooperative behavior differed between and among the socio-demographic groups as well. In addition to the mean score for the overall scale (26.15 vs 24.93; t= 2.31; p \leq 0.05), the respondents earning two million Won or more monthly were found to be more likely to report a serious crime (3.94 vs. 3.76; t= 2.01; p \leq 0.05) and an accident (3.97 vs. 3.72; t= 2.94= p \leq 0.01) to the police, provide the police with information for an accident (3.77 vs. 3.52; t= 2.72; p \leq 0.01) and a crime (3.77 vs. 3.52; t= 2.72; p \leq 0.01), and help the police to find a crime suspect (3.82 vs. 3.60; t= 2.35; p \leq 0.05).

Furthermore, the respondents with a bachelor's or a higher degree were more likely to engage in the overall cooperative behavior than people whose highest education was high school (26.64 vs 24.37; p \leq 0.001). In particular, they were more likely to report a serious crime (4.07 vs. 3.59; p \leq 0.001) and an accident (4.01 vs. 3.66; p \leq 0.001), provide the police with information about an accident (3.90 vs. 3.40; p \leq 0.001) and a crime (3.83 vs 3.43; p \leq 0.001), and help to find a crime suspect (3.90 vs 3.58; p \leq 0.01). Additionally, the respondents with a bachelor's or a higher degree, when compared to the officers with an associate degree, were also more likely to report a serious crime (4.07 vs. 3.78; p \leq 0.05) and an accident to the police (4.01 vs. 3.72; p \leq 0.05) and share information about an accident with the police (3.90 vs. 3.60; p \leq 0.05).

In addition, the likelihood of cooperative behavior varied by the respondents' employment type as well as contact experience with a police officer. Specifically, the in-house security officers reported higher likelihood of cooperative behavior overall and in each of the items comprising the scale (reporting suspicious or dangerous activities was not statistically different). In regard to the contact experience, the security officers who had had contact with a police officer showed a higher mean score in the overall likelihood of cooperative behavior scale as well as in individual items.

Table 5.6 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior

Variables	Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior (Mean Scores)									
	Overall	Report minor crime ^a	Report serious crime ^b	Report accident	Provide information about accident	Provide information to solve crime ^e	Help find suspect	Report activity g		
Income										
0= Less than 2 million Won	24.93	3.14	3.76	3.72	3.52	3.52	3.60	3.66		
1= 2 million Won or more	26.15	3.13	3.94	3.97	3.77	3.77	3.82	3.75		
T-test	2.31*	0.08	2.01*	2.94**	2.72**	2.72**	2.35*	0.96		
Married										
0= No	25.44	3.09	3.83	3.87	3.73	3.67	3.63	3.62		
1= Yes	25.30	3.11	3.80	3.77	3.56	3.58	3.75	3.73		
T-test	0.26	0.13	0.35	1.07	1.65	0.92	1.13	1.15		
Education										
1= High school	24.37	3.03	3.59	3.66	3.40	3.43	3.58	3.68		
2= Associate degree	25.12	3.10	3.78	3.72	3.60	3.63	3.64	3.66		
3= Bachelor's or higher	26.64	3.19	4.07	4.01	3.90	3.83	3.90	3.76		
F	8.56***	0.86	13.11***	8.11***	13.13***	8.69***	5.60**	0.46		

Table 5.6 (cont'd)

Type of Employment								
1= In-house	26.99	3.39	4.07	4.04	3.91	3.84	3.93	3.81
2= Contract	24.50	2.99	3.66	3.67	3.44	3.48	3.59	3.67
T-test	5.10***	3.85***	4.96***	4.73***	5.33***	4.14***	3.90***	1.60
Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months								
0= No	24.42	3.02	3.66	3.67	3.48	3.46	3.55	3.58
1= Yes	26.80	3.26	4.02	4.01	3.81	3.84	3.95	3.91
T-test	4.70***	2.46**	4.34***	4.35***	3.82***	4.56***	4.70***	3.99***

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

- a. How likely will you report a minor crime you have witnessed to the police?
- b. How likely will you report a serious crime you have witnessed to the police?
- c. How likely will you call the police to report an accident?
- d. How likely will you provide police with information about an accident?
- e. How likely will you provide police with information to solve a crime?
- f. How likely will you help the police to find a suspect of a crime?
- g. How likely will you report suspicious or dangerous activities to the police?

Empowerment. With regard to empowering the police in performing their duties, the married participants were more likely than the unmarried respondents to support granting authority to the police. For the education groups, when compared to those with an associate degree, the respondents with a bachelor's or a higher degree expressed greater support for the police's exercising the right to stop and question people on the streets (3.65 vs 3.34; $p \le 0.05$) and the power to decide the areas to provide their services with (3.81 vs. 3.53; $p \le 0.05$).

Table 5.7 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Empowerment of the Police

Variables]	Empowermen	t (Mean Score	s)	
	Overall	Right to	Power to	The police	Power to	Police,
		stop and	decide	decide	do	will
		question	areas ^b	how to	whatever	effectively
				deal with	they think	control
				crime ^c	is needed ^d	crime ^e
Income						
0= Less than	18.17	3.55	3.68	3.73	3.55	3.67
2 million Won						
1= 2 million	18.03	3.57	3.74	3.73	3.37	3.62
Won or more						
T-test	0.41	0.25	0.78	0.03	1.72	0.52
Married						
0= No	17.22	3.38	3.58	3.57	3.21	3.47
1= Yes	18.47	3.65	3.80	3.85	3.49	3.68
T-test	3.27***	2.71**	2.61**	3.30***	2.28*	1.94*
Education						
1= High	18.33	3.56	3.71	3.83	3.50	3.72
school						
2= Associate	17.32	3.34	3.53	3.62	3.37	3.46
degree						
3= Bachelor's	18.03	3.65	3.81	3.71	3.32	3.56
or higher						
F	2.80	3.60*	3.70*	2.88	1.23	2.86
Type of						
Employment						
1= In-house	17.87	3.55	3.73	3.68	3.37	3.55
2= Contract	18.22	3.56	3.72	3.80	3.50	3.67
T-test	0.98	0.19	0.06	1.53	0.84	1.34

Table 5.7 (cont'd)

Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months						
0= No	17.98	3.50	3.67	3.74	3.43	3.64
1= Yes	18.19	3.63	3.79	3.76	3.40	3.61
T-test	0.61	1.52	1.69	0.23	0.31	0.32

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

- a. The police should have the right to stop and question people on the street.
- b. The police should have the power to decide which areas of the city should receive the most police protection.
- c. Because of their training and experience, the police are best able to decide how to deal with crime in neighborhood.
- d. The police should have the power to do whatever they think is needed to fight crime.
- e. If we give enough power to the police, they will be able to effectively control crime.

Identification with Security Profession. When it came to identifying with the security profession, the married officers had higher mean scores than the unmarried participants for the overall scale (18.00 vs. 16.39; t=4.35; $p\le0.001$) as well as for the individual items. Moreover, the individuals who reported high school as their highest level of education displayed greater identification with their profession compared to the officers with an associate degree (18.12 vs 16.74; $p\le0.01$).

Particularly, officers reporting high school as their education perceived the praise for other security agents as their own compliment (3.88 vs. 3.60; $p \le 0.01$), saw the things that their organizations supported as important (3.73 vs. 3.34; $p \le 0.001$), and linked their work to self-image (3.67 vs. 3.35; $p \le 0.01$) to a greater extent than the officers with an associate degree. Furthermore, the officers who reported high school as their education perceived the things that their organizations stood for more important than the officers with a bachelor's or a more advanced degree (3.73 vs. 3.50; $p \le 0.001$).

In addition, contract officers identified with their profession more than their in-house counterparts (17.97 vs. 17.16; t= 2.16; p \leq 0.05), especially with regard to feeling positive about other officers' achievement and praise (3.86 vs. 3.68; t= 2.22; p \leq 0.05) and supporting what their organizations stood for (3.69 vs. 3.41; t= 3.16; p \leq 0.01). Lastly, security officers with a contact experience with a police officer exhibited a higher level of pride in contributing to the safety of society than those without contact experience (3.70 vs. 3.53; t= 2.07; p \leq 0.05). Table 5.8 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Identification with Security Profession

Identification with Security Profession (Mean Scores) Variables Overall Proud to Feels like What my Self-People contribute^a organization image^d respect personal stands for^c compliment what I doe Income 3.59 0= Less than 17.53 3.57 3.77 3.52 3.09 2 million Won 17.25 1=2 million 3.58 3.71 3.45 3.50 3.02 Won or more 0.76 0.70 T-test 0.14 1.66 0.18 0.68 Married 0 = No16.39 3.57 3.29 2.87 3.41 3.25 3.19 1 = Yes18.00 3.66 3.83 3.67 3.65 3.07** T-test 4.35*** 2.82** 2.92** 4.25*** 4.29*** Education 1= High 18.12 3.63 3.88 3.73 3.67 3.21 school 16.74 3.50 3.60 3.34 3.35 2.96 2= Associate degree 3= 17.31 3.58 3.71 3.50 3.47 3.05 Bachelor's or higher 5.34** 4.51** 7.42*** 4.59** \mathbf{F} 0.76 2.38 Type of Employment 1= In-house 17.16 3.55 3.68 3.41 3.48 3.03 2= Contract 17.97 3.65 3.86 3.69 3.60 3.17 T-test 2.16* 1.14 2.22* 3.16** 1.25 1.34

Table 5.8 (cont'd)

Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months						
0= No	17.50	3.53	3.71	3.58	3.55	3.15
1= Yes	17.69	3.70	3.85	3.55	3.53	3.05
T-test	0.50	2.07*	1.79	0.25	0.17	0.97

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

- a. I am proud to contribute to the safety of society.
- b. When someone praises the achievements of other security agents, it feels like a personal compliment.
- c. The things that my organization stands for are important to me.
- d. Being a part of the security network is important to the way that I think of myself as a person.
- e. People respect what I contribute to the security of community.

Extra-role behavior. In terms of engaging in extra-role behavior, the married participants were involved in the related activities more than the unmarried respondents (5.37 vs. 4.69; t= 2.42; p \leq 0.05), especially by talking with neighbors about security issues in the community (1.99 vs. 1.62; t= 3.38; p \leq 0.001). Furthermore, the contract officers reported talking with their neighbors about their communities' security problems more frequently than the in-house officers (1.97 vs. 1.76; t= 2.07; p \leq 0.05).

Table 5.9 T-tests and One-Way ANOVA for Extra-role behavior

Variables		Extra-role behavi	ior (Mean Scores)	
	Overall	Attend meetings to discuss security problems ^a	Communicate your views about community security issues ^b	Talk with your neighbors about security problems ^c
Income				
0= Less than 2 million Won	5.25	1.66	1.64	1.95
1= 2 million Won or more	4.97	1.64	1.57	1.76
T-test	1.08	0.26	0.83	1.73
Married	1.10			
0= No	4.69	1.55	1.53	1.62
1= Yes	5.37	1.75	1.64	1.99
T-test	2.42*	1.88	1.10	3.38***
Education				
1= High school	5.40	1.70	1.69	2.01
2= Associate degree	4.81	1.57	1.51	1.72
3= Bachelor's or higher	5.16	1.76	1.60	1.80
F	1.64	1.03	1.25	3.10*
Type of				
Employment				
1= In-house	5.03	1.69	1.58	1.76
2= Contract	5.33	1.71	1.65	1.97
T-test	1.13	0.16	0.74	2.07*
Contact with a police officer in the last 12 months				
0= No	5.23	1.70	1.62	1.91
1= Yes	5.16	1.68	1.64	1.84
T-test	0.24	0.21	0.29	0.68

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

a. How often do you attend meetings to discuss security problems in community?

b. How often do you communicate your views about community security issues to elected officials?

c. How often do you talk with your neighbors about security problems in your community?

(2) Bivariate correlation analysis

After the independent-sample t-tests and ANOVA, a zero-order correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the bivariate relationships between any two variables to be included in the OLS models and detect possible multicollinearity issues between independent variables. Possible multicollinearity issues were first examined by reviewing the correlation coefficients. To illustrate, the coefficients equal to or greater than 0.70 between two independent variables were noted as they could indicate the presence of multicollinearity (Ratner, 2013).

The correlation coefficients between Police Performance and Distributive Justice (r= 0.63; p≤ 0.001) and Procedural Justice (r= 0.68; p≤ 0.001) as well as between Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice (r= 0.75; p≤ 0.001) indicated that these independent variables could be correlated beyond what was conventionally accepted. Nonetheless, as pointed out by Gujarati (2003), the correlation coefficient is not the sole determinant of a multicollinearity issue because such problem could exist even if the coefficient is low.

Therefore, additional analyses were carried out to confirm whether or not multicollinearity actually existed between the independent variables. As shown in the diagnostics presented in Table 5.11, the values of VIF and Tolerance revealed no signs of multicollinearity between the independent variables. This was the case even when conservative cutoff points were applied (i.e. $VIF \ge 4$; Tolerance ≤ 0.25).

The findings of the bivariate correlation analysis suggested that the variables representing the dimensions of legitimacy (Obligation to Obey, Trust, and Normative Alignment) were mostly positively related to the dependent variables (i.e. Obligation to Obey, Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior, Empowerment, Identification with Security Profession, and Extra-Role Behavior). Particularly, Trust and all dimensions of cooperation were found to be positively correlated.

The bivariate relationships between the instrumental (Risk of Sanction, Police Performance, and Distributive Justice) and each of the legitimacy variables showed that they were mostly positively correlated. Specifically, Risk of Sanction for illegitimate activities had a positive correlation with Trust (r=0.21; $p\le0.001$) and Normative Alignment (r=0.16; $p\le0.001$). Moreover, both Police Performance and Distributive Justice displayed a positive correlation with Obligation to Obey (r=0.44; $p\le0.001$ and r=0.30; $p\le0.001$, respectively), Trust (r=0.71; $p\le0.001$ and r=0.68; $p\le0.001$, respectively), and Normative Alignment (r=0.50; $p\le0.001$ and r=0.51; $p\le0.001$, respectively).

Furthermore, having contact with a police officer and the likelihood of cooperative behavior (r=0.23; $p\le0.001$) as well as being male and engagement in Extra-Role Behavior (r=0.15; $p\le0.01$) were positively correlated. Age was shown to have varying correlations with the dependent variables. Age and Empowerment (r=0.19; $p\le0.001$), Identification with Security Profession (r=0.28; $p\le0.001$), and engagement in Extra-Role Behavior (r=0.16; $p\le0.001$) were positively correlated while the correlation between age and the Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior was negative (r=-0.16; $p\le0.001$).

Additionally, being married was positively correlated with Empowerment of the police (r= 0.17; p ≤ 0.001) and Identification with Security Profession (r= 0.21; p ≤ 0.001). Income (r= 0.12; p ≤ 0.05) and education (r= 0.20; p ≤ 0.001) were positively correlated with Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior, and education and Identification with Security Profession were negatively correlated (r= -0.11; p ≤ 0.05).

Table 5.10 Bivariate Correlation Matrix for Individual Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Compliance	1.00											
2. CoopBeh	.14**	1.00										
3. Empower	.10*	.34***	1.00									
4. Identification	.12**	.37***	.47***	1.00								
5. Extra-role	16***	.07	.03	.24***	1.00							
6. ObligToObey	.14**	.27***	.38***	.30***	.06	1.00						
7. Trust	.09*	.25***	.48***	.51***	.13**	.43***	1.00					
8. NormAlign.	.01	.30***	.47***	.47***	.22***	.34***	.64***	1.00				
9. SancRisk	.06	.06	.09*	.20***	.08	.04	.21***	.16***	1.00			
10. PolPerform	.14**	.26***	.54***	.49***	.09	.44***	.71***	.50***	.20***	1.00		
11. DisJust	.15**	.25***	.45***	.46***	.11*	.30***	.68***	.51***	.21***	.63***	1.00	
12. ProJust	.11*	.33***	.50***	.53***	.17***	.39***	.75***	.60***	.22***	.68***	.75***	1.00
13. Contact	.01	.23***	.03	.03	01	.14**	.00	.14**	15***	.02	04	01
14. Male	03	05	07	04	.15**	.03	.02	01	.02	.07	01	03
15. Age	.09	16***	.19***	.28***	.16***	.16***	.30***	.13**	.21***	.35***	.22***	.26***
16. Years of exp.	.09	04	.07	01	04	.00	03	02	07	01	05	05
17. Married	.07	01	.17***	.21***	.12	.17***	.19***	.15**	.14**	.20***	.12*	.16***
18. Income	.06	.12*	02	04	06	.05	09	03	11*	09	12*	12*
19. Education	01	.20***	04	11*	04	01	10*	.06	16***	09	14**	12*

Table 5.10 (cont'd)

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19			
13. Contact	1.00									
14. Male	03	1.00								
15. Age	12**	.26***	1.00							
16. Years of exp.	.09*	09*	06	1.00						
17. Married	.04	.21***	.59***	.10*	1.00					
18. Income	.18***	03	49***	.44***	18***	1.00				
19. Education	.23***	17***	52***	.14**	27***	.45***	1.00			

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Note: 1= Compliance; 2= Likelihood of cooperative behavior; 3= Empowerment of the police; 4= Identification with security profession; 5= Extra-role behavior; 6= Obligation to obey; 7= Trust; 8= Normative alignment; 9= Risk of sanction; 10= Police performance; 11= Distributive justice; 12= Procedural justice; 13= Contact experience; 14= Male= 15= Age; 16= Years of work experience; 17= Married; 18= Monthly income; 19= Highest level of education.

Table 5.11 Multicollinearity Diagnostics

Variables	VIF	Tolerance
Socio-demographic characteristics		
Gender	1.15	0.87
Age	2.36	0.42
Years of experience	1.44	0.70
Monthly income	1.98	0.50
Marital status	1.59	0.63
Education	1.54	0.65
Contact experience	1.05	0.00
Contact with a police officer	1.25	0.80
Instrumental & Normative perspectives		
Perceived risk of sanction	1.15	0.87
Police performance	2.73	0.37
Distributive justice	2.65	0.38
Procedural justice	3.48	0.29
Legitimacy		
Obligation to obey	1.44	0.70
Trust	3.44	0.29
Normative alignment	2.03	0.49

3. Multivariate Analysis

After examining the bivariate relationships between variables, multivariate analyses were conducted to investigate how other variables might affect the bivariate relationships and determine the factors that influenced the respondents' attitudes toward and actual engagement in cooperation with the police more conclusively. OLS was chosen as the main analytic strategy considering the characteristics of the dependent variables, including their measurement as interval variables.

First, each dimension of police legitimacy was predicted by running different models, including the overall sample, and the subgroup analyses between contract and in-house officers as well as between those with and without contact experience with a police officer during the past 12 months.

(1) Predictors of police legitimacy

Table 5.12a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Obligation to Obey

				Oblig	gation to	Obey				
Variables	All Private Security			Con	Contract Officers			In-House Officers		
	Offi	icers (n=	cers (n= 322)		(n=17)	0)		(n=14)	2)	
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	
Socio-										
Demographic										
Male	20	.36	03	04	.59	01	19	.55	03	
Age	.01	.01	.07	.00	.01	.01	.06	.05	.16	
Years of experience	02	.02	06	.02	.03	.05	12	.07	24	
Monthly income	.66**	.25	.18	.79*	.33	.21	.47	.45	.09	
Married	.33	.24	.08	.46	.43	.12	.33	.34	.08	
Education	06	.13	03	04	.15	02	.05	.25	.02	
Contact										
Contact experience	.53**	.20	.14	.33	.24	.10	.66	.34	.16	
Attitudinal										
Risk of sanction	02	.02	05	.00	.03	01	04	.04	08	
Police performance	.24***	.05	.35	.31**	.06	.45	.18*	.08	.26	
Distributive justice	05	.04	09	07	.06	13	05	.07	08	
Procedural justice	.09**	.03	.22	.05	.04	.12	.12*	.05	.30	
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.28/.26			.30/.25	.30/.25			.31/.26		

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

As shown in Table 5.12a, monthly income, contact experience with a police officer, and perceived police performance and procedural justice were found to predict the participants' attitudes toward obligation to obey authorities. Particularly, the security officers that reported earning 200 million or more Won per month were more likely to feel the obligation to obey authorities compared to those who were earning less income (b=0.66; $p\le0.01$). Moreover, the

respondents with a contact experience with a police officer during the past 12 months exhibited higher degree of obligation to obey than those without any contact experience (b= 0.53; p \leq 0.01). Furthermore, perceived police performance (b= 0.24; (b=0.66; p \leq 0.001) and procedural justice (b= 0.09; p \leq 0.01) were positively related to Obligation to Obey.

Table 5.12b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Obligation to Obey

			Obliga	ation to Obey				
Variables	N	lo Contact (n= 185)	На	Had Contact (n= 137)			
	b	SE	β	В	SE	β		
Socio-								
Demographic								
Male	.09	.51	.01	49	.55	07		
Age	.01	.01	.08	.01	.01	.05		
Years of	03	.03	08	.00	.04	.01		
Experience								
Monthly Income	.75*	.33	.20	.48	.42	.13		
Married	.28	.35	.07	.44	.34	.11		
Education	04	.17	02	07	.21	03		
Attitudinal								
Risk of Sanction	02	.03	05	03	.03	06		
Police	.21**	.07	.30	.28***	.08	.42		
Performance								
Distributive	.03	.07	.05	10	.06	20		
Justice								
Procedural Justice	.06	.05	.15	.09*	.04	.26		
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.25/.21			.29/.23				

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Additionally, different variables were found to predict Obligation to Obey between contract and in-house officers. For the contract officers, monthly income (b= 0.79; p \leq 0.05) and police performance (b= 0.31; p \leq 0.001) were the significant correlates while police performance (b= 0.18; p \leq 0.05) and procedural justice (b= 0.12; p \leq 0.05) predicted the outcome variable among the in-house officers.

Moreover, findings showed that monthly income (b= 0.75; p \leq 0.05) and police performance (b= 0.21; p \leq 0.01) were positive correlates of Obligation to Obey for the participants without any contact with a police officer for the past twelve months. For the comparison group with such contact, police performance (b= 0.28; p \leq 0.001) and procedural justice (b= 0.09; p \leq 0.05) were positively related to the dependent variable. Furthermore, using the equation from Paternoster, Brame, Mazerolle, and Piquero (1998)⁶, the difference between the regression coefficients was investigated. The results suggested that the effects of police performance between contract and in-house officers (z= 1.30) and between those with or without contact with a police officer (z= -0.64) did not vary statistically.

$$Z = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{\sqrt{SEb_1^2 + SEb_2^2}}$$

When trust in the police was regressed on the socio-demographic characteristics, contact experience, and attitudinal variables of the respondents (Table 5.13), the perceptions of police performance (b= 0.37; p \leq 0.001), distributive justice (b= 0.11; p \leq 0.05), and procedural justice (b= 0.28; p \leq 0.001) were found to be the significant predictors. In other words, the more the participants thought highly of police performance and believed that the police provided their services equally in a procedurally fair manner, the degree of trust increased.

The results of the subgroup analyses based on type of employment suggested that age (b= 0.04; p \leq 0.05), police performance (b= 0.28; p \leq 0.001), distributive justice (b= 0.17; p \leq 0.01), and procedural justice (b= 0.14; p \leq 0.01) were significantly related to the contract officers' trust while

-

 $^{^6}$ b= unstandardized regression coefficient; SE= Standard Error

being married (b= 0.94; p \leq 0.01), police performance (b= 0.38; p \leq 0.001), and procedural justice (b= 0.36; p \leq 0.001) were significant predictors among the in-house officers.

In addition, the subgroup analysis by contact experience showed that the two groups had common attitudinal variables predicting trust in the police. In both groups, Police Performance and the dependent variable were positively related (b= 0.34; p \leq 0.001 and b= 0.41; p \leq 0.001). Positive association between Procedural Justice and Trust were also shown for both groups (b= 0.24; p \leq 0.001 and b= 0.30; p \leq 0.001). Nevertheless, the education variable was positively related to Trust only among those with no contact experience with a police officer (b= 0.42; p \leq 0.05).

Further analyses carried out to investigate the difference between regression coefficients showed that the influence of Procedural Justice on Trust was greater for the in-house officers compared to their contract counterparts (z=-3.14). However, no such distinct influence was detected for the other common predictors.

Table 5.13a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Trust

		Trust							
Variables	All P	rivate Se	ecurity	Con	tract Off	icers	In-H	ouse Of	ficers
	Offi	cers (n=	322)		(n=170))		(n=142))
	b	SE	β	В	SE	β	b	SE	β
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	.02	.41	.00	.55	.72	.05	.07	.53	.01
Age	.01	.01	.05	.04*	.02	.24	04	.05	05
Years of	03	.03	05	.00	.03	.01	08	.07	09
Experience									
Monthly Income	.19	.28	.03	.16	.40	.03	.63	.43	.07
Married	.28	.27	.04	60	.52	11	.94**	.33	.13
Education	.08	.14	.02	.07	.18	.02	.18	.24	.03
Contact									
Contact	01	.22	.00	.34	.29	.07	27	.33	04
Experience									

Table 5.13a (cont'd)

Attitudinal									
Risk of Sanction	.02	.03	.03	.05	.03	.09	.06	.04	.06
Police	.37***	.06	.32	.28***	.08	.27	.38***	.08	.31
Performance									
Distributive Justice	.11*	.05	.12	.17**	.07	.21	.07	.07	.07
Procedural Justice	.28***	.04	.43	.14**	.05	.24	.36***	.05	.54
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.67/.65			.54/.51				.79/.77	

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.13b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Trust

				Trust		
Variables	N	o Contact (n= 185)	На	ad Contact	(n= 137)
	В	SE	В	b	SE	β
Socio-						
Demographic						
Male	.88	.55	.08	87	.62	07
Age	.01	.01	.06	.00	.02	.01
Years of	02	.03	03	05	.05	06
Experience						
Monthly Income	.08	.35	.01	.21	.47	.03
Married	.35	.37	.06	.43	.38	.06
Education	.42*	.18	.13	37	.24	09
Attitudinal						
Risk of Sanction	.05	.04	.07	.00	.04	.00
Police	.34***	.07	.33	.41***	.09	.33
Performance						
Distributive	.08	.08	.08	.14*	.06	.15
Justice						
Procedural	.24***	.05	.39	.30***	.05	.45
Justice						
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.62/.60			.75/.73		

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

In regard to participants' normative alignment with the police and police officers, educational level (b= 0.37; p \leq 0.05), contact experience (b= 0.65; p \leq 0.01), and perceived police performance (b= 0.17; p \leq 0.01) and procedural justice (b= 0.21; p \leq 0.001) were shown to be the significant correlates. The participants who received higher education, had contact experience, and

perceived the police performed their duties well and in a procedurally just way exhibited a greater level of normative alignment with their public counterparts.

When analyzing by type of employment, Education only predicted Normative Alignment among the contract officers (b= 0.46; p \leq 0.05). Moreover, Contact Experience (b= 1.37; p \leq 0.001) and Police Performance (b= 0.26; p \leq 0.01) were significantly related to Normative Alignment only among the in-house group. Furthermore, the comparison by contact with a police officer showed that perceived police performance was a significant correlate of the normative alignment among those without contact experience (b= 0.17; p \leq 0.05), whereas Distributive Justice was significantly related to the outcome variable in the group with contact experience (b= 0.20; p \leq 0.01). Furthermore, an examination into the difference between the coefficients of Procedural Justice revealed that there was no statistically distinct variance between contract and in-house officers (z= 0.50) or between those with or without contact with a police officer (z= 0.75).

Table 5.14a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Moral Alignment

				Norma	ative Ali	gnment			
Variables	All P	rivate Se	ecurity	Con	tract Off	icers	In-H	Iouse Of	ficers
	Offi	cers (n=	322)		(n=170))		(n=142))
	b	SE	β	В	SE	β	b	SE	β
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	.19	.45	.02	.00	.83	.00	.04	.61	.00
Age	01	.01	05	.00	.02	02	.07	.06	.13
Years of	03	.03	05	.00	.04	.00	12	.08	17
Experience									
Monthly Income	10	.31	02	.13	.46	.02	57	.50	08
Married	.47	.29	.08	.82	.60	.15	.25	.38	.04
Education	.37*	.16	.13	.46*	.21	.16	.08	.28	.02
Contact									
Contact	.65**	.24	.12	05	.34	01	1.37	.38	.22
Experience							***		

Table 5.14a (cont'd)

Attitudinal									
Risk of Sanction	.04	.03	.06	.02	.04	.04	.08	.05	.11
Police	.17**	.06	.18	.09	.09	.09	.26**	.09	.26
Performance									
Distributive	.09	.05	.12	.02	.08	.02	.08	.08	.09
Justice									
Procedural Justice	.21	.04	.39	.25	.06	.44	.21	.05	.39
	***			***			***		
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.44/.43		.32/.28 .59/.56						

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.14b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Normative Alignment

			Normative	Alignment			
Variables	No	Contact (n=	185)	Had	ad Contact (n= 137)		
	b	SE	В	b	SE	β	
Socio-Demographic							
Male	.59	.55	.07	51	.78	04	
Age	.00	.01	02	02	.02	08	
Years of Experience	02	.03	05	05	.06	07	
Monthly Income	20	.36	04	24	.59	04	
Married	.35	.38	.07	.62	.48	.09	
Education	.44*	.18	.17	.31	.30	.09	
Attitudinal							
Risk of Sanction	.05	.04	.09	.06	.05	.08	
Police Performance	.17*	.07	.20	.17	.11	.16	
Distributive Justice	07	.08	09	.20**	.08	.25	
Procedural Justice	.25***	.05	.50	.19**	.06	.34	
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.41/.37	.49/.45					

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

(2) Predictors of cooperation with the police

As discussed, prior studies suggest that police legitimacy is an antecedent of cooperative intention and behavior. Therefore, after exploring the predictors of police legitimacy, main analyses were conducted to investigate the factors that affect cooperation with the police. The dimensions of police legitimacy (i.e. Obligation to Obey, Trust, and Normative Alignment), which had been predicted in the previous studies as the dependent variables, were included as

independent variables along with the participants' socio-demographic characteristics and contact experience.

Table 5.15a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Compliance

		Compliance							
Variables	All P	rivate Se	ecurity	Con	tract Off	icers	In-House Officers		
	Offi	cers (n=	319)		(n=167))		(n=142))
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	b	SE	β
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	67	.64	06	-1.36	1.35	09	38	.75	04
Age	.01	.01	.06	01	.03	05	.06	.07	.13
Years of	.03	.04	.05	.01	.06	.02	01	.09	01
Experience									
Monthly Income	.36	.45	.06	.13	.76	.02	.17	.64	.03
Married	15	.42	03	.80	.98	.11	43	.48	09
Education	06	.22	02	14	.34	03	.11	.34	.03
Contact									
Contact Experience	.38	.35	.07	.99	.54	.14	42	.50	08
Legitimacy									
Obligation to Obey	.20*	.10	.13	.21	.17	.11	.23	.12	.19
Trust	.11	.08	.12	.25	.14	.19	.05	.10	.07
Normative	18*	.08	17	18	.13	13	15	.12	19
Alignment									
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.05/.02			.08/.02			.07/.00		

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.15b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Compliance

		Compliance									
Variables	No	Contact (n=	182)	Had	Contact (n=	137)					
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β					
Socio-Demographic											
Male	26	1.01	02	-1.16	.75	14					
Age	02	.02	08	.03	.02	.21					
Years of Experience	.05	.06	.07	02	.06	03					
Monthly Income	.40	.66	.06	.23	.56	.05					
Married	1.05	.69	.16	-1.16**	.46	24					
Education	.14	.33	.04	03	.28	01					
Legitimacy											
Obligation to Obey	.32*	.15	.18	.07	.12	.06					
Trust	.07	.12	.06	.13	.08	.21					
Normative	15	.14	10	19*	.09	26					
Alignment											
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.07/.02	.07/.02 .13/.07									

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Compliance was the first outcome variable regressed on the aforementioned variables. The results in Table 5.15a revealed that only a small amount of variance was explained by the independent variables (adjusted R^2 = 0.02). The model that included all participants showed that Obligation to Obey (b= 0.20; p≤ 0.05) and Normative Alignment (b= -0.18; p≤ 0.05) were the significant predictors. Those who held a higher degree of obligation to obey authorities were more likely to comply with laws and refrain from engaging in illegitimate activities. However, a negative relationship between Normative Alignment and Compliance indicated that the security officers exhibiting a higher Normative Alignment were less likely to comply with laws.

Further assessment by type of employment showed that there were no significant correlates of Compliance when the sample was divided into contract and in-house officers. The subgroup analysis by contact experience revealed that there was a notable difference in the variance explained by the independent variables between the two groups. Although the amount of variance was not substantial for either group, the groups with contact had a higher coefficient of

determination (R^2 = 0.07) than the comparison group (R^2 = 0.02). The findings also indicated that Married (b= -1.16; p≤ 0.01) was a significant predictor for the participants with contact experience with a police officer. Normative Alignment (b= -0.19; p≤ 0.05) was the other variable that was significant only in the group with contact experience. Moreover, Obligation to Obey (b= 0.32; p≤ 0.05) and Compliance were positively associated only among the officers without contact.

The next dependent variable was the likelihood that respondents would engage in cooperative behavior with the police. The results from the full model suggested that Age (b= -0.08; p ≤ 0.001), Contact Experience (b= 1.11; p ≤ 0.05), Obligation to Obey (b= 0.65; p ≤ 0.001), and Trust (b= 0.25; p ≤ 0.05) were the significant correlates of Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior. To illustrate, the respondents who were younger had had encountered a police officer, and exhibited higher degrees of Obligation to Obey and Trust were more likely to engage in cooperative behavior.

Further analyses by type of employment indicated that Age (b= -0.12; p \leq 0.01) only predicted the contract officer's likelihood of cooperative behavior, and the contact experience (b= 2.20; p \leq 0.05) was found to be a significant predictor for the in-house, but not for the contract officers. Obligation to Obey and Trust were positively related to Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior for both contract and in-house officers.

Additionally, the correlates of Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior varied between the contact groups. Particularly, Age (b=-0.10; p \leq 0.01) and Normative Alignment (b= 0.52; p \leq 0.01) were related to the outcome variable among the participants with no contact experience. On the other hand, years of experience in the field (b= -0.24; p \leq 0.05) and education level (b= 1.12; p \leq 0.05) were found to be significant for the group with contact experience, demonstrating that individuals with less experience and a higher education level were more likely to cooperate with

the police. When the coefficients of the common predictors were assessed, findings indicated that no such statistical differences existed.

Table 5.16a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior

			Likel	ihood of	Cooper	ative Be	havior		
Variables	All P	rivate Se	ecurity	Con	tract Of	ficers	In-H	ouse Of	ficers
	Offi	cers (n=	321)		(n=169))		(n=142))
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	b	SE	β
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	.23	1.01	.01	.39	1.88	.02	.24	1.34	.01
Age	-	.02	26	-	.04	42	.09	.13	.09
	.08**			.12**					
	*								
Years of	09	.07	08	12	.09	11	13	.17	10
Experience									
Monthly Income	09	.70	01	93	1.06	08	92	1.13	07
Married	.88	.67	.08	2.16	1.38	.20	20	.84	02
Education	.60	.35	.10	.19	.48	.03	.38	.60	.05
Contact									
Contact	1.11*	.55	.11	04	.75	.00	2.20*	.89	.21
Experience									
Legitimacy									
Obligation to Obey	.65**	.16	.24	.47*	.24	.16	.71**	.22	.29
	*						*		
Trust	.25*	.12	.15	.48*	.20	.25	.37*	.17	.26
Normative	.22	.13	.11	.23	.18	.11	04	.21	02
Alignment									
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.25/.23			.17/.11			.32/.27		

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.16b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior

		Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior								
Variables	No	Contact (n=	184)	Had	Contact (n=	137)				
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β				
Socio-Demographic										
Male	1.20	1.39	.06	93	1.52	05				
Age	10**	.03	34	06	.04	16				
Years of Experience	03	.08	03	24*	.12	19				
Monthly Income	-1.41	.91	14	1.87	1.14	.19				
Married	.41	.95	.04	1.15	.93	.11				
Education	.17	.46	.03	1.12*	.57	.19				
Legitimacy										
Obligation to Obey	.63**	.21	.23	.62**	.24	.23				
Trust & Confidence	.23	.17	.13	.32	.17	.23				
Normative	.52**	.19	.23	06	.18	03				
Alignment										
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.23/.19 .28/.23									

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Empowerment of police officers was another dimension of cooperation. According to the full model, male participants (b=-1.39; p \leq 0.05) were less likely to support empowerment of police officers. In addition, Obligation to Obey (b= 0.31; p \leq 0.01), Trust (b= 0.20; p \leq 0.01), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.39; p \leq 0.001) were positively related to Empowerment. Therefore, the respondents who felt greater obligation to obey authorities, held higher levels of trust in the police, and exhibited higher degree of normative alignment were more likely to support empowerment of the police.

The results of subgroup analyses showed Age (b= 0.05; p≤ 0.05), Education (b= -0.57; p≤ 0.05), Contact Experience (b= -0.95; p≤ 0.05), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.43; p≤ 0.001) explained the contract officers' support of police empowerment, whereas Years of Experience (b= 0.26; p≤ 0.05), Obligation to Obey (b= 0.53; p≤ 0.001), and Trust (b= 0.32; p≤ 0.01) were positively related to the in-house officers' attitude toward Empowerment.

Furthermore, Male (b= -1.66; p≤ 0.05) and Age (b= 0.05; p≤ 0.01) were related to the dependent variable within the "No Contact" group while Obligation to Obey (b= 0.56; p≤ 0.001) and Trust (b= 0.38; p≤ 0.001) were significant correlates of the group with contact experience. In addition, the impact of Normative Alignment (i.e. b= 0.43; p≤ 0.001 vs. b= 0.28; p≤ 0.05), the common predictor for both groups, was not shown to vary between the two groups (z= 0.94).

Table 5.17a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Empowerment

		Empowerment									
Variables	All P	rivate Se	ecurity	Cor	tract Off	ficers	In-H	louse Of	ficers		
	Offi	cers (n=	322)		(n=170))		(n=142))		
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	b	SE	β		
Socio-											
Demographic											
Male	-1.39*	.63	11	-2.60	1.04	19	42	.89	03		
Age	.02	.01	.11	.05*	.02	.26	.00	.08	.01		
Years of	.03	.04	.04	09	.05	13	.26*	.11	.28		
Experience											
Monthly Income	.29	.43	.04	.90	.58	.14	86	.76	09		
Married	.19	.41	.03	60	.75	09	17	.57	02		
Education	02	.22	01	57*	.26	16	.09	.40	.02		
Contact											
Contact	18	.34	03	95*	.41	15	.72	.60	.09		
experience											
Legitimacy											
Obligation to	.31**	.10	.17	.16	.13	.09	.53***	.14	.29		
Obey											
Trust	.20**	.07	.18	.14	.11	.12	.32**	.12	.30		
Normative	.39***	.08	.30	.43***	.10	.35	.21	.14	.16		
Alignment											
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.34/.32			.31/.27	1		.46/.42				

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.17b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Empowerment

			Emp	owerment				
Variables	No	Contact (n= 185)	Ha	Had Contact (n= 137)			
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β		
Socio-Demographic								
Male	-1.66*	.77	15	74	1.02	05		
Age	.05**	.02	.32	01	.03	03		
Years of Experience	.00	.05	.00	.07	.08	.07		
Monthly Income	.44	.51	.08	.15	.77	.02		
Married	19	.53	03	.05	.63	.01		
Education	39	.25	11	.38	.38	.08		
Legitimacy								
Obligation to Obey	.13	.11	.08	.56***	.16	.26		
Trust	.04	.09	.04	.38***	.11	.34		
Normative	.43***	.11	.33	.28*	.12	.22		
Alignment								
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.29/.25 .47/.44							

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

For Identification with Security Profession, Male (b= -1.58; p \leq 0.05), Trust (b= 0.31; p \leq 0.001), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.37; p \leq 0.001) were related to the outcome variable in the full model. In other words, females and those expressing greater trust in and normative alignment with the police were more likely to identify with their profession.

In addition, gender (Male; b= -2.11; p \leq 0.05), marital status (Married; b= 1.80; p \leq 0.05), contact with a police officer (b= -0.97; p \leq 0.05), Obligation to Obey (b= 0.36; p \leq 0.01), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.35; p \leq 0.001) were significantly related to the dependent variable among the contract officers. On the other hand, Trust (b= 0.49; p \leq 0.001) was the sole predictor for the in-house officers.

When analyzing the sample by contact experience, Obligation to Obey (b= 0.29; p \leq 0.01) predicted Identification with Security Profession for the participants with no contact experience while income (b= 2.36; p \leq 0.01) and Trust (b= 0.45; p \leq 0.01) were significant correlates for the individuals with contact experience. Furthermore, Normative Alignment was the common

significant variable for both groups (b= 0.37; p \le 0.001 and b= 0.33; p \le 0.05), but there were no statistical differences in the coefficients (z= 0.22).

Table 5.18a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Identification with Security Profession

			Ident	ification	with Secu	rity Prof	ession		
Variables	All Private Security			Contract Officers			In-House Officers		
	Officers (n= 322)			(n= 170)			(n= 142)		
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	b	SE	β
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	-1.58*	.67	12	-2.11*	1.05	15	-1.65	1.06	11
Age	.02	.02	.09	01	.02	06	.14	.10	.17
Years of	.01	.05	.01	02	.05	03	01	.13	01
Experience									
Monthly	.40	.47	.06	61	.59	09	.22	.89	.02
Income									
Married	.45	.44	.06	1.80*	.76	.26	31	.67	04
Education	11	.23	03	17	.27	04	26	.47	04
Contact									
Contact	51	.36	07	97*	.42	15	.05	.70	.01
Experience									
Legitimacy									
Obligation to	.19	.10	.10	.36**	.13	.19	.06	.17	.03
Obey									
Trust	.31***	.08	.26	.20	.11	.16	.49***	.14	.42
Normative	.37***	.09	.27	.35***	.10	.27	.26	.16	.18
Alignment									
R ² /Adjusted	.33/.31			.35/.31			.37/.33		
\mathbb{R}^2									

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.18b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Identification with Security Profession

	Identification with Security Profession								
Variables	No	Contact (n= 185)	На	Had Contact (n= 137)				
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β			
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	-1.24	.74	11	-1.05	1.25	06			
Age	.01	.02	.03	.05	.03	.17			
Years of	.05	.04	.08	09	.10	09			
Experience									
Monthly Income	74	.48	13	2.36**	.93	.27			
Married	.77	.50	.13	07	.77	01			
Education	04	.24	01	11	.47	02			
Legitimacy									
Obligation to	.29**	.11	.18	.10	.20	.04			
Obey									
Trust	.17	.09	.17	.45**	.14	.35			
Normative	.37***	.10	.29	.33*	.15	.23			
Alignment									
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.36/.32			.37/.33					

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

The last dimension of cooperation was engagement in Extra-role Behavior. Compared to the other models of cooperation, the explanatory power was considerably low for Extra-Role Behavior (e.g. R^2 = 0.04 for full model). Nonetheless, the full model showed that males (b= 1.20; p≤ 0.05) and individuals with higher Normative Alignment (b= 0.22; p≤ 0.01) were more likely to take part in extra-role activities.

When comparing by type of employment, marital status was the only significant predictor (Married; b=1.95; $p\le 0.01$) for those working on a contract basis, and none of the variables were significantly related to the dependent variable for in-house participants. Finally, Normative Alignment (b=0.32; $p\le 0.01$) and Extra-Role Behavior were positively related for the respondents without contact experience. However, for those who had had contact with a police officer, no significant predictors were found.

Table 5.19a Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (All & by Employment Type): Extra-role behavior

	Extra-role behavior									
Variables	All Private Security			Contract Officers			In-House Officers			
	Officers (n= 322)			(n=170)			(n= 142)			
	b	SE	В	b	SE	β	b	SE	β	
Socio-										
Demographic										
Male	1.20*	.55	.13	.80	.95	.07	1.30	.80	.14	
Age	.01	.01	.09	03	.02	19	.06	.07	.11	
Years of	01	.04	02	01	.04	02	05	.10	07	
Experience										
Monthly Income	.11	.38	.02	69	.53	13	.49	.67	.08	
Married	.18	.36	.03	1.95**	.69	.35	43	.50	08	
Education	.14	.19	.05	.01	.24	.00	.31	.36	.08	
Contact										
Contact Experience	26	.30	05	67	.38	13	07	.53	01	
Legitimacy										
Obligation to Obey	07	.09	05	23	.12	16	.05	.13	.04	
Trust	04	.07	05	.08	.10	.08	06	.10	09	
Normative	.22**	.07	.23	.16	.09	.15	.20	.12	.22	
Alignment										
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.07/.04		·	.16/.10			.09/.02			

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

Table 5.19b Ordinary Least Squares Analysis (by Contact): Extra-role behavior

	Extra-role behavior								
Variables	1	No Contact (n= 185)	Had Contact (n= 137)					
	b	SE	β	b	SE	β			
Socio-									
Demographic									
Male	1.12	.74	.12	1.59	.89	.16			
Age	.02	.02	.11	.01	.02	.06			
Years of	02	.04	04	.00	.07	.00			
Experience									
Monthly	14	.49	03	.60	.67	.12			
Income									
Married	.06	.51	.01	.20	.55	.04			
Education	.09	.25	.03	.09	.33	.03			

Table 5.19b (cont'd)

Legitimacy						
Obligation to	16	.11	12	.04	.14	.03
Obey						
Trust	06	.09	07	01	.10	01
Normative	.32**	.10	.29	.13	.10	.15
Alignment						
R ² /Adjusted R ²	.11/.06			.06/.00		

^{*} $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$

(3) Further analysis

Further multivariate analyses were conducted after imputing the missing data. Although, as mentioned earlier, diagnostic tests indicated that the missing data in the sample were MCAR, additional examination of the OLS models was warranted considering the number of cases lost through the listwise deletion method (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

MI is a useful method to employ when addressing potential issues caused by missing data, because instead of replacing missing data with a single value, it substitutes them with simulated versions. Then the results are reported based on such simulations of complete datasets while taking missing-data uncertainty into account (Schafer, 1999).

For each dimension of cooperation, ten imputations were conducted. Therefore, in terms of interpretation of the results, the regression coefficients are an arithmetic mean of the individual coefficients estimated for the ten regression models. As expected, the findings (see Appendix D) with or without the MI method were mostly similar.

Nonetheless, Obligation to Obey was the only significant variable related to Compliance (b= 0.19; p \leq 0.05). Unlike in the model without the MI method employed, Normative Alignment did not explain the security officers' compliance with the laws. Moreover, for Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior, the comparable significant relationships were reported between age (b= -0.07; p \leq 0.001), contact experience (b= 1.51; p \leq 0.001), Obligation to Obey (b= 0.45; p \leq 0.001),

and Trust (b= 0.26; p \leq 0.01) and the dependent variable in the Complete-Case (CC) and the MI analyses. However, Normative Alignment was found to predict the outcome variable (b= 0.28; p \leq 0.05) when the missing data were imputed, which was not suggested in the CC model.

Additionally, for Empowerment, the findings of the regression analysis with MI did not vary from those of the CC model. To illustrate, the same variables predicted participants' favorable opinions about granting authority to the police, such as Male (-b= 1.34; p \leq 0.05), Obligation to Obey (b= 0.33; p \leq 0.001), Trust (b= 0.24; p \leq 0.001), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.35; p \leq 0.001).

Furthermore, findings for the dependent variable Identification with Security Profession revealed that Male (b= -1.45; p \leq 0.05), Age (b= 0.04; p \leq 0.01), Trust (b= 0.30; p \leq 0.001), and Normative Alignment (b= 0.35; p \leq 0.001) were significant correlates after employing the MI method. With the exception of Age, these were the same significant variables in the CC model. Lastly, Male (b= 1.22; p \leq 0.05) and Normative Alignment (b= 0.25; p \leq 0.001) were significantly related to the respondents' engagement in Extra-role Behavior in the MI model, which was also shown in the CC analysis.

4. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, results of statistical analyses were presented. Descriptive statistics described the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as their general attitudes toward instrumental and normative aspects of the work of the police. Additionally, information about participants' views on police legitimacy and their opinions about and engagement in cooperative behavior with the police were revealed through the univariate analyses.

Bivariate analyses allowed assessment of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA were conducted to

investigate potential differences in terms of the dependent variables by socio-demographic groups and contact experience with a police officer. Moreover, the bivariate correlation analysis provided information on the relationships between the variables included in the multivariate models as well as on the potential multicollinearity issues.

Different OLS models were developed and analyzed to examine predictors of the perceptions of police legitimacy and cooperation with the police. Multivariate analyses were useful in identifying which variables had significant independent explanatory power while controlling for the socio-demographic characteristics and contact experience with police. In addition to the models including all participants, subgroup OLS models by type of employment and contact experience were run based on the existing knowledge that these subgroups should have varying attitudes toward their public counterparts.

Furthermore, by taking the substantial number of deleted cases into consideration, the OLS models with the MI method employed were analyzed to investigate whether there were any varying findings from the CC models. The results revealed a few differences, but they did not deviate from the initial models considerably.

Table 5.20a: Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Legitimacy (Obligation To Obey)

	Obligation To Obey							
Variables		Type of Em	ployment	Contact Expe	erience			
	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact			
Socio-Demographic								
Monthly income	+	+	NS	+	NS			
Contact								
Contact experience	+	NS	NS	NA	NA			
Attitudinal								
Police performance	+	+	+	+	+			
Procedural justice	+	NS	+	NS	+			

^{+:} Positive relationship; NS: Not Significant; NA: Not Applicable

Table 5.20b Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Legitimacy (Trust)

	Trust						
Variables		Type of Em	ployment	Contact Expe	erience		
	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact		
Socio-Demographic							
Age	NS	+	NS	NS	NS		
Married	NS	NS	+	NS	NS		
Education	NS	NS	NS	+	NS		
Attitudinal							
Police performance	+	+	+	+	+		
Distributive justice	+	+	NS	NS	+		
Procedural justice	+	+	+	+	+		

^{+:} Positive relationship; NS: Not Significant

Table 5.20c Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Legitimacy (Normative Alignment)

	Normative Alignment				
Variables		Type of Em	ployment	ent Contact Experience	
	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact
Socio-Demographic					
Education	+	+	NS	+	NS
Contact					
Contact experience	+	NS	+	NA	NA
Attitudinal					
Police performance	+	NS	+	+	NS
Distributive justice	NS	NS	NS	NS	+
Procedural justice	+	+	+	+	+

^{+:} Positive relationship; NS: Not Significant; NA: Not Applicable

Table 5.21a Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Cooperation (Compliance)

	Compliance					
Variables		Type of Em	ployment	Contact Expe	erience	
, united	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact	
Socio-Demographic						
Married	NS	NS	NS	NS	-	
Legitimacy						
Obligation to Obey	+	NS	NS	+	NS	
Normative Alignment	-	NS	NS	NS	-	

^{+:} Positive relationship; -: Negative relationship; NS: Not Significant

Table 5.21b Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Cooperation (Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior)

	Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior				
Variables		Type of Employment		Contact Experience	
	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact
Socio-Demographic					
Age	-	-	NS	-	NS
Years of experience	NS	NS	NS	NS	-
Education	NS	NS	NS	NS	+
Contact					
Contact experience	+	NS	+	NA	NA
Legitimacy					
Obligation to Obey	+	+	+	+	+
Trust	+	+	+	NS	NS
Normative Alignment	NS	NS	NS	+	NS

^{+:} Positive relationship; -: Negative relationship; NS: Not Significant; NA: Not Applicable

Table 5.21c Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Cooperation (Empowerment)

	Empowerment					
Variables		Type of Em	ployment	Contact Expe	Contact Experience	
	All Private	Contract	In-House	No Contact	Had	
	Security	Officers	Officers		Contact	
	Officers					
Socio-Demographic						
Male	-	NS	NS	-	NS	
Age	NS	+	NS	+	NS	
Years of experience	NS	NS	+	NS	NS	
Education	NS	-	NS	NS	NS	
Contact						
Contact experience	NS	-	NS	NA	NA	
Legitimacy						
Obligation to Obey	+	NS	+	NS	+	
Trust	+	NS	+	NS	+	
Normative Alignment	+	+	NS	+	+	

^{+:} Positive relationship; -: Negative relationship; NS: Not Significant; NA: Not Applicable

Table 5.21d Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Cooperation (Identification with Security Profession)

	Identification with Security Profession				
Variables		Type of Employment		Contact Expe	erience
	All Private Security Officers	Contract Officers	In-House Officers	No Contact	Had Contact
Socio-Demographic					
Male	-	-	NS	NS	NS
Monthly income	NS	NS	NS	NS	+
Married	NS	+	NS	NS	NS
Contact					
Contact experience	NS	-	NS	NA	NA
Legitimacy					
Obligation to Obey	NS	+	NS	+	NS
Trust	+	NS	+	NS	+
Normative Alignment	+	+	NS	+	+

^{+:} Positive relationship; -: Negative relationship; NS: Not Significant; NA: Not Applicable

Table 5.21e Summary of OLS Analysis Findings: Cooperation (Extra-Role Behavior)

	Extra-Role Behavior				
Variables		Type of Emp	loyment	Contact Expe	erience
	All Private	Contract	In-House	No Contact	Had
	Security	Officers	Officers		Contact
	Officers				
Socio-Demographic					
Male	+	NS	NS	NS	NS
Married	NS	+	NS	NS	NS
Legitimacy					
Normative Alignment	+	NS	NS	+	NS

^{+:} Positive relationship; NS: Not Significant

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Owing to myriads of research on the citizens' perceptions of the police, there is a degree of consensus in regard to the factors that impact people's attitudes toward authorities. The seminal work by Tyler (1990) and the studies examining the legitimacy of authorities and cooperation by subordinates have informed readers of the way in which legitimacy promotes voluntary compliance and other actions that facilitate authorities' performing their work pertaining to social control. Particularly, perceived legitimacy of supervisors and prescribed rules not only increase compliance, but also increase deference to the rules and the decisions made by them (Tyler & Blader, 2000).

Based on the evidence supporting the importance of legitimacy, much investigation has been carried out on police legitimacy. The empirical results show that it plays a crucial role in carrying out their tasks of governing security and regulating people's behavior. A positive relationship between the perception of police legitimacy and cooperation by citizens is found in various cultural settings (Jackson et al., 2012; Murphy et al., 2008; Tankebe et al., 2016; Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Moreover, police legitimacy is suggested to promote cooperative behavior in specific areas of policing such as counter-terrorism activities (Cherny & Murphy, 2013) and compliance with tax (Murphy et al., 2009) and gun (Papachristos et al., 2012) laws. Additionally, when people view the police as a legitimate authority, they are more likely to report their victimization experience (Kochel et al., 2013).

With the abundance of empirical evidence of police legitimacy and citizens' cooperation in current policing literature, this exploratory research is conducted based on acknowledging the changes that have occurred in the field of policing. Scholars have noted that today's policing is performed by various entities that comprise the nodes in the network of governance (Bailey &

Shearing, 1996; Wood & Shearing, 2013). Furthermore, the worldwide trend of shifting toward neoliberalism and increasing privatization of the public good have stimulated responsibilization of policing (O'Malley & Palmer, 1996).

Despite this development in the network of security governance, little knowledge exists on non-public policing agents, especially the perceptions of private security officers toward their public counterparts. Therefore, by applying the conceptual framework of previous studies on citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy and cooperation with police, this research has examined such views of private security guards and their attitudes toward and engagement in cooperation with the police.

In the following, a detailed discussion of the research findings is presented. Drawing from the results of the analyses, how participants' socio-demographic characteristics and instrumental and normative judgments of police officers are associated with their perceptions of police legitimacy and cooperation are assessed. In addition, the potential role of police legitimacy in shaping the security guards' views toward and engagement in cooperation with the police is explored. Then, the contributions of this research to current private security and policing literature are considered. Furthermore, theoretical and policy implications are discussed, followed by critique of research limitations and suggestions for future research. First, key research findings are as follows:

1. Police Legitimacy (Obligation To Obey)

- Monthly income and Obligation To Obey are positively linked.
- Contact experience increases Obligation To Obey.
- Police performance and Obligation To Obey are positively related.
- Procedural justice is positively associated with Obligation To Obey.

2. Police Legitimacy (Trust)

- Police performance and Trust are positively related.
- Distributive justice is positively associated with Trust.
- Procedural justice and Trust are positively linked.

3. Police Legitimacy (Normative Alignment)

- Officers with higher education show greater Normative Alignment.
- Contact experience and Normative Alignment are positively related.
- Police performance and Normative Alignment are positively linked.
- Procedural justice and Normative Alignment are positively associated.

1. Effects of Socio-Demographic and Attitudinal Variables on Police Legitimacy

(1) Socio-demographic characteristics and police legitimacy

In discussing and interpreting the results, it should be noted that there are diverse ways of defining and conceptualizing police legitimacy as well as developing analytic models. The analytic approach employed in this research was guided by Tyler and Jackson (2014) that included both a comprehensive scale consisting of all dimensions (i.e. Obligation, Trust and confidence, and Normative alignment) of legitimacy as well as individual constructs as the outcome variables. In this research, individual dimensions of legitimacy were predicted but the comprehensive legitimacy measure was excluded because the primary purpose was to guide future research and policy implementation in the area of public-private police cooperation by offering specific areas to work on for both researchers and practitioners, rendering the prediction of "general" police legitimacy unnecessary.

Findings showed that varying socio-demographic characteristics predicted different dimensions of police legitimacy. To illustrate, as in Sunshine & Tyler (2003), the security guards'

income was positively related to their perceptions of obligation to obey the law and following the directives of police officers. In addition, the security officers' education levels and their degrees of normative alignment with police officers were positively associated, supporting a previous research finding (Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

Existing evidence does not show consistent relationships between socio-demographic correlates and the perception of police legitimacy. Some suggest that age and the view on police legitimacy are positively related (e.g. Murphy et al., 2008; Papachristos et al., 2012), while others suggest the opposite (e.g. Reisig et al., 2014; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Such variability in findings may result from the different contexts in which the studies are carried out. It could also be an outcome of the diverse characteristics of the sample. For example, a study that examines ordinary citizens (e.g. Murphy et al., 2008) may find different relationships between the socio-demographic and the dependent variables from another study examining individuals with victimization experience (e.g. Kochel et al., 2013).

For the current research, subgroup regression analyses are conducted by considering various conditions under which security officers work. Not only do they perform various duties (Wakefield, 2003), some are employed based on a contract while others are part of the in-house staff. Moreover, the security officers could have had contact with a police officer in personal and/or professional sphere, which could shape their attitudes (Cheurprakobkit, 2002). Findings showed that the contract security officers' monthly income, age, and education levels were positively associated with their obligation to obey the law, trust, and normative alignment, respectively. However, none of these socio-demographic variables predicted the perceptions of police legitimacy among the in-house security officers. One of the unique intrinsic characteristics of contract employees that may explain this difference is that they are not tied to or affected by

particular organizational cultures or customs. Thus, it can be speculated that their views about police legitimacy are more impacted by personal characteristics and experience rather than the attitudes toward the work of the police.

Furthermore, the security guards who had had contact with a police officer during the past year were shown to exhibit greater obligation to obey the law and normative alignment with the police. The subgroup analyses by contact experience revealed that whereas monthly income and education were positive correlates of police legitimacy among those without contact, no such relationships were found for individuals who had an encounter with a police officer. Based on these results, personal characteristics did not exert substantial influence on perception of police legitimacy when contact with a police officer was taken into consideration. This indicates that the contact experience could have affected the security officers' perceptions of the police.

(2) Attitudes toward the police and police legitimacy

Compared to the case of socio-demographic characteristics, the existing literature on police legitimacy presents consistent relationships between the instrumental and normative judgments of the police and police legitimacy. Particularly, both perceptions of instrumental and normative aspects of the police and their work are associated with favorable evaluation of the authority. Research has found that police performance and effectiveness as well as distributive justice (i.e. instrumental) and procedural justice (i.e. normative) affect people's perceptions of police legitimacy positively (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy et al, 2008; Papachristos et al., 2012; Reisig et al., 2014; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler & Jackson, 2014). The results of this research show that performance and procedural justice of the police were positively related to all dimensions of legitimacy were supported by existing evidence. Additionally, the significance of

distributive justice in predicting trust in and normative alignment with the police aligned with current knowledge.

Moreover, it was interesting to find that when comparing the significant correlates between the groups based on contact experience, procedural justice predicted the feeling of obligation to obey the law only among the security officers with contact experience. In addition, for the officers who had not had encountered a police officer, police performance affected all dimensions of police legitimacy positively, but their views on distributive justice of the police did not show significant explanatory power.

On the other hand, distributive justice was an important correlate of police legitimacy for those with contact experience, demonstrating that aside from their effectiveness in dealing with the issues related to crime and disorder, equal distribution of policing services and application of the law was important. It can be hypothesized that the officers who had contact with a police officer would have more information and opinions about distributive and procedural justice of the police through interacting with them. This in turn, may have played an important role in forming their views on the legitimacy of the police.

The results of the OLS models predicting the dimensions of police legitimacy revealed that varying socio-demographic characteristics were related to the outcome variables, which accorded with the existing research findings that lack consensus in regard to the associations. Nonetheless, as suggested by empirical evidence, both instrumental and normative aspects of the police were significant in enhancing participants' views on their legitimacy. The subsequent series of multivariate models shed light on the correlates of cooperation with police. Particularly, whether the results of previous research suggesting a positive relationship between police legitimacy and

citizen cooperation remained this research was examined. The following is a list of the main findings of police legitimacy and respondents' attitudes and engagement in cooperative behavior:

1. Cooperation (Compliance)

- Obligation To Obey and Compliance are positively related.
- Normative Alignment and Compliance are negatively associated (further examination using the multiple imputation method shows that this relationship is no longer significant).

2. Cooperation (Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior)

- Older officers are more likely to engage in cooperative behavior.
- Having contact experience increases Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior.
- Obligation To Obey and Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior are positively related.
- Trust and Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior are positively linked.

3. Cooperation (Empowerment)

- Male respondents are less likely to empower the police.
- Obligation To Obey and Empowerment are positively associated.
- Trust and Empowerment are positively linked.
- Normative Alignment and Empowerment are positively related.

4. Cooperation (Identification with Security Profession)

- Male participants are less likely to identify with their profession
- Trust and Identification with Security Profession are positively related.
- Normative Alignment and Identification with Security Profession are positively associated.

5. Cooperation (Extra-Role Behavior)

- Male officers are more likely to engage in Extra-Role Behavior
- Normative Alignment and Extra-Role Behavior are positively related.

2. Effects of Socio-Demographic Characteristics and Legitimacy on Cooperation

Cooperation with the police was the main outcome of interest in this research. The lack of studies on security officers' views on cooperation with the police necessitated referring to the research conducted on the citizens' perceptions. As in the case with police legitimacy, scholars have measured cooperation in a variety of ways.

In a general organizational context, Tyler and Blader (2000) measure cooperative behavior with compliance, in-role behavior (e.g. fulfill the responsibilities specified in job description), deference (e.g. follow organization's policies), and extra-role (e.g. volunteer to help to orient new employees). Examination of people's cooperation with the police have been conceptualized as compliance with the law, cooperative behavior, empowerment (Cherney & Murphy, 2013; Jackson et al., 2012; Murphy et al, 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler & Fagan, 2008; Tankebe, 2013). Additionally, some researchers have looked at people's reporting behavior of their own victimization experience (Kochel et al., 2013) as well as the degree to which they identify with their communities (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Current research included compliance with the law, likelihood of cooperative behavior, empowerment, identification with security profession, and

engagement in extra-role activities separately as the outcome variable in the OLS models, regressing them on the socio-demographic variables and on each dimension of legitimacy.

(1) Socio-demographic characteristics and cooperation with the police

The models analyzing all available cases showed that age was negatively related to likelihood of cooperative behavior. This showed that older security guards were less likely to engage in cooperative behavior with the police by reporting crime and sharing information, the same relationship also suggested in previous studies (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tankebe, 2013).

Additionally, male security officers were shown to be less supportive of empowering police officers and did not identify with the security profession as much as female security guards, but they reported greater involvement in extra-role activities. Despite the lack of detailed information, one may interpret this finding from a cultural perspective. To illustrate, the specific items measuring the extra-role behavior of the participants included attending meetings to discuss security issues in community, communicating views about community security to elected officials, and talking with neighbors about security problems in community. Given that South Korean society is still under the influence of Confucianism in which females are socialized to be passive and roles are restricted to home (Lee, 1998), compared to their male counterparts, female officers may find it more difficult to stay active and expand their involvement in the work of security beyond the workplace.

When findings were compared by the groups based on type of employment, it was shown that the socio-demographic variables explained cooperation of contract security officers well. While different forms of cooperation by contract security officers were predicted by age, gender, education and marital status, years of experience was the only significant variable that was related to the in-house officers' support of empowering the police.

Furthermore, contact experience had differing effects on contract and in-house security officers' cooperation. Specifically, having contact with a police officer was negatively related to the contract officers' empowerment of police officers and identification with security profession. On the other hand, such experience impacted the in-house security officers' likelihood of cooperative behavior positively. Therefore, it could be guessed that the way in which the police treated the two groups had varied and contributed to the distinct influence.

The results of OLS by contact experience revealed that for the security officers who had had contact experience, education level and income were positively related to the likelihood of cooperative behavior and identification with security profession. Prior studies support this finding by showing that education (Martin & Shehan, 1989) and pay (Nalla, Paek, & Lim, 2016) are positively related to job satisfaction, which can stimulate cooperative behavior such as interpersonal helping (Bowling, 2010). In addition, C. Lee's (1995) finding that satisfaction with pay increases extra-role behavior further supports the relationship shown between income levels and cooperative behavior among the security's officers with contact experience.

Moreover, Tyler and Jackson (2014) provide empirical support by concluding that the participants' income and their compliance, helping the police, and identification with community are positively associated. Also, education and compliance were found to be positively related in the study. However, the results for the security officers without contact experience were inconsistent when compared to the research of Tyler and Jackson. To illustrate, age was negatively associated with the likelihood of cooperative behavior in this research, whereas Tyler and Jackson found that it was positively related to helping the police, warranting continued exploration of the relationship.

(2) Legitimacy and cooperation

Existing studies on the perception of police legitimacy and cooperation by citizens present robust and consistent findings that establish a positive association between the two constructs. Therefore, the general consensus is that the more the police are viewed as a legitimate authority, citizens are more likely to cooperate with them in various ways such as compliance, sharing information to solve a crime case, and engagement in extra-role behavior (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Murphy et al., 2008; Murphy et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2012; Cherney & Murphy, 2013; Reisig et al., 2014; Tyler & Jackson, 2014).

The OLS results revealed the relationship between legitimacy and cooperation that accorded with the existing knowledge. The dimensions of legitimacy were positively associated with different types of cooperation with the police. Nonetheless, one contradictory finding was that security officers' normative alignment was negatively related to their compliance. In other words, the respondents who believed they had similar viewpoints and backgrounds with and were able to understand the decision-making by police officers reported having committed illegitimate actions to a greater degree than others who did not exhibit as much normative alignment with the police.

One possible explanation for this counterintuitive finding is that the offenses used to measure the participants' compliance with the law are not serious and are often committed by individual citizens. Therefore, although illegal, none of the offenses can be considered deviant. Additionally, these offenses do not pose significant harm to society and are not a threat to the security of people. Moreover, in the OLS model with the potential missing data issue addressed with MI, the negative relationship between security officers' normative alignment with the police

and their compliance disappeared, demonstrating the marginal nature of the association in the complete-case model.

When comparing the results by type of employment, different dimensions of legitimacy predicted the varying types of cooperation for contract and in-house security officers. Due to the restrictions of available data, the extent to which the group differences could be interpreted was limited. Nonetheless, speculations were formed based on the nature of work conditions. In explaining Empowerment and Identification with Security Profession, Trust and Normative Alignment were significant variables for in-house and contract officers, respectively. Because contract officers are less likely to experience job security and exert autonomy at work, being able to relate to police officers and believing that they have similarities could promote cooperation. On the other hand, the in-house officers may view police officers as more of partners, so being able to trust their work and motives could increase cooperation.

3. Contribution of Current Research

This research was carried out in the hope of making positive contributions to the literature on private security and privatization of policing, and the following have been done in order to serve this purpose. First, as pointed out by Button and Park (2009), the majority of existing studies on security officers' occupational culture, function and status have focused on the United Kingdom, North America, and Australia. Because the growth of the private security industry has been witnessed in other parts of the world as well, especially in Asia (Hou & Sheu, 1994; Nalla 1998; Yoshida, 1999), the current research is expected to be a meaningful addition by filling the gap. Considering the unique cultural and historical backgrounds of South Korea (Moon, 2004), the research findings could enrich the discussion of private security officers and how their functions

and relationships with other agents of policing (i.e. police officers) may be influenced by such factors.

Second, despite the valuable contributions made by existing studies on the backdrop of the rapid growth of the private security industry (Lee, 2004), structure and regulation (Button et al., 2006), and the relationships between police and security officers (Nalla & Hummer, 1999; Nalla & Hwang, 2006) in South Korea, there is little knowledge in regard to the predictors of security officers' willingness to cooperate with the police. Cooperation by security officers has different implications than that by ordinary citizens because of their professional status. It is important to note that the diverse duties they perform (Wakefield, 2003) bring them into contact with citizens (Nalla et al, 2016), and being part of an essential node in today's security network (Shearing, 2005) makes public-private cooperation in policing an important topic of discourse. Therefore, examination into the correlates of cooperation by security officers will help advance the literature on the South Korean private security.

Third, as an exploratory study, the approach taken by this research is not confined to a certain conceptual or analytical model. Although drawing from previous studies and building on the analytic models based on the work of Tyler and Jackson (2014), trying various ways to conceptualize and model police legitimacy and cooperation with them (i.e. dimensions of legitimacy and cooperation) was possible by being the first research of its kind. Also, other disciplines such as organizational psychology have been referred to in order to inform the analyses and discussion by type of employment (i.e. contract vs. in-house). Moreover, subgroup analyses by contact experience have been conducted. These strategies are expected to stimulate additional research and a new line of inquiry in the future.

Through this research, an attempt has been made to add to the existing literature by providing new insights into the private security industry and officers' opinions on the police. Specifically, exploration of how security guards' view of their public counterparts and cooperation with them could be a starting point for continued discourse and lay a foundation for effective public-private partnerships in policing.

4. Theoretical Implications

As mentioned previously, without an established conceptual theoretical framework, previous research on citizens' cooperative behavior with the police has been referred to in designing the current research. Based on the findings, several theoretical implications can be discussed, which will provide clearer guidelines for future studies.

The concept of cooperation between public and private nodes of the network of security governance can be approached from different perspectives. First, the benefits of such nodal cooperation can be explained by theories like RAT (Cohen & Felson, 1979) and the augmentation and transformation theories (Sklansky, 2006). These theories posit that the cooperation provides additional resources for maintaining security and order. In addition, policing duties can be performed in a more effective and efficient way by sharing each other's strategies.

With theoretical evidence of the advantages of such interorganizational cooperation, both parties must feel the need for interagency collaboration and be willing to partake in the cooperative efforts in order to reap the actual benefits. Prior research suggests that security and police officers do not communicate their views on working with each other very well. For instance, although not true, security officers are shown to believe that the police are not very keen on the idea of collaboration (Nalla & Hummer, 1999).

Given the hierarchical relationship between the two organizations that is different from that of Western nations in which the police and the private security maintain a horizontal relationship, the way that security officers perceive their public counterparts may be different. Nonetheless, the findings of the current research accorded with those of existing research in general, rendering existing legitimacy and process-based models of cooperation (Tyler, 1990; Tyler & Huo, 2002) relevant conceptual frameworks in assessing the cooperation between the private security and the police in South Korea.

Furthermore, there is substantial research on cooperative behavior within an organizational setting in the field of organizational psychology. For example, research shows that job satisfaction can increase an individual's cooperative behavior (Bowling, 2010). Moreover, considering other relevant constructs like job commitment and withdrawal behavior can deepen the discourse on cooperation. Considering the disadvantageous conditions under which South Korean security officers work (Button & Park, 2009), incorporating such theories from other disciplines can be beneficial.

Additionally, it will be meaningful if scholars can make attempts at developing an integrated theory of cooperation. Specifically, different integration methods such as end-to-end, side-by-side, and up-and-down (Hirschi, 1979) should be encouraged. For instance, being treated unfairly by the supervisor within an organizational setting may lead to a security officer's lower job satisfaction, which in turn can reduce the likelihood of engaging in extra-role behavior (end-to-end). Another example of an integrated theory may present a proposition that explains a security officer's cooperation partly through their job commitment and partly by the perception of police legitimacy (side-by-side). Lastly, Herzberg (1968) has suggested that factors including achievement, recognition, and responsibility determine job satisfaction. Under this broad idea of

job satisfaction, security officers' cooperation with the police may be explained (up-and-down) (i.e. involvement in cooperation as a means to increase one's job satisfaction through recognition).

To summarize, although there are no established theoretical models, the models for police legitimacy and citizen cooperation serve the purpose of the current research. Given that security officers work in a variety of forms and perform different duties under distinct work settings (Wakefield, 2003), consulting organizational psychology literature may also strengthen the overall conceptual model. Furthermore, exploring ways to integrate, if possible, the relevant theories is expected to offer a stronger explanation of security officers' attitudes toward and actual cooperation with police officers than individual theories alone.

As stated by Bernard and Ritti (1990), theoretical frameworks should guide research designs. Then, research studies are conducted and the results should inform policy implementation. Therefore, if future studies are designed with more refined theoretical framework, their results are expected to have valuable policy implications.

5. Policy Implications

Although current research lacks robust theoretical inputs, there are important policy implications to be discussed. Most importantly, the South Korean police should not only emphasize their performance and effectiveness in crime prevention and control, but also the way in which they distribute their services and treat citizens in the process of carrying out their duties. This research provides empirical evidence that security guards' perceptions of police performance and distributive and procedural justice are all positively related to police legitimacy, which in turn promotes cooperative behavior.

One way that the police can enhance each of the aforementioned correlates of legitimacy and cooperation is through education and training. Upper management should be informed of

existing research findings and distribute to lower-ranking officers the ideas of equal distribution of services and treatment of citizens. Moreover, police officers should be cognizant of the positive impact of interacting with citizens in a respectful and civil manner. As discussed, due to the unique history of the South Korean police, they have been viewed as an authoritarian organization until recently (Moon, 2004). Furthermore, considering the hierarchical nature of the relationship between the police and the private security, regular training and education programs aimed at enhancing the image of the police will facilitate interorganizational cooperation.

Private security should also make a tremendous effort to improve their image as a legitimate professional organization that is capable of functioning as part of the security network. Research has suggested that South Korean security guards are not viewed as well trained or thought of engaging in actual crime-fighting activities (Nalla & Hwang, 2004). Moreover, there is a great deal of mistrust and skepticism in regard to their integrity and commitment among police officers (Button et al., 2006). Therefore, the private security industry must place an emphasis on selecting qualified individuals and developing them into competent policing agents through proper education and training.

Another policy implication is creating more opportunities for cooperation between the police and the private security. Wakefield (2003) has stated that in the course of cooperation, the two entities are able to supplement each other and produce synergy effects in preventing and responding to crime. Unfortunately, only 170 out of 436 security officers in this research reported having contact with a police officer over the past year. Considering that not all of the people with contact experience encountered a police officer within a work setting, it could be concluded that the vast majority of respondents had not had a chance to work with the police. The issue pointed out by Nalla and Hummer (1999), misunderstanding between police and security officers, could

be resolved by offering more opportunities for cooperation and help police and security officers form more accurate perceptions about each other.

In order to increase the opportunities for the two organizations to work with each other, programs such as leader meetings to discuss the security matters in the communities should be developed and implemented. This will allow for active information sharing related to crime and planning of joint operations in crime prevention and control. In addition, ride-along programs are also suggested as a way to promote interagency cooperation and enhance the understanding of each other and the outcome of work efficiency. Furthermore, establishing mutual role standards, emergency contact networks, and information management system should be considered (Y. Lee, 1995).

Subsequently, specific areas that may require or benefit from cooperative policing should be identified. Neighborhood watches, policing special public events (political, sports, etc.), and controlling cybercrime are some of the examples. Particularly, cybercrime is an emerging crime that has become a serious social issue in the country with 144,679 cases committed in 2015 (Korea National Police Agency, 2015). Thus, by promoting the public-private cooperation in cyberspace, related offenses are expected to be prevented or responded to more effectively.

Furthermore, with rapid privatization of different government services such as education, and corrections, oversight has become an issue to address (Chassy & Amey, 2011). For instance, corruption is a possible threat as the degree of government interventions decreases and the autonomy of businesses increases. The private security industry is not free from this potential problem. In response, promotion of public-private cooperation could enhance the oversight of the industry and contribute to improving the overall transparency as well as effectiveness and

efficiency of policing services. In other words, interorganizational cooperation may moderate potential negative effects of rapid privatization of policing services (Y. Lee, 1995).

6. Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

There are several limitations in the current research. First, the convenience sample recruited and analyzed do not represent the overall private security populations in South Korea, rendering the findings not generalizable to those who are not included in the study. Furthermore, the vast majority of participants have reported engaging in facility protection and all of them are full-time employees. Therefore, the security guards who are employed on a part-time basis or in other security sectors such as personal protection, escort security, electronic security, and special security are excluded.

Additionally, data was collected from a large number of people using a cross-sectional survey method. Thus, it is difficult to establish a temporal ordering between the variables. Similarly, the OLS models can only reveal correlational links between variables, which makes defining the causal pathways among the variables unfeasible. Despite the limitations in regard to internal and external validity of the research findings, the specific design and method used are suitable for this research because they serve the purpose of exploring significant predictors of police legitimacy and cooperative behavior among participants.

By addressing the issues described above, future research should examine a more diverse group of security officers such as those who work part-time and that engage in special security duties (i.e. SSOs). In addition, using a probability sampling method will allow a generalization of the results to and predictions about the larger security officer populations in South Korea (Agresti & Finlay, 2009).

Furthermore, modeling and analyzing data through more advanced techniques like Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) can provide insights into more refined and complex relationships among variables. Also, employing qualitative methodology will enable profound assessment of the relationships among the variables by providing richness of information. In this research, some of the results from subgroup analyses cannot be understood fully, and a possible remedy is to use a mixed method design. Among different ways to combine methods (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), the sequential mixed method design would have offered a solution to the issue. In this method, quantitative analysis is followed by the qualitative phase such as interview in which questions are asked about the areas for which clarification is needed.

Lastly, future research should consider delving into the perceptions of police officers toward their private counterparts. Successful partnership and cooperation are not possible unless both parties work together to achieve common goals (Bovaird, 2004; Johnston & Shearing, 2003). Therefore, understanding police officers' views on the legitimacy of security officers and working with them will not only add to the existing knowledge, but also suggest policies that are more viable in practice.

7. Conclusion

The focus of this research was to examine private security officers' perceptions of police officers and cooperation with them in South Korea. Specifically, based on the findings of previous studies on citizens' views on the police, security officers' attitudes toward police officer's legitimacy and their link to cooperative behavior were explored.

Findings suggested that the views on both the instrumental and normative aspects of the police work were positively related to police legitimacy. In addition, the dimensions of police legitimacy were related to different types of cooperation. Theoretical and policy implications were

also discussed based the results of this research, and it was suggested that drawing from organizational psychology and possible theoretical integration were expected to inform future studies and advance the literature further.

Notwithstanding limitations of not being able to present causal relationships among the constructs or generalize the results to a larger population, this exploratory research is meaningful as the first attempt at assessing South Korean security officers' cooperative behavior with the police. This is a timely discourse given the structure of the nation's governance of security characterized by increasing privatization of policing services and re-formation of the policing network that is mainly constituted of the police and the private security.

Finally, this line of inquiry should continue in order to enrich the literature on public-private police cooperation and offer viable policy implications. As noted by numerous scholars, today's policing is no longer monopolized by the police. In times when policing services are provided by diverse agents in the network of security, it is hoped that current research offers meaningful contributions to the existing knowledge and stimulates further exploration into the topic.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Key Research Findings in Literature

Table 5.22 Findings in Research on Police Legitimacy and Cooperation with the Police

Author(s)	Sample	Main dependent variable(s)	Main significant independent variable(s)	Key Finding(s)
Paternoster et al. (1997)	825 warned and arrested male suspects of domestic violence	The number of spouse assault incidents reported	Race (black), prior violence, perceived procedural justice	Perceived procedural justice suppresses subsequent violence, even in the face of adverse outcomes. Suspects that are arrested and have perceived that they are treated in a procedurally fair manner have subsequent assault rates that are as low as those suspects given a more favorable outcome.
Tyler & Blader (2000)	404 employees	Cooperative behaviors (compliance, in-role, deference, and extra-role)	Sanctions, legitimacy	Perceived sanctioning system and legitimacy of supervisors and rules increase compliance behavior and deference to rules and decisions made by supervisor. Legitimacy increases extra-role behavior of employees.
Tyler & Huo (2002)	1,656 residents of Oakland and Los Angeles	Acceptance of the decisions of legal authorities	Motive-based trust, procedural justice	Perceived motive-based trust and procedural fairness of the authority promote acceptance of their decisions.

Table 5.22 (cont'd)

Sunshine & Tyler (2003)	2,239 New York City Residents	Compliance with the law, cooperation with police, and police empowerment	Police legitimacy, police performance	Residents that view the police as legitimate are more willing to cooperate with them by reporting crimes or identifying criminals, and by engaging in community activities to combat crime.
				Police performance is positively related to cooperation with and empowerment of police.
Hinds & Murphy (2007)	2,611 residents in an Australian jurisdiction	Legitimacy	Education, age, procedural justice, distributive justice, and police performance	Procedural justice, distributive justice, and police performance affect legitimacy positively.
Tyler & Fagan (2008)	830 New York City residents	Helping the police and helping the community	Legitimacy, crime conditions, risk, identification with neighborhood	Legitimacy (obligation, trust, and confidence, and identification with the police) predicts helping the police and the community. Crime conditions, sanction risk, and identification with neighborhood are shown to be positively related to helping the community.

Table 5.22 (cont'd)

Murphy et al. (2008)	102 Australian residents	Cooperation with police and police legitimacy	Previous cooperation and legitimacy, procedural justice, distributive justice	Willingness to cooperate and perception of police legitimacy are moderately stable over time. Legitimacy and cooperation are positively related and procedural and distributive justice are shown to increase perception of legitimacy.
Tankebe (2009)	374 residents from Accra, Ghana	Cooperation with police	Effectiveness	Public cooperation with the police in Ghana is affected by police effectiveness in fighting crime.
Murphy et al. (2009)	652 tax offenders, 110 university students that are social security benefits recipients, and 743 Australian citizens	Compliance behavior in the contexts of tax and social security and willingness to cooperate with police	Procedural justice and legitimacy of laws	Perception of the legitimacy of the law and procedural justice impact compliance and cooperation positively. Perception of the law moderates the effect of procedural justice on compliance behaviors and willingness to cooperate with police. Procedural justice is particularly important for shaping compliance and cooperation when people question the legitimacy of the laws.

Table 5.22 (cont'd)

Jackson et al. (2012)	7,434 citizens from England and Wales	Offending behavior (compliance)	Obligation to obey the law, moral alignment with the police, and personal morality	Obligation to obey the law and moral alignment with the police are negatively related to offending behavior. Personal morality is negatively associated with offending behavior.
Papachristos et al. (2012)	141 gun offenders	Perceptions of legitimacy of the law and carrying a gun	Age, high school diploma, perceptions of police, and perceptions of legitimacy of police	Individuals are more likely to comply with the law (i.e. not carrying a gun) when they believe in the substance of the law and police legitimacy.
Kochel et al. (2013)	280 victims of burglary, robbery, and assault in Trinidad Tobago	Reporting victimization to police in the preceding six months	Legitimacy and procedural fairness	When police are perceived as more procedurally just and as legitimate, victims are more likely to report their victimization to police.
Tankebe (2013)	5,120 London residents	Cooperation with police	Effectiveness	Perceived police effectiveness increases cooperation among victims of crime but decrease cooperation among non-victims.

Table 5.22 (cont'd)

Cherney & Murphy (2013)	302 residents in Brisbane & Melbourne	Cooperation with police in general and in counter-terrorism activities	Police legitimacy, law legitimacy, and Australian identity	Perceptions of police legitimacy are most important in predicting cooperation in general crime control activities.
				Perceptions about the legitimacy of the law and identification with Australian society matter deal when it comes to predicting cooperation in counter-terrorism.
Reisig et al. (2014)	693 residents in Slovenia	Legitimacy and compliance with the law	Male, procedural justice, police effectiveness, moral credibility, legitimacy, low self-control, and personal morality	Male participants are less likely to view police as legitimate and comply with the law. Procedural justice and effectiveness and moral credibility are positively related to police legitimacy.
				Police legitimacy and personal morality are positively associated with compliance with the law. Low self-control and compliance with the law are negatively related.

Table 5.22 (cont'd)

Tyler & Jackson (2014)	1,603 residents in the United States	Legitimacy, compliance, cooperation, and engagement	Quality of treatment, accuracy, police effectiveness, procedural justice	Perceived quality of treatment, accuracy of outcome, police effectiveness, and procedural justice predict legitimacy of legal authorities. Legitimacy and risk of sanction are positively related to compliance and help behavior. Legitimacy is positively associated with community identification and perceived social capital.
Tankebe et al. (2016)	516 U.S. and 444 Ghanaian university students	Cooperation and compliance	Male, obligation to obey, police legitimacy, low self-control	Obligation to obey and police legitimacy are related to cooperation with police in the United States and Ghana, respectively. Police legitimacy and obligation to obey are positively related to compliance in the United States. Males and those with low self-control are less likely to comply with the law in both countries.

APPENDIX B. Survey Instrument

Private Security Officers' Perceptions of Police Legitimacy in South Korea: Implications for interagency cooperation

Thank you for participating in this survey. The aim of this research is to broaden the scope of existing knowledge regarding a range of attitudes and beliefs of private security officers on police legitimacy. Specifically, the determinants of the perceptions of police legitimacy and willingness to cooperate among private security officers are examined, and the implications for interagency cooperation in the security network are discussed.

Please fill the questionnaire by marking your answers on the survey sheet. The survey administrator does not know the names of the respondents that choose to participate in the study nor does this survey have identification marks. All responses are completely anonymous and will not be used in any ways that may identify the respondent. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Please return the questionnaire to the administrator once completed.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and it will take about 20 minutes. Even after you agree to respond to the survey, you may refuse to participate in certain procedures, answer certain questions, or discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. To keep this survey anonymous, please do not provide any identifiable information on the form. I do not foresee any risks for responding to this survey. I believe that your participation will help me gain a better understanding of how police officers are viewed by their counterparts in the private sector.

The submitted questionnaires will be coded into data files and both the questionnaires and the coded data will be kept with the investigator at Michigan State University (MSU) (Baker Hall, 655 Auditorium Road, Room 134, East Lansing, MI 48824) for a period of 3 years after the project closes. The data files will only be shared with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at MSU. Coded data will be password-protected and the computers storing data will be located in the investigator's office that is locked when unoccupied.

If you have questions or concerns about the research, such as scientific issues, how to do any part of it, or to report an injury (i.e. physical, psychological, social, financial, or otherwise), please contact Seung Yeop Paek (Baker Hall, 655 Auditorium Road, Room 134, East Lansing, MI 48824, paekseun@msu.edu, 517-353-5150).

If you have questions or concerns about your role and rights as a research participant, would like to obtain information or offer input, or would like to register a complaint about this study, you may contact, anonymously if you wish, Michigan State University's Human Research Protection

Program (Phone: 517-355-2180; Fax: 517-432-4503; e-mail: irb@msu.edu; mail: Olds Hall, 408 W. Circle Drive, Room 207, East Lansing, MI, 48824).

You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire.

In the following sections, I would like your views on the police officers and the police in South Korea. Please answer the following questions by checking one of the answer choices.

1. Contact Experience with Police

NO.	Content	Yes	No				
Conta	Contact Experience with Police						
	•						
1-1	Have you had contact with a police officer						
	in the last 12 months?						

If answered "yes" to 1-1, please respond to the following. If answered "no", skip to 2-1.

NO.	Content	Personal	Professional
1.2	What was the nature of this contact?		
1-2	(please check all that apply)		

1-3	What was the reason for the "Personal" contact? (please check all that apply)					
	□1 I needed information and/or help	□4 The police officer stopped me for traffic violation				
	☐2 I needed to report a crime/accident/disturbance					
	☐3 The police officer made a remark about my conduct	□5 Other:				
	What was the reason for the "Professional" contact? (please check all that apply)					
1-4	□1 Police requested information for crime investigation	□4 I took part in the cooperative effort to prevent crime (patrol, community policing, etc.)				
	☐2 I needed to report a crime/accident/disturbance	□5 Other:				
	\square 3 I needed to hand over the suspect of a crime					

In the following section, I would like your opinions about <u>your personal and/or professional contact with police officers.</u> On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree, please circle the number that represent your views on each of the following statements:

Satisfaction

NO.	Content	Personal	Professional
1-5	The police officer generally did a good job dealing with the situation	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1-6	I was generally satisfied with the way the officer handled the situation	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Motive-Based Trust

NO.	Content	Personal	Professional
1-7	Police officer considered my opinion	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1-8	Police officer tried hard to do the right thing	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1-9	Police officer tried to take my/the client's need into account	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1-10	Police officer cared about my/the client's concern	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

2. Perception of Police Legitimacy

NO.	Content	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Obliga	Obligation to Obey						
2-1	People should obey the law even if it goes against what they think is right.						
2-2	Disobeying the law is seldom justified.						
2-3	If a person is doing something and a police officer tells them to stop, they should stop even if they feel that what they are doing is legal.						
Trust	Trust and Confidence in Police						
3-1	The police can be trusted to make decisions that are right for the people in my neighborhood.						
3-2	People's basic rights are well protected by the police in my neighborhood.						
3-3	I am proud of the work of the South Korean police.						

3-4	I have confidence that the South Korean police can do its job well.					
Mora	Moral/Normative Alignment					
4-1	If I talked to most of the police officers, I would find they have similar views to my own on many issues.					
4-2	My background is similar to that of many of the police officers.					
4-3	I can usually understand why the police are acting as they are in a particular situation.					
4-4	Most of the police officers would value what I contribute to security.					

3. Instrumental and Normative Aspects of Policing

NO.	Content	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely	
Sancti	Sanction Risk						
	Likelihood of punishment for the following:						
5-1	Illegal parking						
5-2	Illegal disposal of trash and litter						
5-3	Making noise at night						
5-4	Speeding or breaking traffic laws						
5-5	Violating copyrights						
NO.	Content	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Police	e Performance						
6-1	The police do a good job dealing with						
	problems in the community.						
6-2	The police do a good job preventing crime						
6-3	The police do a good job keeping order on the streets.						
6-4	The police do a good job responding to emergencies.						
Distributive Justice							
7-1	People receive the outcomes they						
	deserve under the law when they deal with the police.						
7-2	The police provide their services equally over different communities.						

7-3	The police provide the same quality of			
	service to people living in all areas of the			
	city.			
7-4	The police treat everyone equally.			
7-5	It is about who you are when it comes to			
	police.			
Proce	edural Justice			
8-1	Police make decisions about how to			
	handle problems in fair ways.			
8-2	Police make their decisions based on			
	facts, not their personal biases or			
	opinions.			
8-3	Police clearly explain the reasons for			
	their actions.			
8-4	Police give people a chance to express			
	their views before making decisions.			
8-5	Police consider people's opinions when			
	deciding what to do.			
8-6	Police treat people with dignity and			
	respect.			
8-7	Police are concerned about respecting			
	citizens' rights.		 	

4. Cooperative Behavior

NO.	Content	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Very Likely
Willin	gness to Cooperate with the Police					
9-1	How likely will you report a minor crime you have witnessed to the police?					
9-2	How likely will you report a serious crime you have witnessed to the police?					
9-3	How likely will you call the police to report an accident?					
9-4	How likely will you provide police with information about an accident?					
9-5	How likely will you provide police with information to solve a crime?					
9-6	How likely will you help the police to find a suspect of a crime?					
9-7	How likely will you report suspicious or dangerous activities to the police?					

NO.	Content	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Comp	liance: During the last 6 months, how often	have you.				
10-1	parked a car illegally					
10-2	disposed of trash and litter illegally					
10-3	made noise at night					
10-4	sped or broke traffic laws					
10-5	violated copyrights					
NO.	Content	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
Empo	werment					
11-1	The police should have the right to stop					
	and question people on the street.					
11-2	The police should have the power to					
	decide which areas of the city should					
	receive the most police protection.					
11-3	Because of their training and experience,					
	the police are best able to decide how to					
11 /	deal with crime in neighborhood.					
11-4	The police should have the power to do					
	whatever they think is needed to fight crime.					
11-5	If we give enough power to the police,					
11-3	they will be able to effectively control					
	crime.					
Engag	gement & Extra-Role Behavior		ı			
12-1	I am proud to contribute to the safety of					
	society.					
12-2	When someone praises the achievements					
	of other security agents, it feels like a					
	personal compliment.					
12-3	The things that my organization stands for are important to me.					
12-4	Being a part of the security network is					
	important to the way that I think of myself as a person.					
12-5	People respect what I contribute to the					
	security of community.					
NO.	Content	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
	gement & Extra-Role Behavior Contd. Often do you:					
13-1	attend meetings to discuss security					
1	problems in community?					

13-2	2 communicate	your views	s abou	t							
	•	curity issues to	o elected	1							
	officials?										
13-3		neighbors abou	t security	y							
	problems in you	ur community?									
. .		.•									
5. Ca	reer Choice Inform	ation									
NO		Content			Y	es				No	
14-1	officer?	family members	•								
14-2	Was private secucareer?	ırity your primary	choice of	-							
14-3	Did you try to be	ecome a police of	ficer first?)							
	(have taken an ex	xam, etc.)									
						ot become		□4 I bel			
				a pon	ce office	er		best way			
				П2 Т	his was	my drear		the security of the society 5 Other:			
14-4		d you become a private security			ms was	my drear	" "	_ 5 Out	01.		
	officer? (plea	se mark all that apply)		□3 T	his was	what I					
					do with	•					
						ackgroun	d				
				and e	xperienc	ce					
6 Do	alzamovned Informat	tion									
о. Б а	ckground Informat	.1011									
15	Gender	□1 Female				\square 2	Male	e			
16	Age on last										
10	birthday										
17	Years of										
	Experience										
18	Monthly Income	Won				T = 4 3 T					
19	Marital Status	☐ 1 Married				□ 2 No					
20	Education	☐ 1 High Scho				□ 3 Ba				3	
		☐ 2 Associate				□ 4 M).	T = -	~
21	Area of Security	☐ 1 Facility	☐ 2 Pers					☐ 4 ☐ 5 Spec		-	
		Protection Protection		•			Electronic Security Security		rity		
22	True of			ППО	Cantus	-4	Seci)41 ₀ 0		
22	Type of	☐ 1 In-house			Contra	Cl		\square 3 (ine	Т	
23	Employment Employer	□ 50 or less		1-100		□ 101·	150	1		151 0	r more
23	Business Size	in 50 of less		1-100		101.	-130			1310	1 111016
1	Dusiness Size	1	I			1			1		

APPENDIX C. Participants' Career Choices

Figure 5.1a Private Security was Primary Choice of Career (n/%)

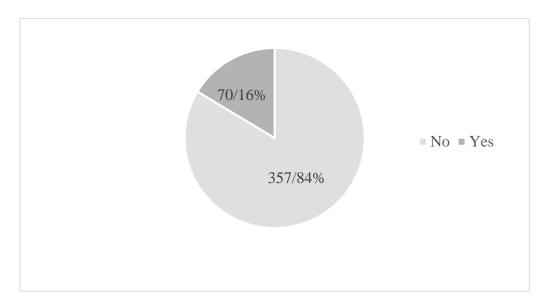
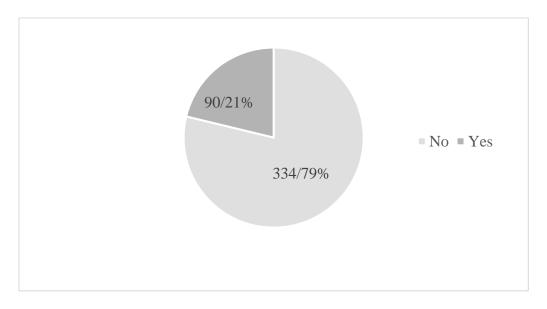
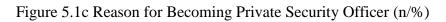
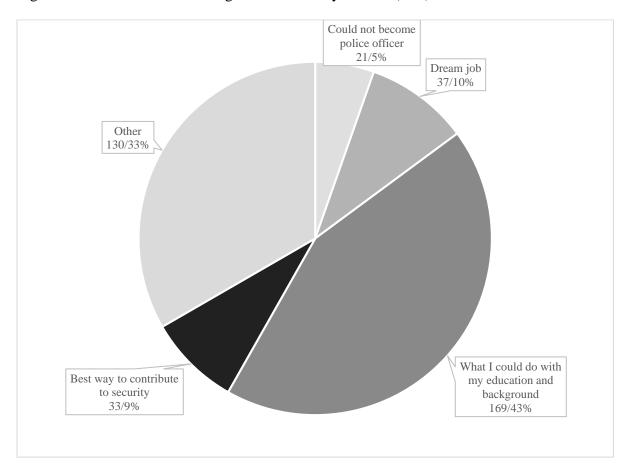


Figure 5.1b Have Tried to Become Police Officer First (n/%)







APPENDIX D. Additional Multivariate Analysis

Table 5.23a Ordinary Least Squares analysis (multiple imputation): Compliance

	Compliance (n= 431)		
Variables			
	В	SE	
Socio-Demographic			
Male	65	.57	
Age	.02	.01	
Years of Experience	.04	.04	
Monthly Income	.24	.40	
Married	09	.37	
Education	01	.19	
Contact			
Contact Experience	.03	.28	
Legitimacy			
Obligation to Obey	.19*	.08	
Trust	.07	.06	
Normative Alignment	10	.07	

Table 5.23b Ordinary Least Squares analysis (multiple imputation): Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior

	Likelihood of Cooperative Behavior (n= 435)	
Variables		
	b	SE
Socio-Demographic		
Male	.06	.95
Age	07***	.02
Years of Experience	09	.06
Monthly Income	.01	.67
Married	.65	.64
Education	.39	.32
Contact		
Contact Experience	1.51***	.47
Legitimacy		
Obligation to Obey	.45***	.13
Trust	.26**	.10
Normative Alignment	.28*	.11

Table 5.23c Ordinary Least Squares analysis (multiple imputation): Empowerment

	Empowerment (n= 436)		
Variables			
	b	SE	
Socio-Demographic			
Male	-1.34*	.58	
Age	.02	.01	
Years of Experience	.05	.04	
Monthly Income	.20	.39	
Married	.21	.39	
Education	09	.19	
Contact			
Contact Experience	22	.29	
Legitimacy			
Obligation to Obey	.33***	.08	
Trust	.24***	.06	
Normative Alignment	.35***	.07	

Table 5.23d. Ordinary Least Squares analysis (multiple imputation): Identification with Security Profession

	Identification with Security Profession (n= 436)		
Variables			
	ь	SE	
Socio-Demographic			
Male	-1.45*	.60	
Age	.04**	.01	
Years of Experience	02	.04	
Monthly Income	.53	.41	
Married	.38	.39	
Education	13	.20	
Contact			
Contact Experience	04	.30	
Legitimacy			
Obligation to Obey	.12	.08	
Trust	.30***	.07	
Normative Alignment	.35***	.07	

Table 5.23e Ordinary Least Squares analysis (multiple imputation): Extra-Role Behavior

	Extra-role behavior (n= 435)		
Variables			
	b	SE	
Socio-Demographic			
Male	1.22*	.53	
Age	.02	.01	
Years of Experience	03	.03	
Monthly Income	.26	.37	
Married	.25	.35	
Education	.07	.18	
Contact			
Contact Experience	18	.26	
Legitimacy			
Obligation to Obey	05	.08	
Trust	04	.06	
Normative Alignment	.25***	.06	

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